

in places, the product being spun and woven in the Wallachian or Roumanian households. The vine is becoming more and more cultivated, a really good wine being produced in the south. The hills are generally covered with forests, the oak predominating up to the height of 500 metres above the sea level; but beyond this line the beech, which yields charcoal, is in the ascendant. Contrary to what has happened in most districts where the iron production is dependent on the forests, the company, which owns the forests as well as the manorial rights, and whose production of charcoal iron exceeds 15,000 tons a year, at once took measures to economise this important item of its fuel

flushes generally begin in March, when the logs, which have been laid on the banks of the river, are drawn along by the current for a distance of from 2 to 30 kilometres, accomplishing the greater distance in 6 hours. In this way, from 800 to 8000 steres—1046 to 10,464 cubic yards—of timber are accumulated at the first station, 37 kilometres—23 miles—below the dam, constructed of wooden palisades, the spaces between which can be increased or diminished at pleasure. The logs that are here arrested are led by a lateral canal to the first charcoal station, capable of stacking 4400 steres—5755 cubic yards—of timber with twenty-six piles on fire at the same time. There is also a

and over again. Vent-holes are made for admitting air; but they are carefully watched so as to admit only so much as will just support combustion. Unfortunately, in this primitive method all the gases pass off absolutely to waste. The pile, originally of the form shown at 1, successively assumes that of 2 and 3, when the operation, which lasts from twelve to thirteen days, is finished. The absolute calorific power of the charcoal produced is on an average 6602.8; and the pyrometrical calorific power 4386, the resistance to direct pressure being 25 kilogs. per square centimetre, or 355½ lb. per square inch. Analyses made by the chief chemist, Herr Anton Maderspach, show the following to be its mean composition:—Carbon, 79.98; hydrogen, 2.14; oxygen, 13.11; water, 2.92; ash, 1.85. From 4 to 5 cubic metres—141 to 176½ cubic feet—are required to produce a ton of pig iron.

Minerals.—The boundaries of the company's domain have evidently been determined by the valuable basin, containing several deposits of coal, iron ore, and other minerals, constituted by the primitive rocks, and of comparatively recent geological formation. See Geological Plan, Fig. 1. The sedimentary series which enter into its composition are the Carboniferous, the Permian, the Jurassic, the Cretaceous and the Tertiary; that is to say, all the important series except the Triassic. Of the eruptive rocks, sienite forms the western, and granite the eastern boundary of the basin. The sienite exerts a considerable influence on the mineral value of the district, because the metalliferous deposits are in direct relation to it. Wherever it has traversed the Jurassic and Cretaceous limestones it has transformed them, for a considerable thickness, into crystalline limestone, and sometimes even into a true marble; while the eruption of the porphyry has coked the coal in contact with it for a thickness of half a metre. It is in contact with the limestone and the sienite that are found the magnetic iron ore, and also the red and brown hematites which are worked up at Reschitza and Anina, as well as the copper, lead, and zinc ores, and those of gold and silver. The shales of the primary formation contain a highly manganese brown hematite, iron pyrites, sulphate of antimony, and galena. Large quantities of iron pyrites are worked at Moldova, where they are used for the manufacture of sulphuric acid. Copper and silver were raised here by the Romans; and 18 tons of the former metal were produced as late as 1854, but the mines are now no longer worked. Gold is worked to a small extent at Oravitza; and the silver found in conjunction with the lead and zinc smelted at Dognacska is sent to Moldova to be reduced.

