

WHAT NITRO-GLYCERINE IS.

UNFORTUNATELY nitro-glycerine enjoys just now an unenviable notoriety. The words are in all mouths, and nitro-glycerine is discussed in every circle. In another place we have said something concerning the effects which it can produce, and the proper method of destroying it. We propose here to explain what nitro-glycerine is, in such a way that our non-chemical readers may understand what this thing is to which appertain such deadly attributes.

Nitro-glycerine is produced by mixing nitric and sulphuric acids with glycerine at a low temperature. The important agents are the glycerine and the nitric acid. The sulphuric acid appears to do little save attract to itself any water which may be present in the glycerine or the nitric acid. It is well known that sulphuric acid has a strong affinity for water, and it is this characteristic which renders it useful in this connection.

Nitric acid is prepared by treating nitrate of potash—saltpetre—or nitrate of soda with sulphuric acid—oil of vitriol. The saltpetre is placed in a kind of still, the sulphuric acid is added; the retort or still is heated cautiously, and the nitric acid rises in the form of vapour, which is condensed and collected for use. It can be purified and concentrated by redistillation with a quantity of sulphuric acid. Nitric acid is one of the most corrosive acids known. In chemical notation its formula is  $HNO_3$ . That is to say, it is composed of one atom each of hydrogen and nitrogen and three atoms of oxygen. It is known as hydric nitrate and as aquafortis. Its composition was first investigated by Cavendish in 1785, but it seems to have been known to the old alchemists. It

of oxygen; but these two gases have a very feeble affinity for each other, while, on the contrary, the carbon and the hydrogen have intense affinities for oxygen. On the least provocation, therefore, the oxygen leaves the nitrogen, which, set free, ceases to be a liquid, and becomes a gas, while intense heat is produced, which volatilises and breaks up the other compounds, and augments enormously the pressure of the escaping gases. Those who are familiar with the experiments of Pictet, on the liquefaction of gas, know how intense is the cold and how enormous the pressure required to liquefy even a small quantity of such a gas as nitrogen, but this liquefaction has been accomplished in the explosive by chemical affinity; and the moment this affinity is destroyed, the chained force is let loose—we know with what result. Now, it will be seen that nitro-glycerine ought to be a powerful explosive, for in it no less than three molecules of  $NO_2$  take the place of three atoms of hydrogen, as will be seen at a glance if we reproduce the two formulæ here. Glycerine is  $C_3H_5O_3$ ; nitro-glycerine is  $C_3H_5N_3O_9$ ; the carbon remains unaltered; and three atoms of hydrogen have disappeared. In their stead we find three atoms of nitrogen, and oxygen rises from 3 to 9. Nor does nitro-glycerine fail to satisfy the expectations that we might form concerning it. It is the most powerful explosive known. As will be gathered from the following figures, there are two classes of explosion—the first is known as detonation, the second as explosion:—

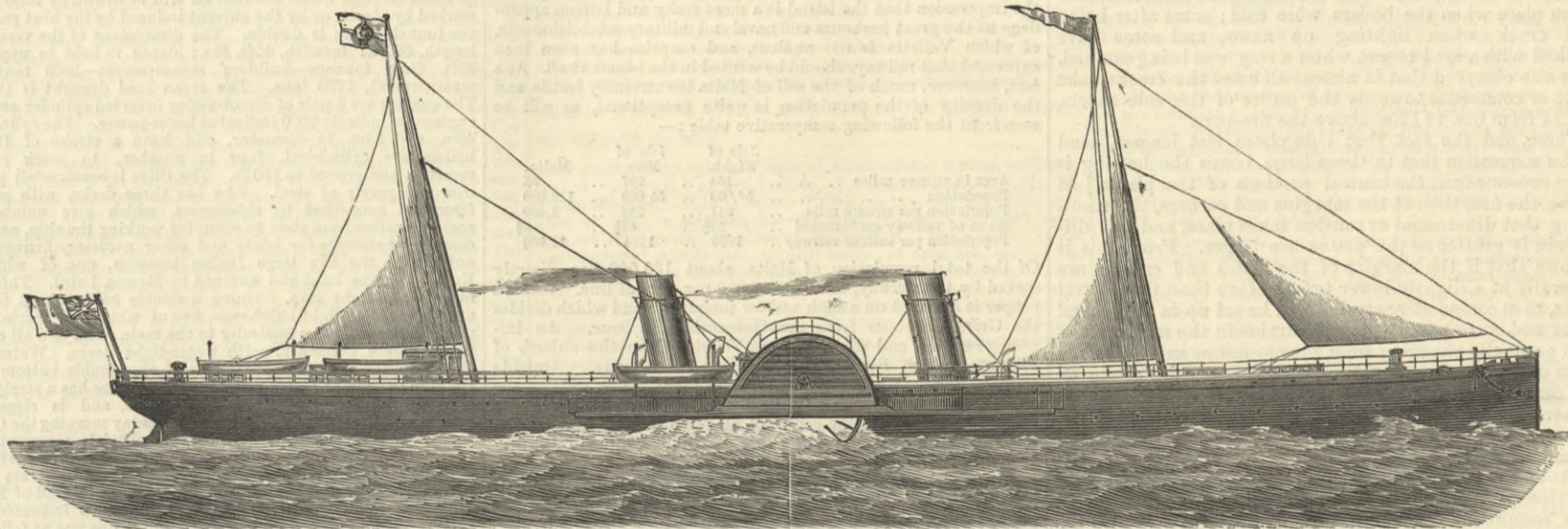
	Second-class. Exploded.	First-class. Detonated.
Gunpowder ... ..	1	4.34
Gun-cotton ... ..	3	6.46
Nitro-glycerine ... ..	4.8	10.13

Here we see that taking gunpowder fired in the ordinary

at the Whitehall Club, when the explosion took place at the Government Offices, the plate-glass windows being blown outwards into the street, not inwards into the house.

STEEL FIRE-BOXES.

In January last a paper was read by Mr. Fernie before the Institution of Civil Engineers on "Mild Steel for the Fire-boxes of Locomotive Engines," a subject of much importance to railway engineers and to the builders of boilers of the locomotive type, whether for locomotive, portable, or fixed engines, or for marine purposes. Neither the paper, however, or the discussion upon it added much to the previously existing information on the subject, nor did it show why American locomotive engineers had adopted mild steel for this purpose so much more extensively and more successfully than those in England. Mr. Fernie roundly upbraided English locomotive engineers for moving so slowly and unsuccessfully in the matter; and came to the conclusion that it was because they had not enough courage, ingenuity, or enterprise to command success. In one passage in particular he told English engineers a little of his opinion on this subject; and by negative statements insisted on the positive disadvantages, mental and otherwise, under which he considered they laboured. With very slight alterations, so as to make it read as was intended, this passage runs thus:—"There is, unhappily, in England, Government control to hamper or interfere with railroad engineers, both in regard to the material which they employ and their designs. They are not at liberty to exercise their ingenuity in construction, disposition, strength, and choice of materials, and the competition between rival companies is so small, that the whip has to be held over rail-



THE LONDON AND NORTH-WESTERN RAILWAY COMPANY'S S.S. VIOLET.—(For description see page 202.)

possesses the property of producing explosive compounds with great freedom, its energy being due principally to the nitrogen which it contains; and it is worth notice that, as has been pointed out by Kempshead, although apparently possessing nothing but negative qualities, it in combination forms part of the most powerful and active substances known, as, for examples, nitric acid and ammonia, the extremes of acidity and alkalinity. It is a constituent, too, of strychnine, morphia, and prussic acid, and is a component of all valuable foods.

With the characteristics of glycerine all our readers are, no doubt, familiar. It is found on most toilet tables, and in every family medicine chest; it is used as a lubricant, and a mixture of glycerine and water is employed for charging the dash-pots or cataracts of certain arc lamps. It is a slightly sweet, smooth, clear, syrupy liquid, almost tasteless, and nearly devoid of odour. It will, no doubt, surprise many of our readers to learn that it is an alcohol. It can be obtained from all solid animal and vegetable fats, and from most oils. It is freely produced when an oil is treated with an alkali—saponified—in presence of water. It is made in stearine candle factories, and can also be obtained from old soap lye. It is best produced pure by beating up an oil or fat with about half its weight of water into an emulsion. This is then pumped through a coil of iron piping heated to the temperature of melting lead, the rate of pumping being such that the mixture of oil and water will occupy about ten minutes in traversing the coil. The fluid which comes out from the worm quickly separates into two portions, glycerine lying at the bottom. The supernatant oily liquid being drawn off, the glycerine remains, nearly pure. Its formula is  $C_3H_5O_3$ .

Nitro-glycerine is made by adding nitric and sulphuric acids to glycerine. Unfortunately, no skill whatever is required to produce the required explosive, only a knowledge of one or two simple facts; but skill is required to produce nitro-glycerine pure enough to be comparatively safe. For obvious reasons we must decline to say how it can be rendered pure; and lest our younger and less cautious readers should undertake the manufacture for themselves of a few drops or other small quantity, for the sake of experiment, we decline to give the proportions of acid and glycerine which must be used; and we may add that it is quite possible to make a non-explosive mixture apparently nitro-glycerine, and that, lacking a knowledge of the details of manipulation, the man who wants to make it will be pretty certain to fail—on the whole, a very fortunate circumstance.

Nitro-glycerine is a brownish, smooth, oily liquid, and a deadly poison. Its formula is  $C_3H_5N_3O_9$ . Its explosive force is due to the unstable nature of the compound. We have in most explosives carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen to begin with; to these have been added—by treatment with nitric acid—a certain portion of nitric peroxide,  $NO_2$ , that is, one atom of nitrogen and two atoms

way as 1, it will detonate with four and one-third times more force, and detonated nitro-glycerine is 10.13 times more energetic than fired gunpowder. As to the actual dynamic power or potential energy possessed by 1 lb. of each of five well-known explosives, the following table gives the facts:—

	Foot-tons per lb.
Gunpowder ... ..	480
Gun-cotton... ..	716
Nitro-glycerine ... ..	1139
Picrate of potash ... ..	536
Chloride of nitrogen... ..	216

Chlorine possesses some of the properties of nitrogen as regards the production of explosives, which are, however, so unstable that they are unknown out of the laboratory, as, for example, chloric peroxide  $ClO_2$ . It is obtained by acting on fused chlorate of potash with about two-thirds of its weight of sulphuric acid. It is at ordinary temperatures a gas, but a slight increase of pressure or a freezing mixture condenses it into a fearfully explosive red liquid. Chlorous anhydride is a yet more dangerous compound. Chloride of nitrogen is produced by passing chlorine through a solution of ammonia. Not more than a few drops at a time have been experimented with, for it detonates if blown on or touched with a feather. It is believed that the celebrated scheme of Lord Dundonald for destroying Sebastopol from a balloon during the Crimean War was based on the notion that it would be possible to produce a couple of gallons of chloride of nitrogen, send it up in a balloon, and drop it in the heart of Sebastopol, when it would explode with the shock and wreck everything. Apart from the impossibility of doing anything of the kind, we may say that the chloride of nitrogen would have proved very ineffective. It would not do half as much general mischief as the same weight of gunpowder, but its local action would have been very intense. Thus, a drop of it exploded on a table, will suffice to shatter the leaf of the table, but the actual work which it would perform in raising a weight or propelling a shot from a gun would be insignificant.

All that concerns the exact mode of operation of explosives is still involved to a certain extent in doubt. It is impossible to do more than collect the products of combustion and assume from them that certain chemical changes have taken place, but there is no satisfactory evidence that we can follow the whole chain of events. It is only known that the mechanical action of all explosives depends on the sudden conversion of an element from a solid or liquid state into that of a gas with an enormous augmentation of bulk. It is worth notice, moreover, that every explosion is accompanied by two distinct effects, first, the violent repulsion of the air from a given space, which may be regarded as the primary effect; the highly heated gas quickly cools, a partial vacuum is formed, and the air rushes in from all sides to fill it. This produces the secondary effect, which may be confounded with the first. An admirable example of the secondary effect was supplied

in England to compel them to adopt improvements. Inventions are not quickly examined or tested and rejected or adopted, and none of the railways have experimental officers, whose whole work it is to test or experiment on new materials or inventions. With antiquated rust or shackles, trammelled by official forms or traditions, the English engineer accepts any—say his grandfather's—type of bridge, machine, boiler, or engine as the best thing that can ever be made, and which he slavishly copies and hands down to his successor; he accepts materials from manufacturers who refuse to adopt the more modern improvements. Conservative in the retention of what is best and most suitably adapted for his work he certainly is, but with this conservatism, there is no desire to excel, and none to receive, as the fruits of his ingenuity, the substantial rewards which the most maligned patent laws in the world give to its inventors."

Now this was a very hard saying, and though English engineers may be obtuse in some things, Mr. Fernie should remember that some at least may be sensitive, and may feel hurt at the disagreeable comparison he draws between the engineers of the two countries, and the way in which those on this side are handicapped. These engineers were not, however, present during the discussion, or at any rate, did not show that the picture Mr. Fernie had drawn would lead them to pack up and haste to the West, where they could do exactly as they chose, where they would have no Government control, and where they could shake off the rust and shackles, and open their eyes. Some of them, however, did gently hint that the bold author might have told them something new—something more than that American master mechanics had succeeded with steel fire-boxes because they had made very large numbers of them and used thin plates. Mr. Fernie was not there, however, to reply to the discussion, and so, perhaps, was lost the postscriptal sting of new and clenching facts. As it was, he did not show why American engineers have succeeded, and why English engineers have failed. The latter, we believe, are ready to learn, but they cannot gain much by being told that they have not been successful while others have. It would have done a great deal more good to have told them something of the character of the early failures of steel in fire-boxes in America, and then of the precautions and modifications adopted from time to time to prevent these failures. It could not have been that such information did not exist, for we have only to turn to the reports of the American Master Mechanics' Association to find records of many of the troubles and trials through which engineers have gone in order to arrive at anything like success. From a perusal of these reports, which have been published by our excellent contemporary, the *Railroad Gazette*, it does not appear that failure or success have been altogether dependent upon the characteristics of the steel, or on the relation between elastic and ultimate tensile strengths and ductility, but rather on the way in





THE MALTA RAILWAY.

MESSRS. WELLS-OWEN AND GERVASE ELWES, M.M.I.C.E., WESTMINSTER, ENGINEERS.

(For description see page 280.)

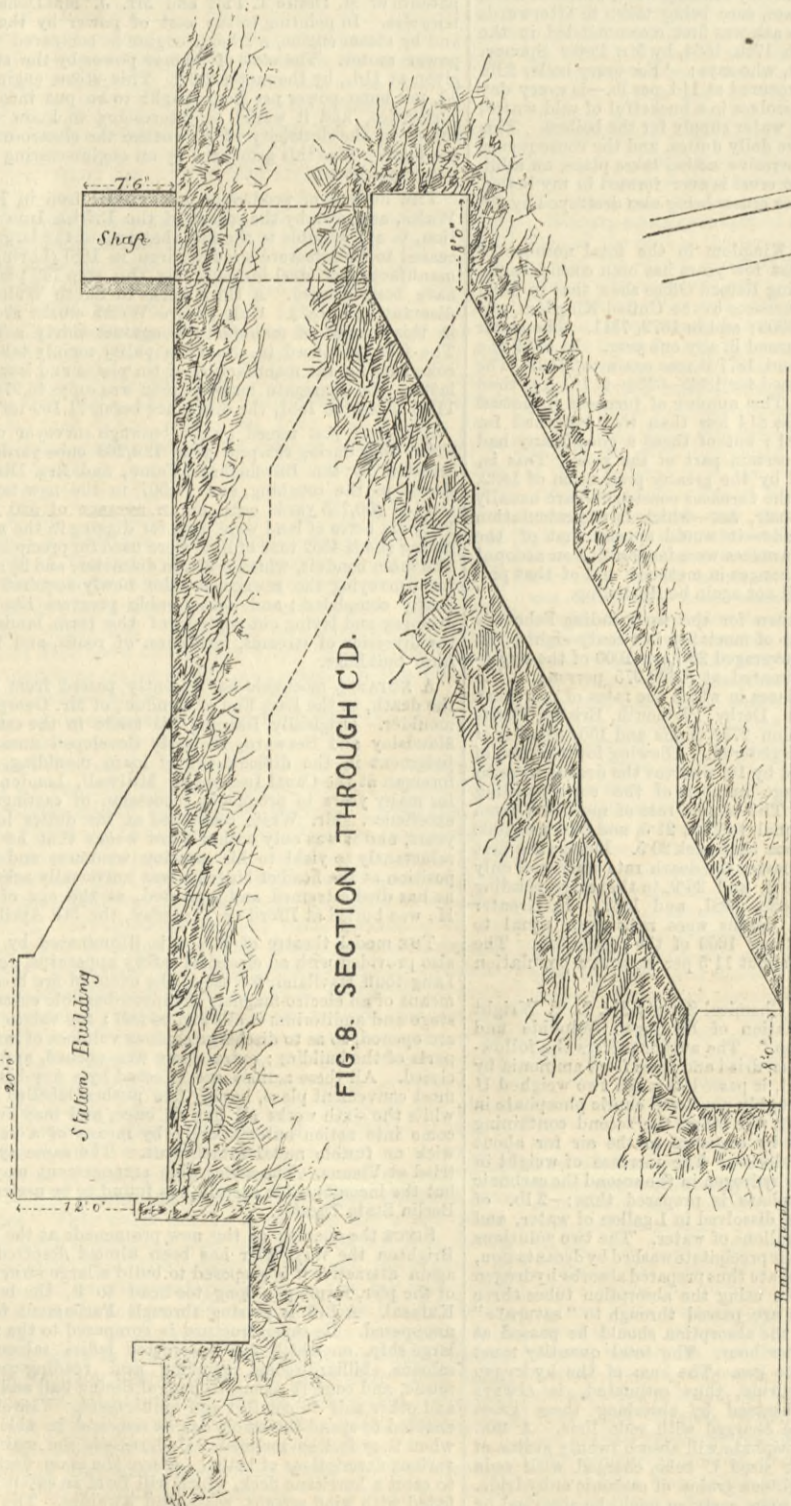


FIG. 8. SECTION THROUGH CD.

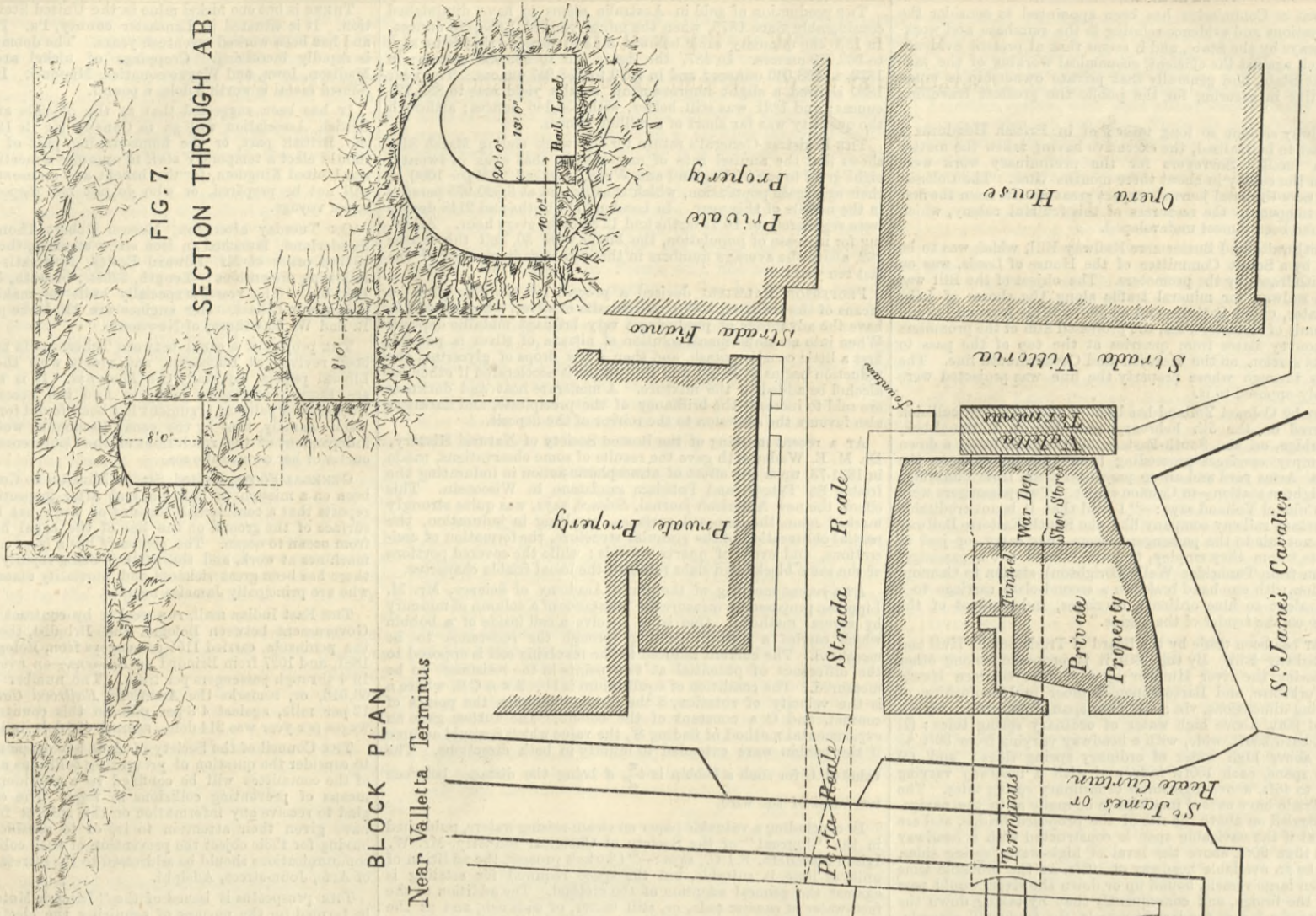
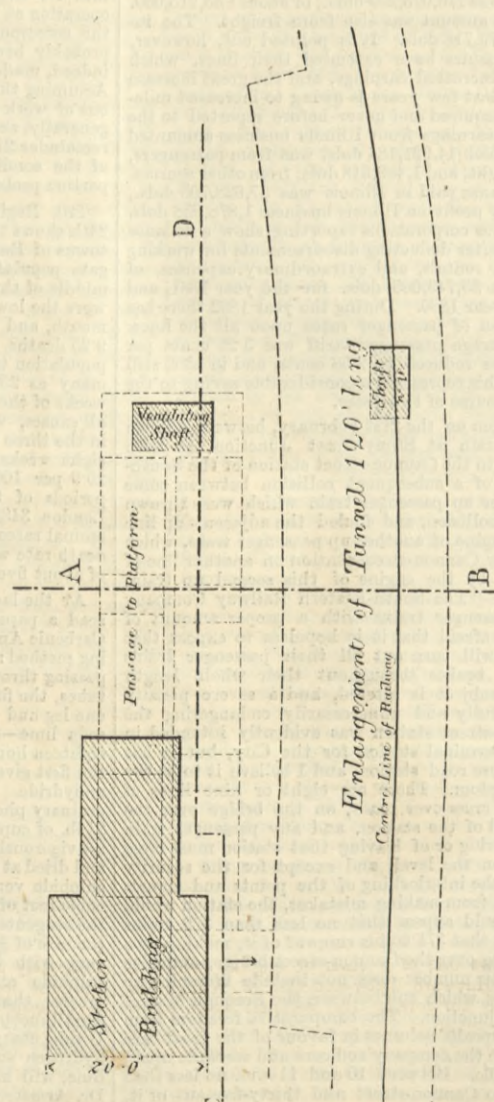
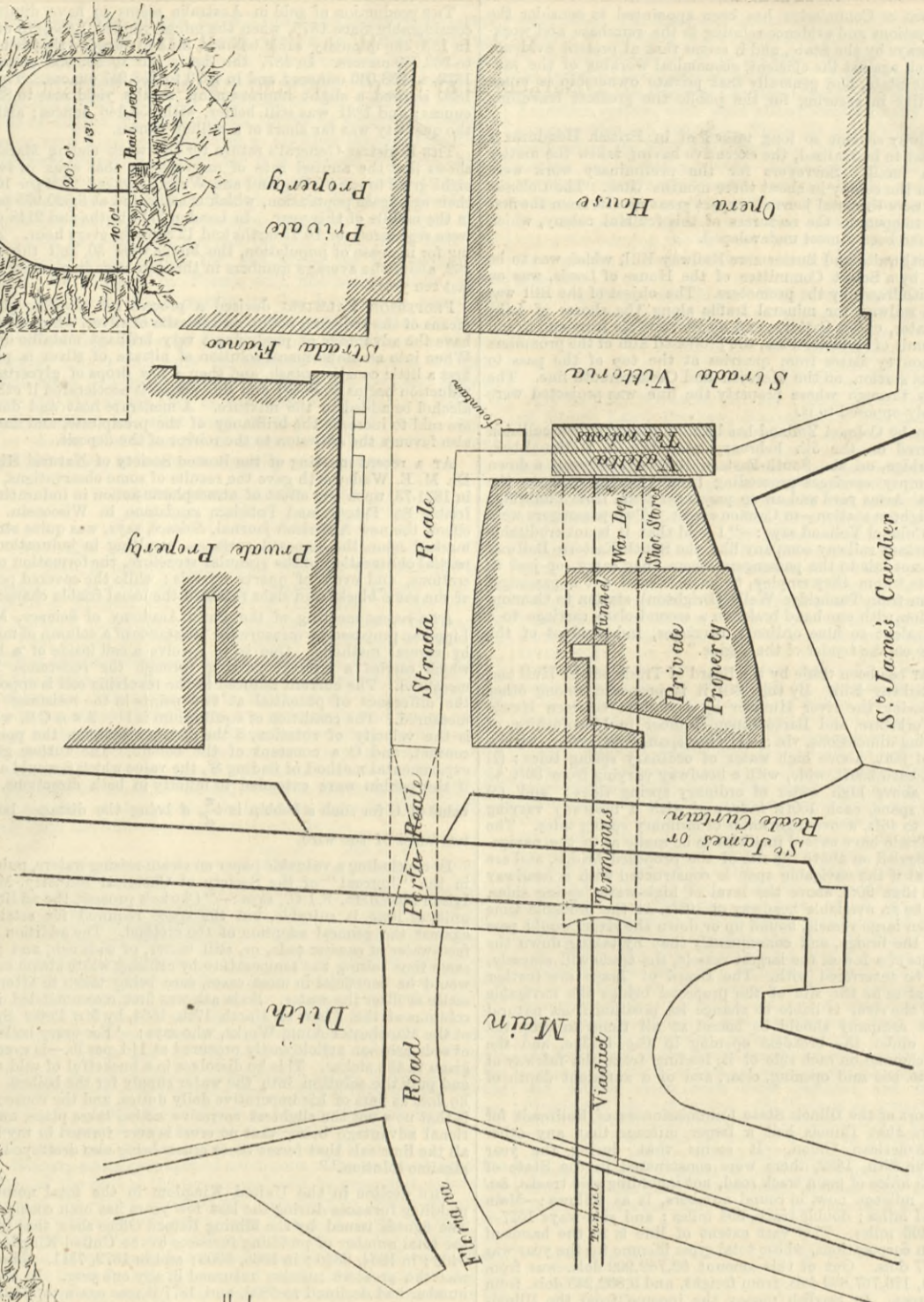


FIG. 7.

SECTION THROUGH AB.

BLOCK PLAN

Near Valletta Terminus



Enlargement of Tunnel 120' Long

FIG. 6 PLAN

AUTOMATIC WATER-WHEEL GOVERNORS.

CONSTRUCTED BY MR. H. J. H. KING, NEWMARKET, STROUD, GLOUCESTERSHIRE.