The Carboniferous formation, which is here the most ancient of the sedimentary rocks, is met with chiefly in the valley of the Berzava, near Reschitza. The lower series of this formation consists of conglomerate and coarse-grained sandstone, which form the unproductive portion; while these strata, on account of the entire absence of the carboniferous limestone, are immediately overlain by the productive portion, consisting of fine-grained sandstone and argillaceous shales. While the outcrop is unworkable owing to its want of continuity, there are at Székul, near Reschitza, four workable seams, varying in thickness from four metres to half a metre, which supply the Reschitza works with a considerable portion of their fuel. There exist in the Permian group, at Reschitza and other points, concretions of brown hematite, the working of which has not proved remunerative; the fire-clay used at Reschitza and Anina is, however, obtained from this formation. Were the works dependent for their coal on the Carboniferous series alone, they would come badly off; but, as if to make up for a deficiency in these measures, the lias coal of the Jura series is present to a large extent. The most valuable deposit of this nature in the whole of Hungary is that forming an elliptical outcrop between Anina and Steierdorf, the measures having been thrown up by an eruption of the igneous rocks, and thus presenting themselves in the form of an inverted basin. The best of this coal is sold, chiefly to the Government, the inferior only being used at the Anina works. Lias coal is also present at Domán, in the neighbourhood of Reschitza, and contributes to the fuel supply of the iron and steel works.

Above the lias coal of the Jura formation occur the blackish argillaceous shales, very rich in bitumen, which yield on distillation 5 and sometimes 8 per cent. of raw mineral oil. Until recently this substance was treated at the Oravitza works for the production of petroleum and paraffin; but now raw oil can be obtained from the wells in Roumania more cheaply than by working the shales. Between the lias coal and the bituminous shale there is a stratum about 34 metres thick of "blackband" or argillaceous carbonate of iron, which contains sufficient carbon to support combustion during the process of roasting, when once the oven is fairly heated. The effect of the roasting is to raise the percentage of iron from 30 to 42 per cent. for a given weight of stone. The average composition of these blackbands, which form a notable portion of the charge in the Anina blast furnaces, is as follows:—Carbonate of iron, 76; carbonate of lime, 1; carbon and bitumen, 6.5; silicate of alumina—insoluble in acids—16.5.

The Tertiary formation yields lignite at several points, but either not in sufficient quantity, or mixed with too many impurities to warrant its being worked. In the diluvium are found nodules of magnetic iron and also of a pure and rich oligist or oolitic iron ore, the weight of which varies from a few ounces to five tons. While at Tilfa Zapulai the ore is nearly exhausted, the rich Amelia mine, which is worked open-cast, contains about 50,000 tons of valuable mineral.

Collieries.—Besides the charcoal yielded by the beech forests, the Reschitza works are, it has been seen, dependent for their fuel supply on the coal measures proper worked at Székul and the lias coal raised at Domán. Both these collieries, shown on the general plan, Fig. 1, above, and plan of the Reschitza district, Fig. 2, are near the Reschitza works, and connected with them by small-gauge lines worked by locomotives. The rich coal from the former and the poor coal from the latter are mixed in about equal portions at the screening station, and washed when the amount of impurity exceeds a certain proportion, so as to render them fit for