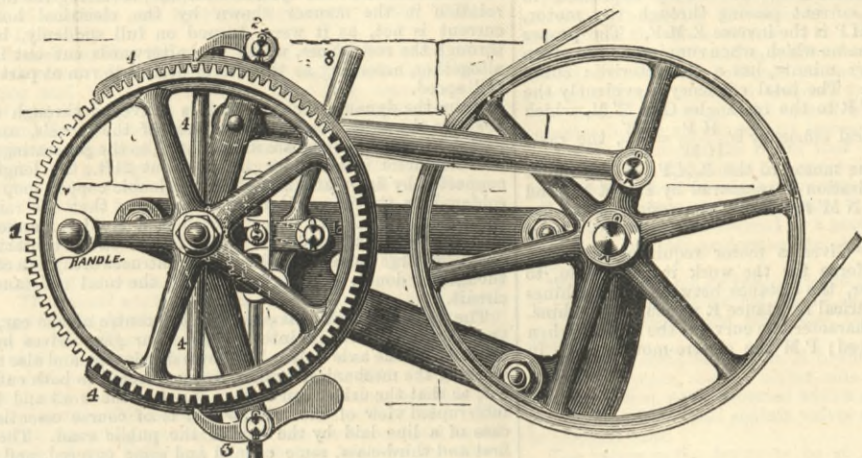
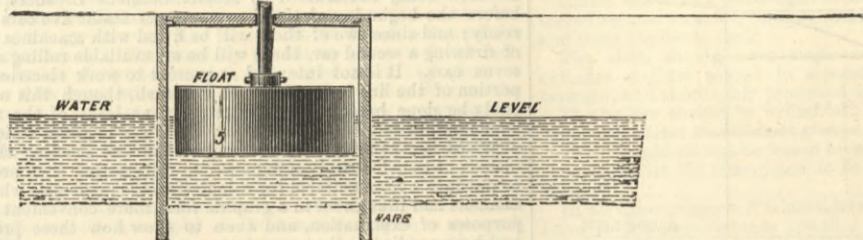


Fig. 1



THE problem of accurately regulating the speed of water-wheels and turbines presents great difficulties which in practice it is impossible to completely overcome, except by means of a governor which applies a brake when the wheel runs too fast, and vice versa. This system, however, is wasteful of water, and should only be resorted to in cases when there is always a surplus, or where great accuracy in speed is of importance. The difficulty of obtaining perfect regulation of speed arises from two causes:—First, from the fact that a heavy sluice or “shut” can at best be but moved slowly; and secondly, because the water which is already in the buckets of the wheel cannot be dealt with except by a brake. This is a factor which makes an overshot wheel impossible to regulate perfectly, except by a brake governor. It is, therefore, best when the water power in a mill is supplemented by a steam engine, to couple the water-wheel and engine together, as by so doing a greater regularity of speed may be obtained, and a greater amount of power may be got from the water. It is obvious that to obtain the maximum power from the water when the water-wheel and engine are coupled together, all the water should go on the wheel at the maximum fall, and none run to waste over the weir till the full capacity of the wheel is reached. As, however, the water supply of most streams varies very much, being influenced by the requirements of the mills above and other causes, it follows that to maintain the water at weir level, a constant adjustment of the “shut” must take place, which, if done by a man, occupies a great deal of time, and in practice is seldom if ever satisfactorily performed.

The governor illustrated in Fig. 1 has been designed automatically to meet the above requirements, it being regulated by the level of the water in the mill stream. The other—Fig. 2—regulates the speed of a wheel when not coupled with an engine, this being effected by a movement of the shut in proportion to the

work to be done. Referring to Fig. 1, which is called the float governor, 1 is a cog-wheel, which has a handle in one arm, this wheel taking the place of the ordinary shut handle. It acts also as a double ratchet wheel over which the pawls 2 and 3 reciprocate very slowly. These pawls are kept out of gear by the segment ring 4—which is shown in its central position—so that neither pawl acts on the wheel, which is now free to turn by hand in either direction and put water on or off in the usual way. The ring 4 is attached to float 5 through the medium of a toothed wheel and sector, and as the float rises and falls the ring will be turned accordingly in opposite directions, so that if, after the water wheel is started, the water should fall, the top of the ring will move to the right, and the pawl 2 will begin to turn the wheel 1—engaging from one to sixteen teeth each stroke—and wind the shut gradually up till the original water-level is restored. If, on the other hand, the water should rise, the pawl 3 will come into action and the shut will be lowered and more water put on. The handle 8 is for locking the ring in its central position and keeping the pawls clear when the wheel is turned by hand. An important feature in this arrangement is that the shut will be moved either fast or slow in proportion to the rise and fall of the float. In some cases it has been found necessary where there is not water enough to drive the water wheel alone, during certain times of the day, to use a special kind of ratchet clutch, which insures that the water wheel shall always assist the engine when it is able to do so, but which also

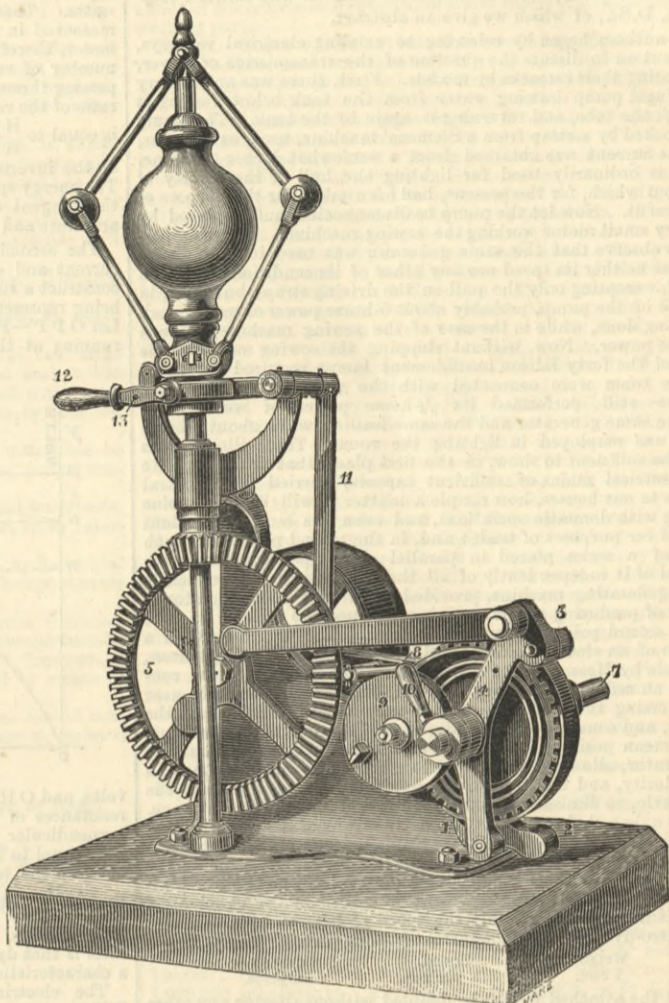


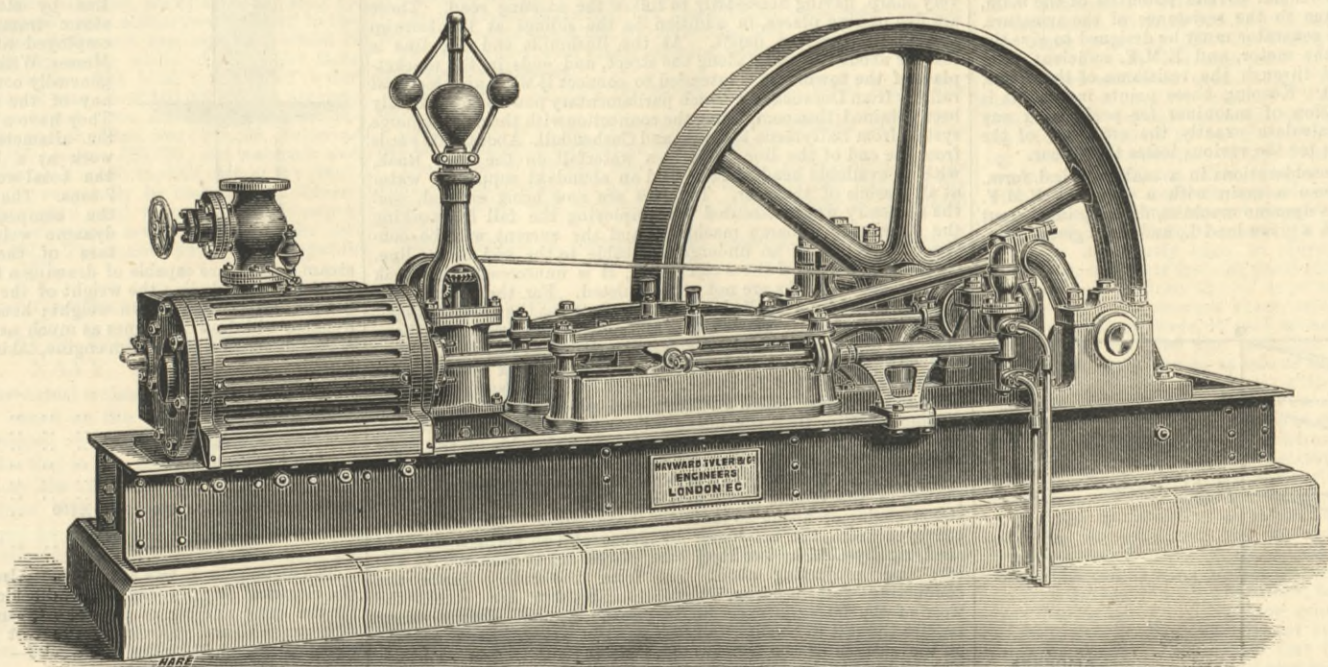
Fig.

insures that the water wheel can never be driven by the engine.

The speed governor, Fig. 2, is designed for regulating the speed of water wheels and turbines when working alone. It is in many respects similar to the float governor, the only difference being that the cam 6 is regulated by the governor balls, through the medium of the lever 11 and the rod 8, instead of the float; 7 is the shaft which is attached to the shut. The wheel 9 is for throwing the governor out of gear when the shut gets wide open, otherwise the strap driving the governors would be thrown off. It is turned by the scroll on the ratchet wheel, and is so set that the arm 10 is lifted by it just before the shuts gets wide open. This stops the pawl 5 from acting on the ratchet wheel and opening the shut wider. A bell may be attached to call attention to the fact that the shut is wide open, and that the governor can no longer keep up the speed if the supply of water should further diminish. The great feature of this governor is that its rate of correction is proportional to the error to be corrected, as one to any number more teeth may be engaged at each stroke of the pawl. It should also be noticed that the error in speed will continue to be corrected till it is eliminated, which is not the case with the ordinary centrifugal governor.

HORIZONTAL ENGINES ON WROUGHT IRON BEDPLATES.

MESSRS. HAYWARD TYLER AND CO., LONDON, ENGINEERS.



THE illustration shows one of a class of engines which is being made by Messrs. Hayward Tyler and Co., of Whitecross-street, London, especially for foreign and colonial work, where machinery has to be transplanted long distances either by sea or land. It is scarcely necessary to point out the great advantages possessed by wrought iron bed plates where machinery is exposed to rough usage in transit, owing to their greater lightness and the absence of danger of breakage. In Messrs. Hayward Tyler and Co.'s engines of this class the details are all similar to their standard horizontal engines, and the erection is all by

accurately planed surfaces, suitable blocks being rivetted to the wrought iron girders for this purpose. Thus no difficulty is experienced in putting together on arrival. These engines are built either singly or in pairs, and in sizes from 9in. cylinders upwards, both high-pressure and condensing. The engine shown in the engraving is fitted with Rider's patent automatic variable expansion.

PALLISER IMPROVED SHOT.—On Thursday, April 5th, a Palliser improved projectile for the 80-pounder gun, of chilled iron with

steel jacket, was fired at a 9in. wrought iron plate at Shoeburyness. The shot weighed 85 lb. The calibre is 6.3in., the velocity was about 1400ft. The projectile passed clean through the plate. This is a very good result indeed, for the calculated limit of perforation is under 8in. The steel jacket did its work well. Major-General Scratchley is shortly expected to be home from Australia and to be present at the trial of these projectiles against steel-faced plates, which is the particular work for which they are designed, being intended to furnish the 80-pounder converted Palliser guns at Melbourne and Sydney with the means of attacking armour-clad vessels.

THE TRANSMISSION OF POWER BY ELECTRICITY AND THE PORTRUSH RAILWAY.

ON Wednesday, April 11th, 1883, a paper was read on (1) "The Transmission of Power by Electricity" and (2) "The Portrush Electrical Railway," by Mr. Alexander Siemens and Edward Hopkinson, D.Sc., of which we give an abstract.

The authors began by referring to existing electrical railways, and went on to discuss the question of the transmission of power, illustrating their remarks by models. First, there was an ordinary centrifugal pump drawing water from the tank below, forcing it through the tube, and returning it again to the tank. The pump was worked by a strap from a Siemens' machine, used as a motor, and the current was obtained from a somewhat larger machine, which is ordinarily used for lighting the hall of the Society of Arts, but which, for the present, had been taken for the purpose of experiment. Now let the pump be disconnected, and replaced by the very small motor working the sewing machine. It was important to observe that the same generator was used in both cases, and that neither its speed nor any other of its conditions had been altered, excepting only the pull on the driving strap; but that, in the case of the pump, probably about 5-horse power of useful work was being done, while in the case of the sewing machine, perhaps 1/20-horse power. Now, without stopping the sewing machine, the whole of the forty Edison incandescent lamps required for lighting the room were connected with the generator. The sewing machine still performed its 1/20-horse power of work, while from the same generator and the same leading wires about 5-horse power was employed in lighting the room. These illustrations would be sufficient to show, in the first place, that when once we have electrical mains of sufficient capacity carried from central stations to our houses, how simple a matter it will be to combine lighting with domestic operations, and even the larger operations required for purposes of trade; and, in the second place, that each motor of a series placed in parallel circuit performs the work required of it independently of all the others, and independently of the generating machine, provided only that the generator is capable of producing the power it is called upon to furnish.

This second point the author then explained by the aid of a diagram of an electrical hoist, designed by Dr. John Hopkinson, and made by Messrs. Siemens Brothers. The electrical part consists of an ordinary D series dynamo, fitted with reversing gear for reversing the direction of the current and the lead of the brushes, and consequently the direction of rotation of the machine. In the mean position, both pairs of brushes are lifted from the commutator, allowing no current to pass. The dynamo runs at a high velocity, and consequently is connected by spur gear to the lifting axle, to diminish the speed of lift and increase the leverage. On this axle a chain pulley is fitted by means of a special friction clutch, which need not now be explained. The clutch automatically holds the weight attached to the chain, as soon as the dynamo is stopped. Having coupled up the leads to the terminals of the machine, and hung a weight of 1 cwt. on the chain, start the dynamo, measure roughly the speed of lift, and by means of the electro-dynamometer the current passing through the dynamo—

Weight. 1 cwt. Speed. 4ft. per sec. Current. 9 ampères.

Now let the attached weight be doubled without altering any other conditions, and again measure the speed and current—

Weight. 2 cwt. Speed. 2 1/2 ft. per sec. Current. 13 ampères.

It would be observed that with the heavier weight the speed had diminished and the current increased.

Secondly, he would again put on the weight he had in the first experiment, but insert a resistance in the leading wire. Again measuring the current and the speed, we have—

Weight. 1 cwt. Speed. 2ft. per sec. Current. 9 ampères.

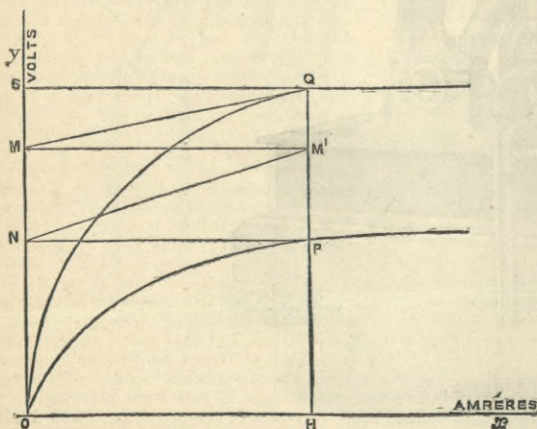
They would see that the current was exactly the same as before, while the speed had diminished. Taking again the double weight, and leaving the resistance inserted, we have—

Weight. 2 cwt. Speed. 1ft. per sec. Current. 13 ampères.

Again the same current as they had before with the double weight, but a diminished speed. From these experiments it was clear that for a given load the current remains constant, whatever the speed may be, and that the speed principally depends upon the resistance through which the current passes.

Three conclusions are to be drawn, which are the fundamental principles of the theory of the electrical transmission of power. (1) The motor, as a machine, is entirely independent of the generator, and must be designed for the particular work it has to do without reference to the generator. (2) The current depends upon the load on the motor, and upon no other thing whatever. (3) The speed depends upon the E.M.F. of the generator, and the total resistance in the circuit of the machines. If the mains which supply the current to the motor be maintained at a constant potential, and the motor be separately excited, or have permanent magnets, the speed is proportional to the potential of the main, less the loss of potential due to the resistance of the armature. As a practical corollary, the generator must be designed to give the current required of it by the motor, and E.M.F. sufficient after allowing for fall of potential through the resistance of the mains, to give the requisite speed. Keeping these points in view, it is easy to design a combination of machines for performing any particular work, and to calculate exactly the efficiency of the combination, and to account for the various losses that occur.

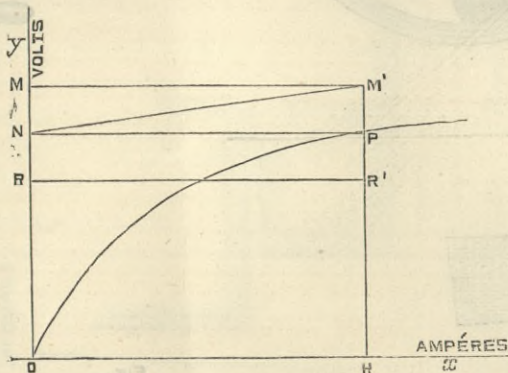
Now let us put these considerations in a mathematical form. The first problem is:—Given a main with a constant E.M.F. denoted by E, to construct a dynamo machine, drawing its current from the main, to work with a given load L, and at a given num-



ber of revolutions n per minute. Let us make use of the characteristic curves, used by Dr. J. Hopkinson, Dr. Frölich, M. Marcel Deprez, and others. Take Ox, Oy as an axis of co-ordinates, along Oy, cut off OM, representing the E.M.F. of the main in volts. Now the makers of each type of dynamo machine know approximately the percentage of energy their machines absorb in producing the necessary magnetic field. Take a point N in OM, such that the ratio ON/OM is equal to this percentage. Again, it is known that a dynamo is not an absolutely perfect machine, but that a certain amount of energy is wasted in the friction of the bearings, and of the brushes against the commutator, and also in

induced currents in the core of the armature. Take OR, such that OR/ON represents the efficiency of the machine. This, in the case of the Siemens machine, is at least 90 per cent. From Ox cut off OH, such that the rectangle OHR'R represents the power required from the motor expressed in watts. Then OH is the current passing through the motor, measured in ampères, and HP is the inverse E.M.F. The proper motor, therefore, is that dynamo which, when running at the given number of revolutions n per minute, has a characteristic curve passing through the point P. The total efficiency is evidently the ratio of the rectangle OHR'R to the rectangles OHM'M, which is equal to HR'/HM; the electrical efficiency is HP/E = E'/E, the ratio of the inverse E.M.F. of the motor to the E.M.F. of the main. The energy spent in magnetisation is measured by PNM'M', and the tangent of the angle PNM' represents the resistance of the armature and magnets.

The second problem is:—Given a motor requiring a certain current and electro-motive force for the work it has to do, to construct a suitable generator, the distance between the machines being represented by an electrical resistance R measured in ohms. Let OPP'—Fig. 2—be the characteristic curve of the motor, when running at the required speed; PM the electro-motive force in



volts, and OH the current in ampères. Let R' be the sum of the resistances of the motors, and R of the conductor. Draw PN perpendicular to Oy, and make the angle PNM' having its tangent equal to R'; then M'H represents the difference of potential between the terminals of the generator. Produce HM' to Q, so that QM'/QH is the ratio of the energy expended in producing the magnetic field to the total energy of the machine; then the generator is that dynamo which, when running at its proper speed has a characteristic curve passing through the point Q.

The electrical efficiency of the combination is the ratio PH/QH, i.e., the ratio of the E.M.F. of the motor to the E.M.F. of the generator, which, if the machines are similar, is equal to the ratio of their speeds. The energy converted into heat in the wires of the machine, and in the conductor, is NPQS, and the total efficiency of the combination is the ratio of the electro-motive force multiplied by the product of the efficiencies of the two machines, considered separately. The conductor connecting the two machines has been considered to be perfectly insulated. Of course this is not practically attained, but I will not now consider the point particularly, as it has very recently been discussed from an analytical point of view by Dr. O. J. Lodge.

Dr. Hopkinson then described the Portrush Railway. In the summer of 1881 Mr. W. A. Traill, late of H.M. Geological Survey, suggested to Dr. Siemens that the line between Portrush and Bushmills, for which parliamentary powers had been obtained, would be suitable in many respects for electrical working, especially as there was abundant water power available in the neighbourhood. Dr. Siemens at once joined in the undertaking, which has been carried out under his direction. The line extends from Portrush, the terminus of the Belfast and Northern Counties Railway, to Bushmills in the Bush Valley, a distance of six miles. For about half a mile the line passes down the principal street of Portrush, and has an extension along the Northern Counties Railway to the harbour. For the rest of the distance the rails are laid on the sea-side of the county road, and the head of the rails being level with the ground, a foot-path is formed the whole distance, separated from the road by a kerbstone. The line is single, and has a gauge of 3ft., the standard of the existing narrow gauge lines in Ulster. The gradients are exceedingly heavy, being in parts as steep as 1 in 35. The curves are also in many cases very sharp, having necessarily to follow the existing road. There are five passing places, in addition to the sidings at the termini and at the carriage depôt. At the Bushmills end the line is laid for about 200 yards along the street, and ends in the marketplace of the town. It is intended to connect it with an electrical railway from Dervock, for which parliamentary powers have already been obtained, thus completing the connection with the narrow gauge system from Ballymena to Larne and Cushendall. About 1500 yards from the end of the line there is a waterfall on the river Bush, with an available head of 24ft., and an abundant supply of water at all seasons of the year. Turbines are now being erected, and the necessary works executed for employing the fall for working the generating dynamo machines, and the current will be conveyed by means of an underground cable to the end of the line. Of the application of the water power, it is unnecessary to speak further, as the works are not yet completed. For the present, the line is worked by a small steam engine placed at the carriage depôt at the Portrush end. The whole of the constructive works have been designed and carried out by Mr. Traill, assisted by Mr. E. B. Price. The system employed may be described as that of the separate conductor. A rail of T-iron weighing 19 lb. to the yard is carried on wooden posts, boiled in pitch, and placed 10ft. apart, at a distance of 22in. from the inside rail, and 17in. above the ground. This rail comes close up against the fence on the side of the road, thus forming an additional protection. The conductor is connected by an underground cable to a single shunt wound dynamo machine placed in the engine shed, and worked by a small agricultural steam engine of about 25 indicated horse-power. The current is conveyed from the conductor by means of two springs, made of steel, rigidly held by two steel bars placed one at each end of the car, and projecting about 6in. from the side. Since the conducting rail is iron, while the brushes are steel, the wear of the latter is exceedingly small. In dry weather they require the rail to be slightly lubricated; in wet weather the water on the surface of the iron provides all the lubrication required. The double brushes, placed at the extremities of the car, enable it to bridge over the numerous gaps, which necessarily interrupt the conductor to allow cart ways into the fields and commons adjoining the shore. On a diagram the car was shown passing one of these gaps; the front brush had broken contact, but since the back brush was still touching the rail, the current has not been broken. Before the back brush leaves the conductor the front brush will have again risen upon it, so that the current is never interrupted. There are two or three gaps too broad to be bridged in this way. In these cases the driver will break the current before reaching the gap, the momentum of the car carrying it the 10 or 12 yards it must travel without power. The current is conveyed under the gaps by means of an insulated copper cable carried in wrought iron pipes, placed at a depth of 18in. At the passing places, which are situated on inclines, the conductor takes the inside, and the car ascending the

hill also runs on the inside, while the car descending the hill proceeds by gravity on the outside lines. From the brushes the current is taken to a commutator worked by a lever, which switches resistance frames placed under the car, in or out, as may be desired. The same lever alters the position of the brushes on the commutator of the dynamo machine, reversing the direction of rotation in the manner shown by the electrical hoist. The current is not, as it were, turned on full suddenly, but passes through the resistances, which are afterwards cut out in part or altogether, according as the driver desires to run at part speed or full speed.

From the dynamo, the current is conveyed through the axle-boxes to the axles, thence to the tires of the wheels, and finally back by the rails, which are uninsulated, to the generating machine. The conductor is laid in lengths of about 21ft., the lengths being connected by fish-plates and also by a double copper loop securely soldered to the iron. It is also necessary that the rails of the permanent way should be connected in a similar manner, as the ordinary fish-plates give a very uncertain electrical contact, and the earth for large currents is altogether untrustworthy as a conductor, though, no doubt, materially reducing the total resistance of the circuit.

The dynamo machine is placed in the centre of the car, beneath the floor, and through intermediate spur gear drives by a steel chain on to one axle only. The reversing levers, and also the levers working the mechanical brakes, are connected to both ends of the car, so that the driver can always stand at the front and have uninterrupted view of the rails, which is of course essential in the case of a line laid by the side of the public road. The cars are first and third-class, some opened and some covered, and are constructed to hold twenty people, exclusive of the driver. At present only one is fitted with a dynamo machine, but four more machines are now being constructed by Messrs. Siemens Brothers, so that before the beginning of the heavy summer traffic five cars will be ready; and since two of these will be fitted with machines capable of drawing a second car, there will be an available rolling stock of seven cars. It is not intended at present to work electrically the portion of the line in the town at Portrush, though this will probably be done hereafter, and a portion, at least, of the mineral traffic will be left for the two steam tramway engines, which were obtained for the temporary working of the line pending the completion of the electrical arrangements. The author then proceeded to put into a form suitable for calculation the principles which Mr. Siemens had illustrated in a graphic form more convenient for the purposes of explanation, and then to show how these principles had been applied in the present case.

In determining the proper dimensions of a conductor for railway purposes, Sir William Thomson's law should properly apply. But on a line, where the gradients and traffic are very irregular, it is difficult to estimate the average current, and the desirability of having the rail mechanically strong, and of such low resistance that the potential shall not vary very materially throughout its length, becomes more important than the economic considerations involved in Sir William Thomson's law. At Portrush the resistance of a mile, including the return by earth and the ground rails, is actually about 0.23 ohms. If calculated from the section of the iron it would be 0.15 ohms, the difference being accounted for by the resistance of the copper loops, and occasional imperfect contacts. The electro-motive force at which the conductor is maintained is about 225 volts, which is well within the limit of perfect safety assigned by Sir William Thomson and Dr. Siemens. At the same time the shock received by touching the iron is sufficient to be unpleasant, and hence is some protection against the conductor being tampered with.

Consider a car requiring a given constant current, evidently the maximum loss due to resistance will occur when the car is at the middle point of the line, and will then be one-fourth of the total resistance of the line, provided the two extremities are maintained by the generators at the same potential. Again, by integration, the mean resistance can be shown to be one-sixth of the resistance of the line. Applying these figures, and assuming four cars are running, requiring 4-horse power each, the loss due to resistance does not exceed 4 per cent. of the power developed on the cars; or if one car only be running, the loss is less than 1 per cent. But in actual practice at Portrush even these estimates are too high, as the generators are placed at the bottom of the hills, and the middle portion of the line is more or less level, hence the minimum current is required when the resistance is at its maximum value.

The insulation of the conductor has been a matter of considerable difficulty, chiefly on account of the moistness of the climate. An insulation has now, however, been obtained of from 500 to 1000 ohms per mile, according to the state of the weather, by placing a cap of insulite between the wooden posts and T-iron.

Hence the total leakage cannot exceed 2.5 ampères, representing a loss of three-fourths of a horse-power, or under 5 per cent., when four cars are running. But apart from these figures, they have had materials for an actual comparison of the cost of working the line by electricity and steam. The steam tramway engines, temporarily employed at Portrush, are made by Messrs. Wilkinson, of Wigan, and are generally considered as satisfactory as any of the various tramway engines. They have a pair of vertical cylinders 8in. diameter, and 1ft. stroke, and work at a boiler pressure of 120 lb., the total weight of the engine being 7 tons. The electrical car, with which the comparison is made, has a dynamo weighing 13 cwt., and the tare of the car is 52 cwt. The steam engines are capable of drawing a total load of about 12 tons up the hill, excluding the weight of the engine; the dynamo over 6 tons, excluding its own weight; hence, weight for weight, the dynamo will draw five times as much as the steam engine. From actual experience, the steam engine, taking an average over a week, costs:—

Table with 3 columns: Description, £, s., d. Total 8 4 9 1/2

The distance run was 312 miles. Also, from actual experience, the electrical car, drawing a second behind it, and hence providing for the same number of passengers, consumed 18 lb. of coke per mile run. Hence, calculating the cost in the same way, for a distance run of 312 miles in a week:—

Table with 3 columns: Description, £, s., d. Total 5 19 1

The total mileage run is very small, on account of the light traffic early in the year. Heavier traffic will tell very much in favour of the electric car, as the loss due to leakage will be a much smaller proportion of the total power developed.



THE MALTA RAILWAY,

MESSRS. WELLS-OWEN AND GERVASE ELWES, M.M.I.C.E., WESTMINSTER, ENGINEERS.

(For description see page 280.)

FIG. I. ELEVATION

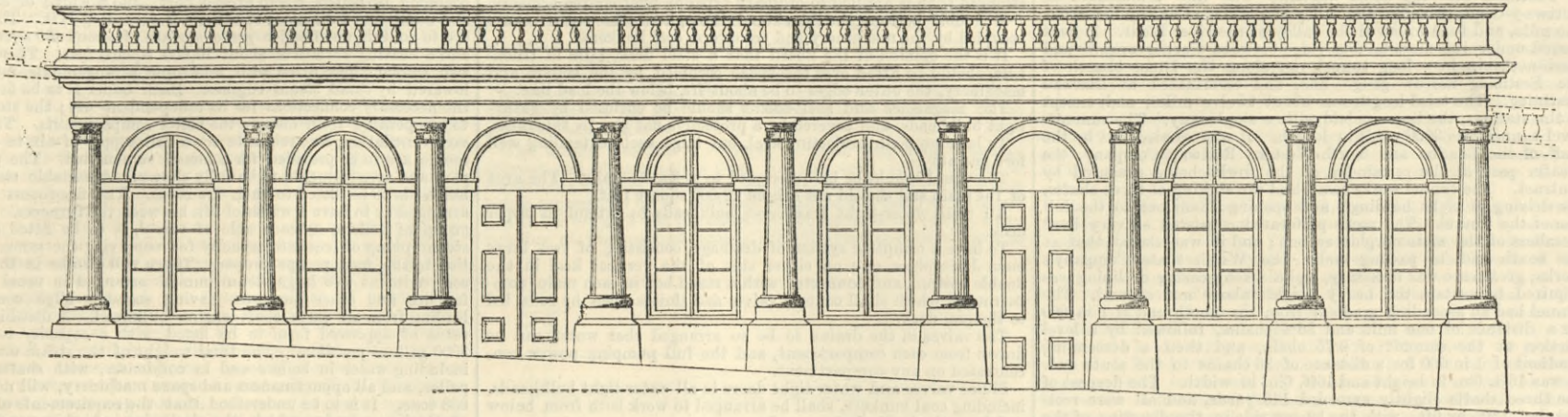


FIG. 3. SECTION ON AB.

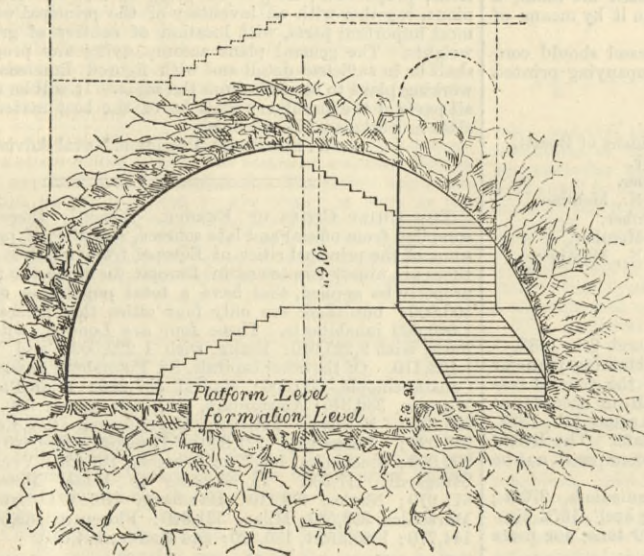


FIG. 2. PLAN Strada Vittoria

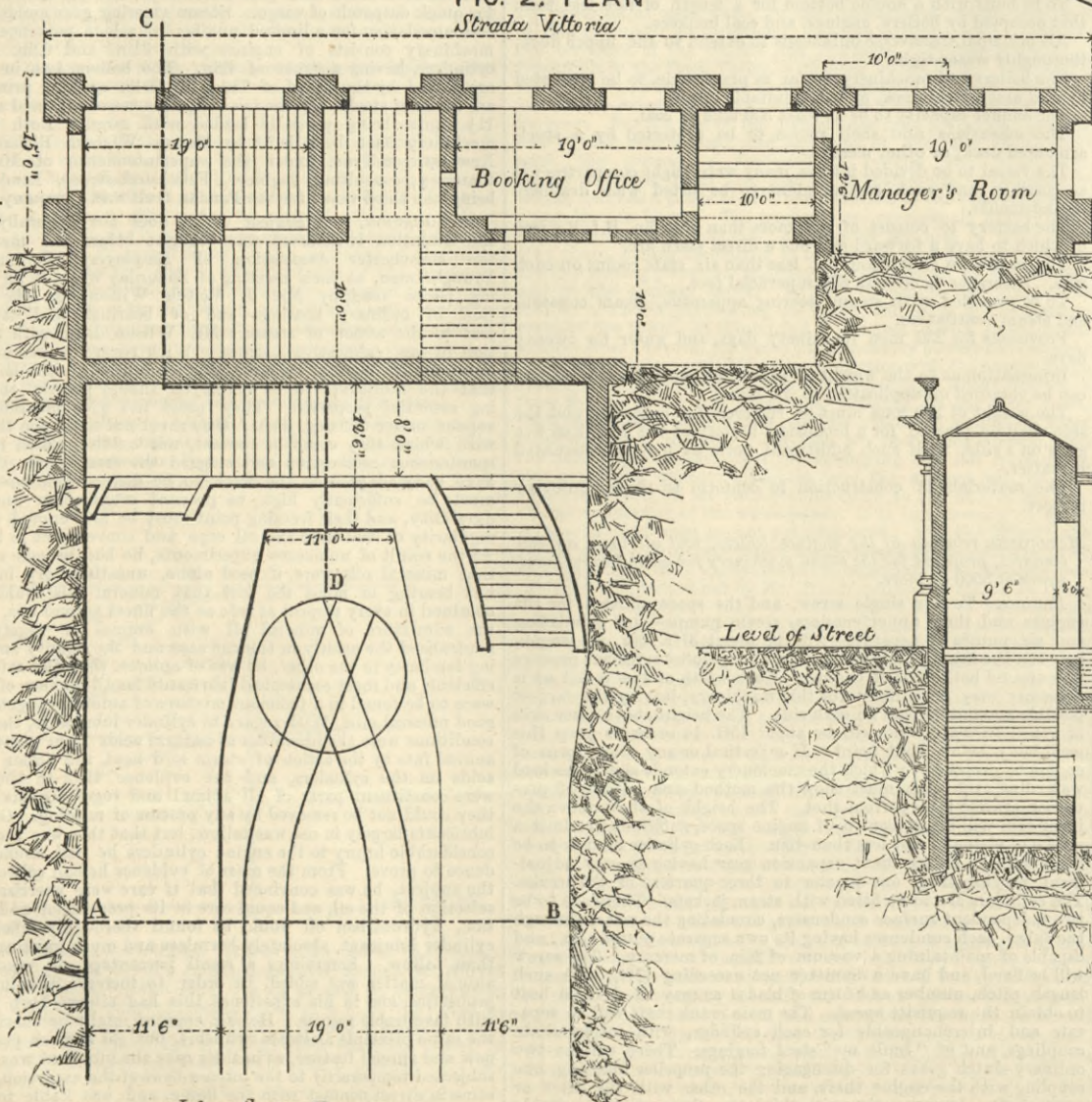
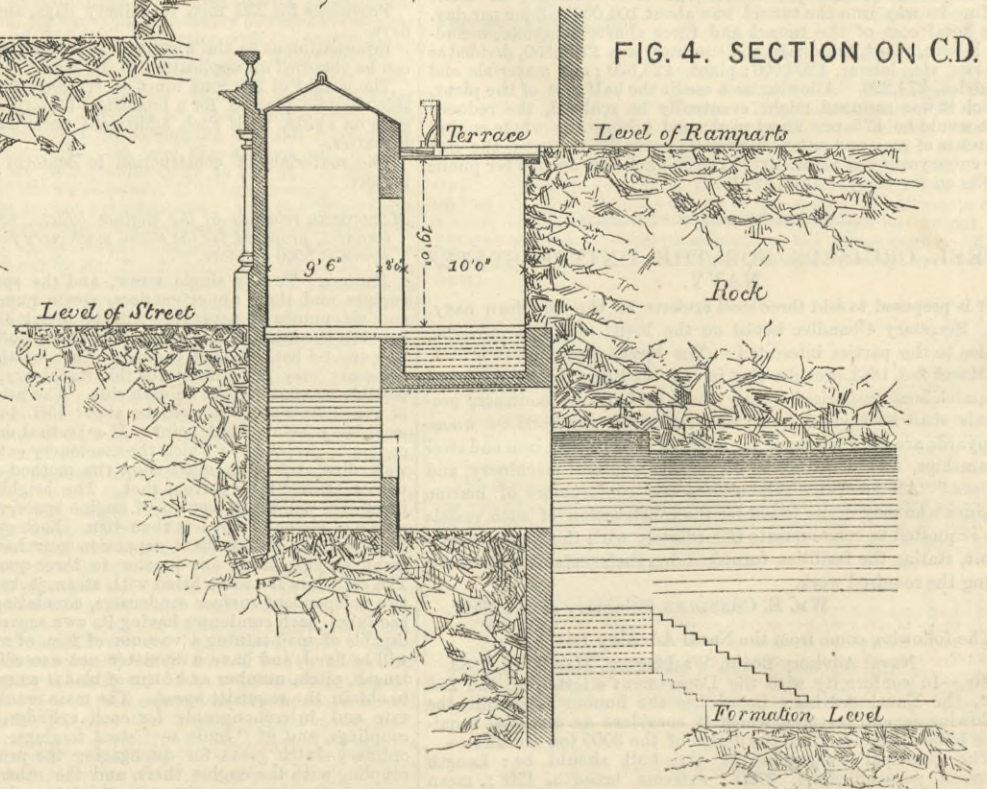


FIG. 4. SECTION ON C.D.



John Swain Eng.





engine, with which it has really nothing in common; and the other being the belief that electricians will supply something better than steam. We are disposed ourselves to believe that the period is not now far off when electrical tricycles will be as easily obtained as the ordinary tricycle is now. The one thing wanted is a secondary battery. We had recently reason to point out that too much must not be expected; and we showed that a carriage which, while carrying four people could also carry a store of energy sufficient to propel it for a whole day, is not likely to be obtained. But it is quite another matter to construct a carriage which would contain a very useful store of energy. On the level or going down hill this store would not be drawn on, but it would become available to help the rider when much wanted. Every tricyclist knows how welcome would be the services of a secondary battery ready to help him at a pinch. It is, of course, possible—for all things seem possible in electricity—that a battery may be produced which will be small and light, and yet will give out enough energy to drive a little carriage forty or fifty miles. But while the world is waiting for this, it would be well content to have the half loaf which, according to the old adage, is better than no bread. Unfortunately, however, as will be seen further on, the half loaf is as yet to be had only under very objectionable conditions, which go far to render it worse than useless, save under special circumstances.

In dealing with this subject hitherto there has been a plentiful lack of information as to the power required to propel either a bicycle or a tricycle. This ignorance need exist no longer. Dr. Stoney, F.R.S., and Mr. G. Gerald Stoney, of Dublin, have followed in a sense Professor Rankine's example; or rather, they have contributed another chapter to the literature of pedo-motor carriages. In the January number of the scientific translations of the Royal Dublin Society will be found a paper by Messrs. Stoney "On the Energy Expended in Propelling a Bicycle." Without engravings we could not explain satisfactorily the method devised by Messrs. Stoney of measuring the power expended by the rider. The machine used was that known as the "Xtraordinary." The feet of the rider do not act directly on the crank pins, but on treadles secured to pendulous levers, the object being to keep the rider further back, and prevent the possibility of his being pitched over the machine—a common and dangerous accident—should the driving wheel encounter a stone or other obstacle of some dimensions. This type of machine lent itself readily to the wants of the investigators, and Messrs. Stoney contrived in a very simple and ingenious way to register in a species of indicator diagrams the force exerted by the rider. The results obtained are, to say the least, remarkable. It has long been known that men with no pretensions to excessive strength or power of endurance could perform astounding journeys on bicycles. "Several riders," say Messrs. Stoney, "of exceptional strength and endurance, have travelled considerably more than 200 miles in one day along common roads; another has twice maintained an average speed of more than twenty miles an hour along a prepared path for a whole hour; another has ridden from Land's End to John o' Groat's house, a distance of almost 1600 miles, in thirteen days, averaging more than seventy-six miles a day. These astonishing feats have been accomplished on bicycles, and the tricycle does not fall far behind. A tricycle has been ridden 150 miles in one day, and hundred mile journeys on both classes of machines have become frequent." We may add that to run a distance of twenty or thirty miles with a tricycle is no uncommon feat for men who could not walk half the distance without being knocked up. It is not too much to say that the bicycle has increased the locomotive power of the ordinary man at least three-fold if we take distance alone into consideration. It has at least doubled his speed. As for the young and active, it has trebled their speed and augmented the distance they can travel five to one. There ought to be some reason for this remarkable efficiency; and it was to find out its cause that Messrs. Stoney did what they have done. The results obtained go to show, not that the bicycle reduces the power expended in a given time, but that, on the contrary, it increases it, without at the same time inducing fatigue; and this Dr. Stoney very properly attributes to physiological as well as mechanical causes. It is well known that a man rowing under the best conditions cannot for any time exert more than about one-eighth of a horse-power, or 4125 foot-pounds. According to Rankine, the greatest power is exerted by a man when he climbs a ladder, and, getting into a bucket on a rope over a wheel, causes it to descend by his weight, pulling up a loaded bucket at the other end of the rope. In this way a man can expend energy at the rate of 72.5 foot-pounds per second, or 4350 foot-pounds per hour, or 133 of a horse-power—less than one-seventh. But the average performance on level ground of a bicyclist gives between a seventh and a sixth of a horse-power. We may compare, for example, the 4350 foot-pounds per minute given by Rankine with the following figures. On a wet, gravelled path up 1 in 160 the coefficient of resistance at 9.6 miles per hour was  $\frac{1}{6.5}$ , and the energy exerted 21,800 lb. per mile, or, per minute, 3500; but at 11.7 miles an hour the coefficient rose to  $\frac{1}{5.5}$  in. and the energy expended 40,500 foot-pounds per mile, equivalent to no less than 7900 foot-pounds per minute, or to nearly one-fourth of a steam engine horse-power. It is worth while to compare the performance, however, with actual horse-power, which is about three-fourths of that assigned to it by Watt, or say 430 foot-pounds per second, or 25,800 foot-pounds per minute. The power expended by the bicyclist was therefore more than one-fourth of that of a horse; and if we bear in mind that a horse moving at nearly twelve miles an hour has little energy left to pull a load, it will be seen that the excellence of the performance of the man came out still more prominently. The average of sixteen experiments, particulars of which are supplied by Dr. Stoney, give 5350 foot-pounds as the normal performance of a bicyclist under very varying conditions of road, wind, and inclination. In a second series of experiments, made in summer, the average of fifteen gave 5100 foot-pounds as the performance of the rider. The co-

efficient of resistance varied very much; on a hard, dry, gravelled path, down 1 in 160, at speeds of 7, 10.4, and 13.3 miles an hour, the coefficients of resistance were  $\frac{1}{6.5}$ ,  $\frac{1}{5.5}$ , and  $\frac{1}{4.5}$ ; from which it appears that they augment very rapidly with the speed. It is not easy to strike an average of resistance of much value. Professor Stoney, however, gives it at about  $\frac{1}{5.5}$ . The experiments were varied in different ways, and other apparatus were devised and used to check the first result; but in all cases the figures closely approximated, and the average energy expended may be put down at 35,000 foot-pounds per mile. This may be taken to represent the expenditure of energy which would suffice in a long journey over good roads, and without exceptionally heavy hills. Hills, be it observed, cease to be compensatory as soon as back pedalling on the brake becomes necessary; and to prevent this no hill with a greater inclination than about 1 in 35 ought to be traversed, otherwise the energy expended in going up is greater than can be utilised in coming down again.

We may well ask with Dr. Stoney how are we to account for the enormous efficiency of a man working a bicycle. Dr. Stoney's answer appears to be the only one possible. "The real comparison to be made is not so much a comparison of the feats accomplished with the energy expended, as with the fatigue incurred; and this in riding a bicycle is small, not only from the mechanical efficiency which the foregoing experiments show the machine to possess, but also for other reasons. Part of these are physiological. The rider is seated on the machine, and thus relieved from what is the chief source of fatigue in walking—the weight of his own body on his limbs. He is in the posture best adapted to the healthy play of the vital organs in the chest, and the constant slight movement of the muscles of the trunk contributes to this healthy play. Again, while the arms perform some of the work, the principal part is relegated to the most powerful muscles in the body—those of the leg. It is also material to observe that these limbs are left very unusually free in their movements, and that the choice of what length of stroke he will employ, what force he will exert, and at what speed he will move his limbs, are left to the rider, who can adjust those details to what best suit his own body." Dr. Stoney also credits the exhilaration produced by rapid movement through the air with some of the results he has recorded; but while this may do something for moderate distances, we cannot accept it as proved that it can do much. We have this peculiarity in bicycle riding, that only one principal set of muscles, those of the lower limbs, are used energetically, and those muscles are spared the duty of carrying the weight of the body. If we compare the work done on a bicycle with that expended in rowing, it will be seen that in the latter case although the weight of the body is supported, all the muscles of the body are, to a considerable extent, employed, but those of the legs least of all, and the work they do is expended in holding the boat back, or directly thrusting her astern. If it were possible to row with the feet while the hands laid hold of the stretcher, the result would possibly be akin to that obtained with the bicycle, and it is worth considering whether the water velocipede may not be susceptible of such improvements that the paddle-wheel or the screw worked by the foot may beat oars worked by hand. Perhaps someone who has the time and opportunity may carry out experiments in this direction.

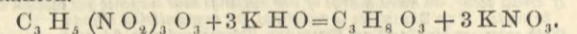
Before concluding, we would warn our readers that they must by no means conclude that an expenditure of energy of 4000 foot-pounds or so per mile will suffice for an electrical or any other form of mechanically moved road carriage. The battery and motor are not likely to weigh less than the man, and we have then virtually two bicycles and men to provide power for. It would not be safe to calculate on less than 80,000 foot-pounds per mile, or for ten miles 800,000 foot-pounds net. Going down hill there would be no demand on this, and we may suppose that levels and pedal power and hill together would represent twenty miles of a thirty-mile trip, leaving ten miles up which the assistance of the motor would be needed. At first sight it appears that the aid given by the motor would be very great, but it must not be forgotten that the rider must propel all the extra weight for at least ten miles; he cannot take this off and put it on at pleasure, and thus it becomes a question, whether under any circumstances, what may be termed auxiliary power can be of service. This cannot be answered until all the conditions are known. Thus, for example, a man living in a valley might find it much to his advantage to carry a few pounds of battery, which would suffice to help him over the surrounding highland; while it is evident that in a level country the game of carrying even 40 lb. or 50 lb. of battery would not be worth the candle. For these reasons it seems to be pretty clear that it will be best to provide sufficient power to do all the driving at a moderate speed, and on levels, and that the rider shall exert himself to help the machine up hills, and to augment its pace. In this way the man will be auxiliary to the motor, instead of the motor being auxiliary to the man, a distinction which will be found on examination to be one with a difference.

#### HOW TO UNMAKE NITRO-GLYCERINE.

Now that we have been made so intimately acquainted with the private, surreptitious, and illegal manufacture of nitro-glycerine in our very midst, it behoves us to see what means can be taken to effect its destruction, when quantities such as we recently heard of fall into our hands. The coffin-like box seized in Southampton-street, Strand, contained nearly 200 lb. weight. It was sent off during the night to Woolwich, and taken to the Royal Laboratory Department. The staff of the chemical establishment are too familiar with explosive compounds to feel nervous in the presence even of such a villainous agent as nitro-glycerine; but there were circumstances which rendered desirable as speedy a removal as convenient of the obnoxious visitor. One of these circumstances was the insecurity of the envelope, which allowed the nitro-

glycerine continually to escape; and the other, which was of more consequence, was a suspicion that the compound had been manufactured by inexperienced hands, that it had been imperfectly cleansed of acid, and that it was therefore impure and especially liable to spontaneous explosion. The fact of its having borne the jolting of the train from Birmingham, and the rattling of the cab over the stones from London, showed that if easy of detonation, it must have had concussion sufficient to have produced it; but it was nevertheless decided to place it out of harm's way as soon as possible. It was conveyed to the Home Office magazine, in the Plumstead Marshes, about three miles from the Arsenal gate, and immersed in water. Someone suggested to throw it into the river, but the professional reply was that it would sink in a cohesive mass to the bottom, and perhaps be detonated by the keel of some ship. There was too much of it, it was thought, to be exploded except by the tedious process of removing it in small quantities to remote places, and the only feasible plan, it was said, which presented itself, was to sprinkle it over the land. Once absorbed in the earth it would soon be resolved by nature into its constituent elements, and simply serve as manure to the land. However, on Wednesday the nitro-glycerine was destroyed on Woolwich Marshes. It was mixed with sand to form a species of dynamite. It was distributed in the form of a gigantic cross and ignited, but it burned with difficulty, and about 25 lb. of the mixture exploded with great violence, fortunately injuring no one. The event will cause more care than ever to be taken in dealing with nitro-glycerine, and probably put an end to the system of destroying it by burning it.

But what man has made man can also unmake. Gun-cotton, or pyroxylin, is a similar body to nitro-glycerine, and the cotton or cellulose from which it has been made can be re-obtained by several simple chemical methods. Strong potash ley dissolves gun-cotton rapidly, especially if heated to 70 deg. Cent., with formation of ammonia, nitrous acid, oxalic acid, and other acids. The alkaline solution reduces an ammoniacal solution of silver, and has, in fact, been used for silvering mirrors. A solution of potassic sulphhydrate, especially if mixed with alcohol, reproduces the original harmless cotton, with formation of potassic nitrate and a little ammonia. Ferrous sulphate exerts a similar reducing action, likewise reproducing the original cotton—see the results arrived at by Béchamp. Gun-cotton placed in contact with sulphuric acid and metallic mercury gives off its nitrogen in the form of nitric oxide; and so it is likewise with nitro-glycerine. This body, when mixed with fuming hydrochloric acid, decomposes below 100 deg. Cent., yielding glycerine and pure nitric oxide, as was observed by Dr. Mills. Its ethereal solution is decomposed by sulphuretted hydrogen gas with copious deposition of sulphur—for details see the papers of De Vrij. Then again, nitro-glycerine, when heated with aqueous solution of potash, is decomposed, with formation of glycerine and nitrate of potassium, as has been shown by Raiton.



It is even stated, on the authority of Professor G. C. Foster, whom we have always regarded as a physicist, that Dr. Mills found nitro-glycerine, kept for a fortnight, no longer explosive when struck, but showed no signs of decomposition or chemical alteration. If it were so, all cause for anxiety at the present time would be at an end. This statement can hardly be correct, although it is made in Watt's "Dictionary of Chemistry." Nitro-glycerine was first used as a mining agent by Dr. A. Nobel, a Swedish engineer, in 1864. It solidifies at a temperature probably as high as 8 deg. C.—56 deg. F.—and the friction of the frozen particles is very apt to give rise to explosion. A terrible story was told about fifteen or sixteen years ago, of a miner in the Hartz Mountains who was seen to begin to break up a block of frozen nitro-glycerine with a hammer, when everything vanished. Nobel found that the danger of accidental explosion of nitro-glycerine may be obviated by mixing it with wood spirit, which renders it non-explosive by percussion or by heat. When required for use, it may be recovered by adding water to the mixture, which reprecipitates the nitro-glycerine. According to S. Kern, it explodes with maximum violence at 262 deg. C.; at 187 deg. C. it merely gives off red fumes, and at 294 deg. C. a very slight explosion takes place. The blasting oils of commerce are usually mixtures of trinitro-glycerine with the mono and dinitro-derivatives. For the analysis of these products, F. Hess, who is a great authority on these matters, employs a modification of Dumas' combustion process, the mixture of the oil with cupric oxide being placed in a long combustion tube, and protected by a screen of tin-plate during the expulsion of the air in the tube by the stream of carbon dioxide, and the combustion regulated as far as possible, so that the successive portions of the finely-divided blasting oil may be brought to the temperature required for combustion only by the action of radiant heat. A simpler, and at the same time very exact method, is to treat the blasting oil with alcoholic potash, whereby it is exactly decomposed into glycerine and potassium nitrate, in which the nitrogen may be estimated by the usual methods. This is Hess' method. According to Sauer and Ador, on the other hand, the amount of nitrogen obtained by the latter method is always too low. By Dumas' method they obtained from dynamite cartridges 18.35 to 18.52 per cent. of nitrogen, answering to pure dinitro-glycerine, whereas by decomposition with alcoholic potash they obtained only 12.3, 12.5, and 13.14 per cent. of nitrogen.

#### SIR LYON PLAYFAIR AND SIR AUGUSTUS FREDERICK ABEL.

It has rarely, if ever, fallen to our lot to have to announce in one week the raising of two chemists to the honours indicated by the above heading. Her Majesty has been pleased to confer the honour of Knight Commandership of the Order of the Bath upon the Right Hon. Lyon Playfair, M.P., C.B. Dr. Lyon Playfair was born at Meerut, Bengal, in 1819. He was educated at St. Andrew's, at Edinburgh, and afterwards proceeded to Giessen, in Hesse Darmstadt, to study under Professor Liebig. He also worked with Professor Bunsen for some time. In 1843 he was appointed Professor of Chemistry at the Royal Institution,

Manchester, and was, from 1853 till 1858, Government Inspector-General of Schools and Museums of Science and Art. He was from 1858 till 1869, Professor of Chemistry in the University of Edinburgh, and was Special Commissioner in charge of the departments of juries at the Exhibition of 1851, after which he was created a C.B. He has represented the Universities of Edinburgh and St. Andrew's since December, 1868. From November, 1873, till February, 1874, he was Postmaster-General, and was appointed Chairman of Ways and Means in April, 1880, but retired from this post a few weeks ago. He has translated and published several works on chemical subjects, and on public health and education. He is a lucid speaker, he is full of knowledge of a practical kind, and he has had abundant experience of certain affairs of administration. It was one of the curiosities of the appointments of 1880 that a man with these qualifications should have been made Chairman of Committees, where those qualifications would be of least use or of no use. It is odd now that no post of public utility can be found for such a man; but at any rate Dr. Playfair has well earned any ornamental distinction that he may care to take. The Queen has signified her intention of conferring the honour of knighthood upon Professor Frederick Augustus Abel, C.B., F.R.S., in recognition of the valuable services rendered by him to the War Department and other departments of the Government in his capacity of War Department chemist. He has been for a long series of years at the head of the Royal Laboratory, Woolwich, and has recently published the results of some elaborate researches conducted conjointly with Major Noble on gunpowder. Science is certainly to be congratulated on these honours.

#### ARTESIAN WELLS UPON THE GREAT PLAINS OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE Legislature of Washington sanctioned two years ago the appointment of a Commission for the purpose of indicating suitable localities for experimental artesian wells in the regions of the great plains. That area lies between the meridian of 102 on the east, and the base of the Rocky Mountains on the west, embracing about 40,000 square miles. The Commission has returned and made a report expressive of regret that they cannot encourage a confident hope of success as to the result of experimental borings as contemplated by the Act of Congress authorising the work. Traversing the great plains, the general aspect of the surface is found very similar to the prairie district of the Upper Mississippi Valley. It is utterly treeless everywhere, saving a few clumps of cotton wood and willows. Grasses of the most nutritious character for grazing, as well as other herbaceous plants, prevail, but vegetation barely covers the surface. All attempts at boring in these arid regions have, with one exception, been made by private enterprise. The exception is the boring made at Fort Lyon, in the State of Colorado, under the auspices of the general Government. Noteworthy among the private borings are two, situated at Pueblo, in Colorado. One of these, it has been stated, was of a bore 5½ in. in diameter, and that the work was done with a plunge drill. At a depth of 1166ft., at the bottom of a deep series of clayey shales, a flow of water was obtained. It gave a discharge amounting to 4000 barrels in twenty-four hours, but it began soon to diminish, and has now nearly ceased. Two borings have been made near Cañon City, but proved failures. Two others, made at Denver, have been wholly unsuccessful. The Commissioners give a detailed account of all the attempts made, but state that after a careful examination of all the facts, it is their opinion that prospects of obtaining a satisfactory supply of water by means of artesian borings are not encouraging. Nevertheless the possibility is shadowed out that some artesian boring may be successfully carried on in consequence of some local dips that are believed to occur in the western part of the district. It is likewise deemed possible that sufficient water would escape from the Arkansas River into the strata which underlie the south-west part of the district.

#### CASUALTIES IN MINING.

AN actuarial report on the condition of the Northumberland and Durham Miners' Permanent Relief Fund is accompanied by a series of tables, one of which gives some interesting details of the extent of the casualties that occur in mining. The operations of the fund extend over the largest part of the counties of Northumberland and Durham, and it has 76,278 members at the present time. For the past five years the deaths have been 870 from accident, or put into a form that enables a more accurate estimate to be formed, the proportion was 2·45 for every 1000 members; for every 1000 in the previous five years the proportion was 1·97, and in the two previous years the proportions were 2·98 and 3·83 respectively. It would thus appear that in the earlier years of the fund's operations the deaths from accident were more in proportion even than now, that in the middle periods they were least, and that the recent great calamities in the north have caused the death rate to go up seriously. The non-fatal accidents of less than twenty-six weeks in duration are also many, varying in the quinquennial periods from 58 per cent. to 101 per cent. on the numbers of the deaths from accidents, and on this point a mass of figures is given in the report. But the general conclusion to be drawn is that there are very great variations in the number and the proportions of the mining accidents, both fatal and less serious. It is well that we have these records of the largest of the permanent relief funds to add to the reports of the inspectors of mines, and thus to acquire a still fuller idea of the extent of the mortality in mines, and of the accidents that result. But the experience of the mining funds is as yet too short to enable us to judge as to the average, for in the periods brought before us in the largest fund there is a very great variation that cannot as yet be accounted for.

#### DISCHARGING TORPEDOES.

It is well known that the problem how best to discharge Whitehead torpedoes presents considerable difficulty, and many attempts have been made to devise satisfactory mechanism. It appears that Messrs. Yarrow have settled the question so far as torpedo boats are concerned. Some interesting trials took place at Westminster on the afternoon of the 9th, in the presence of Admiral Sir Cooper Key, First Sea Lord, Rear-Admiral Brandreth, Controller of the Navy, Mr. George Rendel, and Mr. Nathaniel Barnaby, with a second-class torpedo boat recently built for the English Government by Messrs. Yarrow and Co., in order to illustrate the new system of steam impulse introduced by them. The gear is similar to that recently tested at Portsmouth with great success, it being found very superior to the plan previously adopted. The arrangement consists in building two troughs inclined at an angle of 5 deg. in the bow of the boat, which are provided with suitable guides for carrying the Whitehead torpedo. Aft of these troughs or guides are two long steel steam cylinders, 6in. diameter and 7ft. stroke, the piston-rods of which press against the ends of the torpedoes, and upon steam being suddenly admitted into these cylinders the torpedoes are instantly forced out with considerable velocity, the speed being

estimated at about fifteen miles an hour. If, therefore, the impulse is given when the boat is going twenty miles an hour, the collective speed of the torpedo upon entering the water is clearly thirty-five miles an hour. The arrangement is exceedingly simple, and under the entire control of the steersman. After the torpedo was fired several times the boat proceeded down the river with the Admiralty authorities, and the opportunity was taken to inspect the small launch driven by electricity developed in accumulators manufactured by the Electrical Power Storage Company, the construction of which was fully explained by Mr. Volckmar, after which the Admiralty authorities inspected the Brazilian ironclad being built by Messrs. Samuda Brothers, returning to town in the torpedo boat.

#### LITERATURE.

[FIRST NOTICE.]

*Equilibrio Interno delle Pale Metalliche.* By L. ALLIEVI. Rome. 1882.

THIS is an attempt to solve, with an approach to completeness, the problem of finding the stresses in the members of bridge piers built up of clusters of metal columns braced together horizontally and diagonally. When the number of pieces in the structure is much greater than that absolutely required for stiffness, it is well known that the above problem is one of great complexity. Accordingly, the character of the book we have under notice is such as to require one to possess considerable courage before plunging into the thick of it, because here equations 10in. long, and involving two dozen various symbols, are quite thick. The ordinary engineer would certainly run away in consternation, and give up bridge-building in despair, if he were to be convinced that a necessary preliminary were the solution, or even the comprehension of the meaning, of the set of closely-printed equations occupying on page 100 a space of 9in. by 6in. He would prefer to re-build the bridge every five years rather than undertake to understand and make use of these formulæ. If a bridge were designed according to them, and the manager of an insurance company were compelled to comprehend the principles of its construction before offering terms for its insurance against failure, he would assuredly charge a double premium, simply out of revenge for the headache he had suffered from in the effort.

Such might be the sentiments of the ordinary engineer with regard to this book. Nevertheless, it is well worthy of consideration whether it is not the absolute duty of those engineers in leading positions who undertake the design and erection of such important works as the Tay and Forth bridges to face every difficulty of previous investigation, whether that difficulty be theoretical or practical. To obtain the best possible design for any one of such structures is worth infinitely more mental labour than is usually bestowed on it. After the design is complete, the construction and erection cost, say, £100,000, and the risk of failure or totally destructive accident is worth even more than that. The memoir under review needs, as already said, some labour to study it, and must have needed still more to write it; but probably the author would not refuse an honorarium of £500 for its production as a piece of professional work, and another like sum would in all probability be accepted, not entirely without gratitude, for the trouble of applying its conclusions to the numerical calculation of the elements of design for one of the important structures referred to. If, then, these conclusions are theoretically correct, and moreover are of useful application to such cases, it would evidently be a senseless policy to reject such assistance merely because it is offered in the shape of complicated mathematical equations. Repugnance to the employment of difficult mathematical investigation for important and expensive engineering works is not at all justified by the mere difficulty and tediousness of the process. The subsequent practical carrying out of the design is infinitely more tedious and expensive, and the saving of expense and risk that is possible in this subsequent part of the work is immensely greater than the cost of the most careful imaginable preliminary theoretical investigation. There is one objection alone that can be reasonably urged against the most complete previous analysis of the matter in all its fullest complexity and down to its minutest detail. This one valid objection is that the brain of even the best educated engineer is hardly powerful enough to seize in one comprehensive grasp all the manifold conditions that have a really important influence on the solution of the problem, and the oversight of some of these at first sight almost trivial considerations not unfrequently wholly invalidates the conclusions arrived at by a complicated theoretical calculation, and makes the result deviate even further from the truth than what might have been arrived at in a much simpler method. The more complicated the calculation the more uncertain does its correctness become—the liability to error increases with the complexity. No doubt it is from errors arising in this way that mathematical investigation has been much discredited, and distrust in its utility rather widely spread. We wish we could believe that these prejudices all arose in this way, because there would in that case be a fairer chance of the rapid progress of the higher engineering science, which would then become popular always in proportion to its own merits—that is, its own accuracy. But the fact unfortunately is that most of this prejudice is the result of ignorance, bad education, or want of education, and sheer inability to master any difficulty that is not of the lightest kind.

Although Signor Allievi's work is by no means a complete treatment of lattice bridge piers in which there is a large degree of "redundancy," still we think it is the most serious attempt that has yet been made in that direction by the simple analytic method. In a series of papers by Professor R. H. Smith, of Birmingham, on "The Calculation of Stresses in Redundant Structures," which appeared in THE ENGINEER of 1880, the principles of these calculations were fully stated, as also the mode of carrying them out by graphic constructions. A comparison of the methods given there with the long series of equations contained in Signor Allievi's book shows the superior simplicity, intelli-

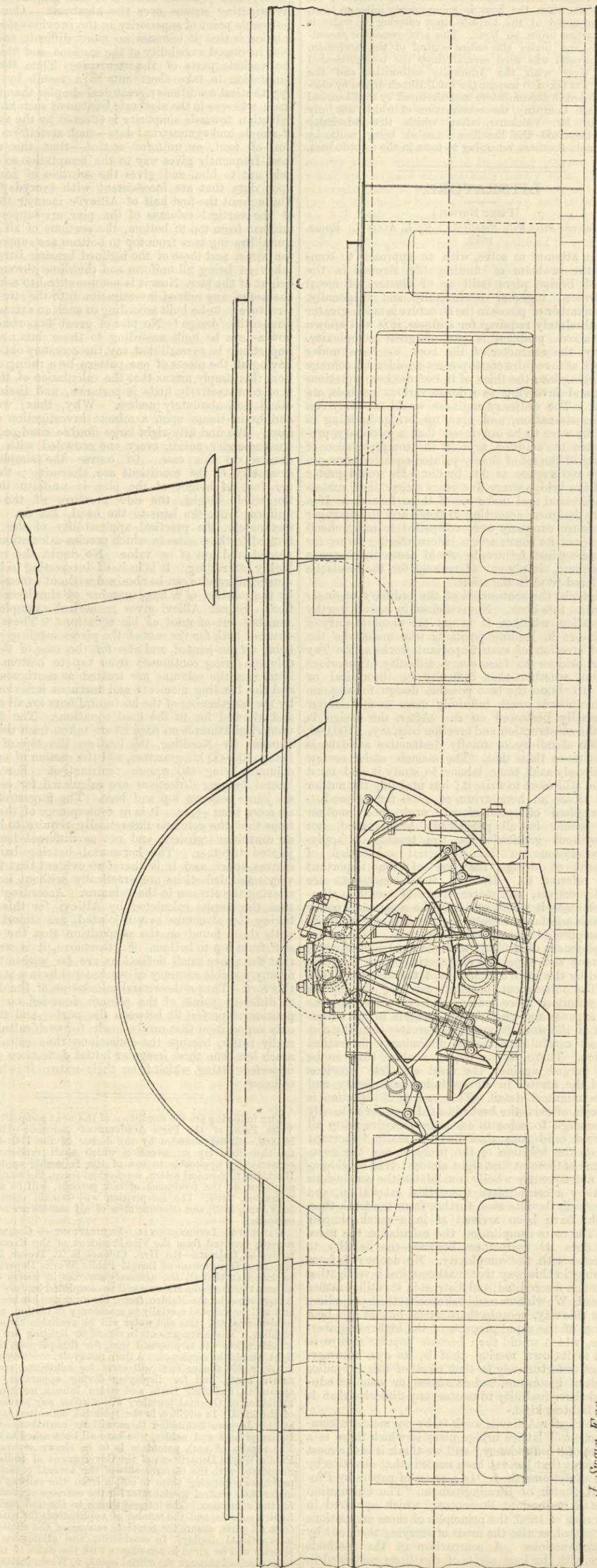
gibility, and practical easiness of the graphic method of investigating strains over the algebraic. One specially noticeable point of superiority in the previous mode of calculation is that it becomes no more difficult and tedious with increased variability of the sections and the loads at the various parts of the structure. Thus there is no temptation to take short cuts to a result by assuming hypothetical conditions a great deal simpler than the actual ones; whereas in the algebraic treatment such an immense reduction towards simplicity is effected by the assumption of simple and symmetrical data—such as uniform distribution of load, or uniform section—that the algebraist most frequently gives way to the temptation so obviously held out to him, and gives the solution of his problem upon data that are inconsistent with everyday practice. Throughout the first half of Allievi's memoir the section of the vertical columns of the pier are supposed to be uniform from top to bottom, the sections of all the horizontal bracing bars from top to bottom are supposed to be the same, and those of the inclined bracing bars are also taken as being all uniform and the same throughout the height of the pier. Now it is not unnatural to ask, What is the use of any refined investigation into the stresses if the structure is to be built according to such an extraordinarily unscientific design? No pier of great importance would now-a-days be built according to these data; and, if its importance be so small that, say, the economy obtainable by having all the pieces of one pattern be a ruling consideration, this simply means that the calculation of the stresses is of comparatively little importance, and their accurate calculation absolutely useless. Why, then, waste time and brain tissue upon a minute investigation of such a case? We find fifty-eight large double sized pages in the treatise under notice, every one crowded with equations devoted to this case. Of course the simplicity and symmetry of the conditions are charming; the weight per foot of height of the pier is uniform throughout the whole height, the side pressure of the wind is uniform from the base to the head, &c. &c. But, unfortunately, the practical applicability of the results is limited to those cases in which precise calculations are not needed and are of no value. No doubt the results are highly interesting. It is in itself interesting to know that numerical results can be obtained without excessive labour by the solution of a large number of simultaneous equations. Signor Allievi gives numerical examples of the working out of most of his equations. These are constructed both for the case of the pieces meeting at a joint being all pin-jointed, and also for the case of the vertical columns being continuous from top to bottom. In the latter case the columns are treated as continuous girders, and the bending moments and tortuous inflexions caused by the lengthening of the horizontal bars are all calculated and allowed for in the final equations. The data for a numerical example on page 23 are taken from the Viaduct Busseau by Nordling, the load on the top of the pier being 200,000 kilogrammes, and the section of one of the columns being 450 square centimetres. For this the lateral bulging deflections are calculated for each of the six joints between top and base. The largest of these is no more than  $\frac{1}{10}$  in. It is in consequence of these deflections that the columns theoretically require to be treated as continuous girders, and not as different lengths pin-jointed together. The horizontal bracing bars are 4½ metres apart, and it is therefore evident that the above very small deflections are practically without influence in altering the stresses in the columns. Accordingly we find that the results calculated by Allievi for this example, taking the structure as pin-jointed, are almost identical with those found on the supposition that the column is stiff from top to bottom. Furthermore, it is well to note that the above small deflections are far within the limits of any possible accuracy of workmanship in a structure of this sort. Thus a theoretical calculation of the deflections at different points of the column founded on the supposition of perfect fit between the parts—and this is the only supposition that can be made for such calculation—is really futile, because the deflections thus calculated are much less than those irregular initial deflections caused by imperfect fitting, which from their nature it is impossible to know.

THE following are the conditions of the next competition for the Volta Prize of the Paris Academy of Science:—The prize of 50,000fr.—£2000—founded by the decree of the 11th June, 1882, for the discovery or invention which shall render electricity economically applicable to one of the following applications:—Heat, light, chemical action, mechanical force, the transmission of messages, or the treatment of sick persons, will be awarded in December, 1887. The competition will remain open until the 30th June, 1887, and scientific men of all nations are admitted to compete.

CALCUTTA INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION. — Communications recently received from the Vice-President of the Executive Committee at Calcutta—the Hon. Colonel S. T. Trevor, R.E., joint secretary, Government of Bengal Public Works Department—are to the effect that all the necessary annexes in course of erection adjacent to the India Museum will be completed by July or August. A large space on the Maidan, facing the museum, has been enclosed, and will be devoted specially to machinery in motion, agricultural implements, &c. Gas and water will be available throughout the building. The arrangements in regard to lighting are now under consideration. It is proposed that, for this purpose, the electric light should be employed. A deep reservoir, covering an area of nearly 90,000 square feet, will serve for exhibiting specimens of native boats, and for displaying diving apparatus, life-saving apparatus, including boats and steam launch machinery. The exhibition of Oriental jewellery will surpass any previous display of the kind. In addition to the splendid collection lately shown at the Jeyore Exhibition there will be contributions from the Indian princes and nobles, who have all been asked to co-operate. The regalia of each potentate is to be shown separately. The Public Works Department of the Government of India has communicated with the Governments of the several presidencies and provinces requesting them to obtain from the railway authorities under their control special rates for the carriage of goods intended for the exhibition. The interest shown in the undertaking by the foreign consuls, and the number of applications for space received from all parts, ensure the complete success of the exhibition as an international display. In considering the allotments of space, priority will be given in accordance with the dates of the applications received through the official agent, 4, Westminster-chambers, Victoria-street, London.

ENGINES OF THE LONDON AND NORTH-WESTERN RAILWAY COMPANY'S STEAMSHIP VIOLET.

MESSRS. LAIRD BROS., BIRKENHEAD, ENGINEERS.



J. Swan Eng.

In our impression for March 30th we referred at some length in an article on the Irish mail contract to the steamships Lily and Violet, and through the courtesy of Admiral Dent, marine superintendent to the Railway Company at Holyhead, and Messrs. Laird Bros., Birkenhead, we are enabled to give above and on page 293, drawings of the Violet and her machinery. The Violet and Lily are sisters, but the Violet is a little the faster of the two. She is 310ft. long over all, 300ft. 6in. between perpendiculars, 33ft. beam, and 14ft. 4in. deep—figures which show that she is not the cockleshell some persons believe. She is certified by the Board of Trade to carry 475 deck passengers and 417 saloon passengers. The fittings of the ship are admirable, and the second-class cabins present a marked contrast to the accommodation provided for second-class passengers on board the present mail boats, which is extremely bad.

The Lily and Violet are fitted with oscillating engines with jet condensers, and two diagonal air pumps, as shown above. The cylinders are 78in. diameter and 74t. stroke, with double piston-rods and crossheads, the piston-rods being 8in. diameter. The entablatures are of cast iron, and of box form, and are strongly supported by eight wrought iron columns, each 7in. diameter. The crank shafts are 13in. diameter. Each cylinder has two slide valves worked by a link motion in the usual way, and a combined steam and hydraulic starting gear is fitted which enables the engines to be reversed with great rapidity. The paddle-wheels are 27ft. 8in. in diameter, the floats being 11ft. wide, and 4ft. 6in. deep. Steam is supplied by eight rectangular boilers, working at a pressure of 30 lb. per square inch. They contain 2152 tubes, and have a total heating surface of 12,215 square feet, and a grate surface of 470 square feet. The mean indicated horse-power developed on a continuous run of over three hours was 3220-horse power, the revolutions being 30 per minute. The vessels are made of steel rolled at Crew.

The railway company possess two other passenger steamers, the Rose and the Shamrock, of much the same type, but not so fast. The proposed change in the contract has stimulated the Irish company, and the mail steamers are now driven as fast as they can go; their performances being closely watched. Indeed, racing daily takes place between the mailboats and the railway company's steamers. The following statement appears in the *Freeman's Journal*, an Irish paper much opposed to the proposed change, and unlikely to concede anything against the Irish vessels. The Violet is, we may premise, probably fifteen minutes faster than the Shamrock, mentioned below.

"The arrival and departure of the steamers at the Carlisle Pier is most narrowly watched, and the most anxious inquiries made as to their cross-Channel performances. The fourth official trial of the steamers belonging to the London and North-Western Railway Company took place on Saturday, between Kingstown and Holyhead. The Munster left with the mails at 3.43 a.m. English time, and arrived in Kingstown at 7.25, making the run in three hours and thirty minutes. The Leinster left Holyhead on the same day at 2.12 p.m., and owing to the thick weather did not arrive until 5.32 p.m., taking three hours and forty-five minutes to come across. The Connaught in her trip over on Sunday morning was detained in the Channel by a dense fog, and arrived at 7.25 English time, bringing heavy foreign mails. The Leinster was two minutes later when leaving, owing to delay occasioned in getting the luggage of the D'Oyley Carte Operatic Company on board. It is expected that when the mail steamer Ulster comes out of dock and resumes her duties on the station she will be able to go the cross-Channel trips in very quick time. On Saturday the Shamrock passed the Holyhead Breakwater outwards at 8.11 a.m., inwards at 6.7 p.m., passage from Holyhead to Kingstown, jetty to jetty, three hours and fifteen minutes. From Kingstown to Holyhead, jetty to jetty, three hours and forty-four minutes. The Connaught passed breakwater inwards at 11.20 a.m., alongside of jetty at 11.29; passage

from Kingstown to Holyhead, jetty to jetty, three hours and forty-five minutes.

METEOROLOGY AS A SCIENCE.

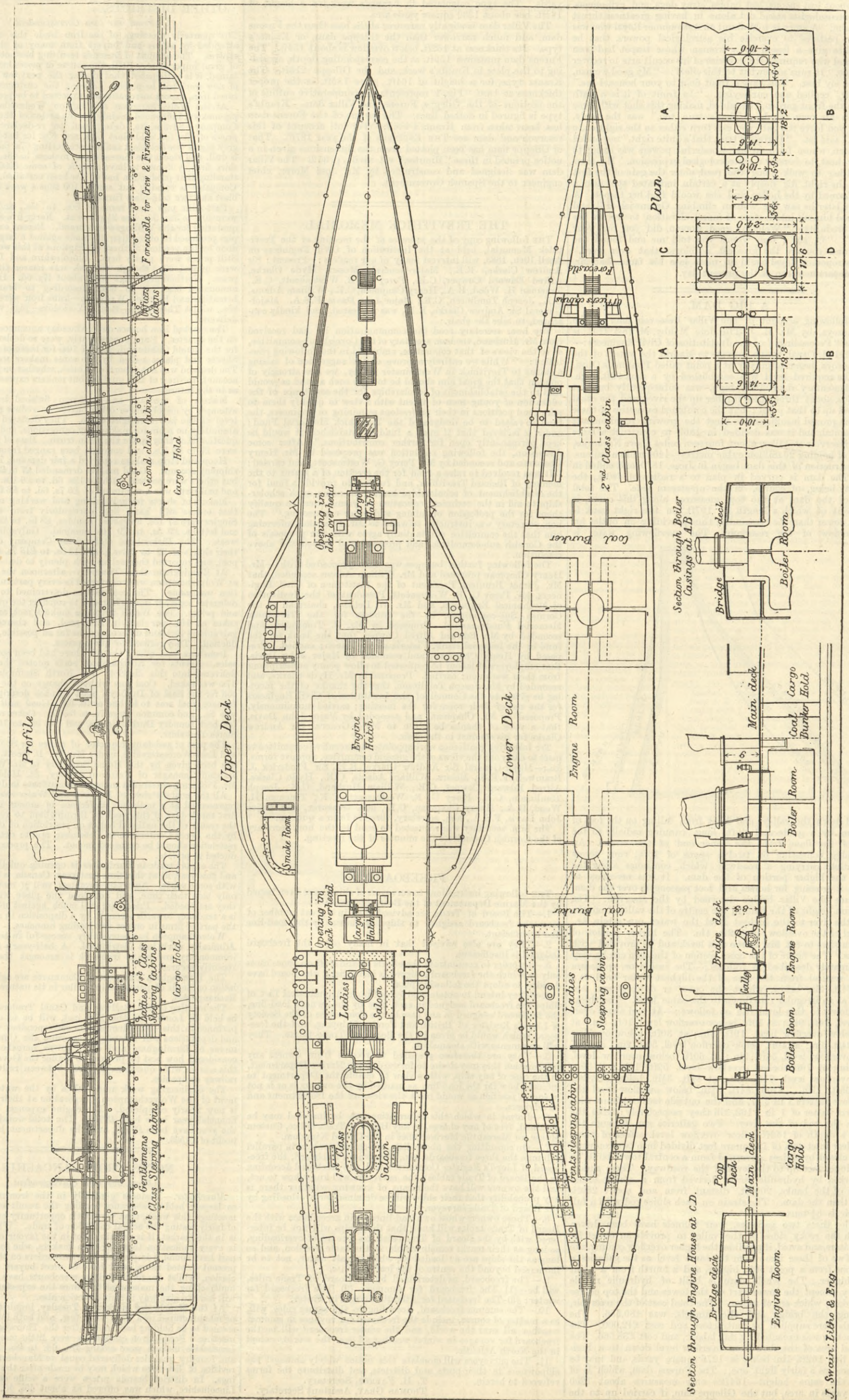
METEOROLOGY is sometimes mentioned as "the youngest of the sciences;" Professor Tyndall, about a year ago at the Royal Institution, spoke of the further steps it should take that it may be rescued from the charge of being somewhat empirical, and the *Athenæum* once took meteorology to task on the same ground. The general want of confidence now prevailing as to the trustworthiness of the meteorological predictions published daily likewise indicates the state of the public mind. To some extent meteorologists are not to blame for this, for having become habituated to the weather predictions of the late Admiral Fitzroy; the public were in no humour to accept the desire of certain Royal Society men that weather facts alone should be published, without prophecies as to the future. Britons would no more stand this than they would the abolition of Zadkiel's Almanac, Mother Shipton's prophecy about the end of the world—fabricated by a Brighton bookseller a few years ago—the Lord Mayor's Show, or any other brain-rooted institution. A prophet must, the head meteorologist be, in spite of himself, and without honour in his own country. The brutality of unregulated popular feeling compels him to don the wizard's gown, to stir his crocodile up to the ceiling, and to continue his daily incantations. A critical examination of the English official and unofficial meteorological journals reveals the existence of a vast mass of statistical facts, accumulated during many years from all parts of the world, and indicates the absence of some scientific man of master mind to weave all these, as well as foreign records, into some harmonious whole, into a sound philosophical system. The observations seem to be collected daily from too small an area to give the best facilities, perhaps, for correctly anticipating coming weather. The daily record in the *Times* is not

only limited in area, taking in but a small portion of Western Europe, but even figures of interest to general readers are omitted from the chart which is given. Many, out of mere curiosity, would like to know what climate their friends in Riviera are enjoying, yet no temperatures are printed in the chart for Nice or thereabouts. Coming storms, some of which do not arrive with the certainty of dynamite couriers, are pronounced in England by telegrams from the *New York Herald* office, and much is published daily about barometrical movements over limited areas, with comparatively little about temperature changes; yet the latter as distributed over large areas may have much to do with the formation of the former, as might perhaps be seen did the daily received observations cover a sufficiently large field. On the European continent the national meteorological observations are of a complete nature; why then should not the various elements recorded at some thirty spots between, say, the meridian of Greenwich and that of Constantinople be telegraphed to London and examined, if not published, daily? If it were known that on a certain day much cold prevailed generally throughout North America between the equator and the pole, and that during the same twelve or twenty-four hours much warmth prevailed generally throughout Europe, the knowledge of broad general conditions such as these, extending over such large areas, might by dint of study give some kind of trustworthy indication what weather to expect before long in the region between the two continents. The position of the Meteorological Department of the Board of Trade is uncomfortable, for fortune-telling about the weather the public will have "by palmistry or otherwise," as the Vagrancy Act says, and they feel at the same time justified in censuring its inaccuracy, whilst no power on earth can induce them to open their minds to the fact that the materials for ensuring accuracy do not exist. A man cannot be made to see the sun if he will not, and men always see not necessarily what is before them, but that which their mental eye gives them the power of seeing. When ever a man sets up an astronomical observatory his poorer neighbours note

THE LONDON AND NORTH-WESTERN RAILWAY COMPANY'S STEAMSHIP VIOLET.

MESSRS. LAIRD BROS., BIRKENHEAD, ENGINEERS.

(For description see page 292.)



J. Swain: Litho & Eng.