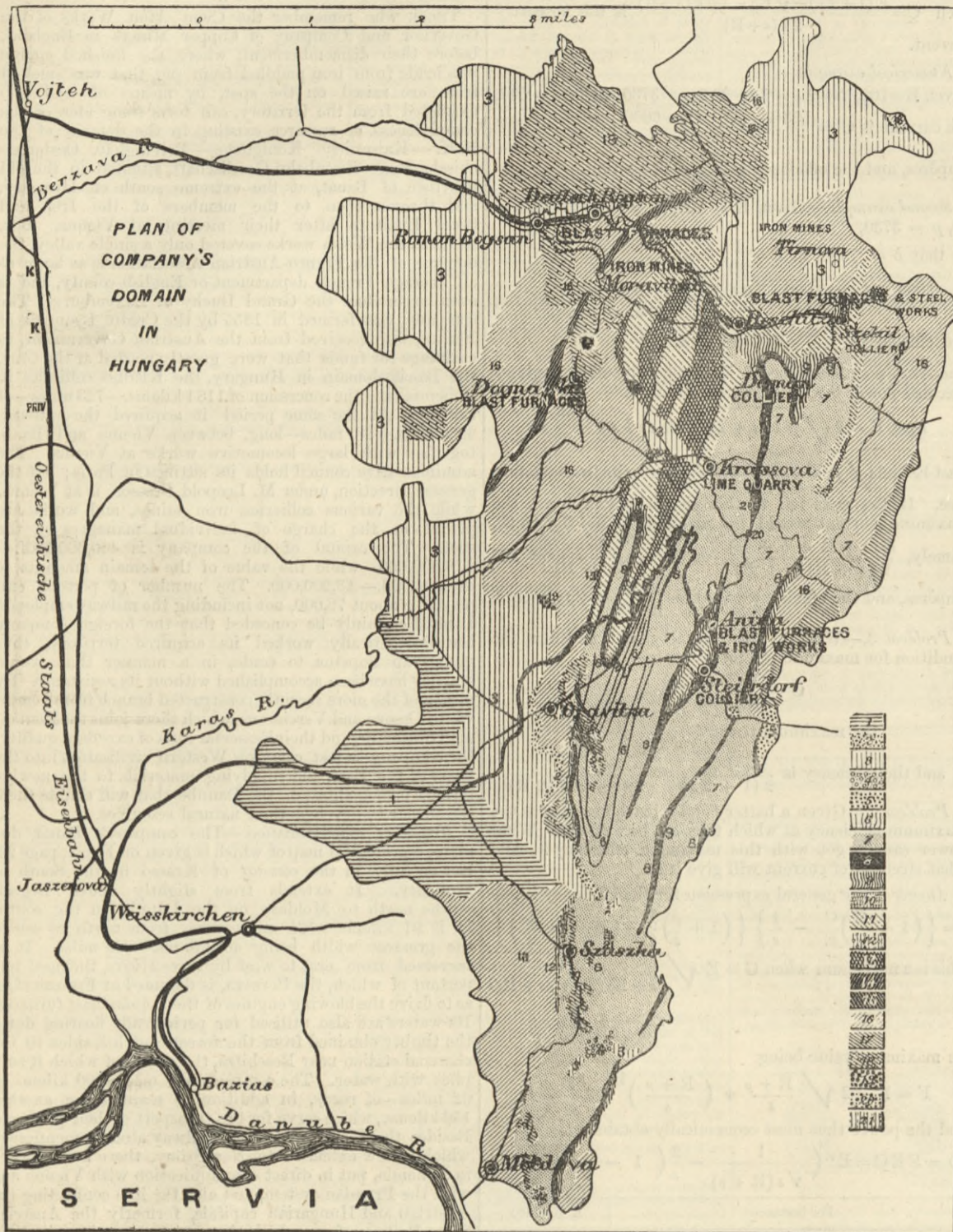


Fig. 1.—GEOLOGICAL PLAN OF DOMAIN IN HUNGARY OF THE K. K. PRIV. OESTER. ST. EISENBahn GESELLSCHAFT.

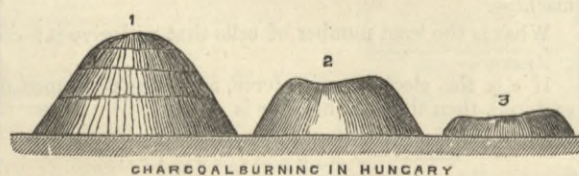
REFERENCE—	
DILUVIAN	1. Loam, clay, and gravels.
TERTIARY FORMATION .. .	2. Gravels and conglomerates.
	3. Sand, clay, and sandstone.
	4. Breccia.
CRETACEOUS FORMATION .. .	5. Sandstones and marls (upper cretaceous).
	6. Marls } middle and lower cretaceous.
JURASSIC FORMATION .. .	7. Limestones }
	8. Schistose limestones and marls.
LIAS FORMATION .. .	9. Sandstone, argillaceous shales and marls.
	10. Metamorphic sandstone,
	11. New red sandstone.
DIAS FORMATION .. .	12. Metamorphic sandstone.
COAL MEASURES .. .	13. Argillaceous sandstones and shales.
	14. Crystalline limestone.
	15. Silicious limestone.
CRYSTALLISED ROCKS .. .	16. Gneiss and Mica-schist.
	17. Granite,
IGNEOUS ROCKS .. .	18. Sienite.
	19. Serpentine.
	20. Porphyry and diorite.
	21. Gangues.

supply. In accordance with a cadastre, definitely revised in 1874, they divided the forest land into five classes or periods. Estimating the quantity of timber in each class, and knowing the requirements of the furnaces, they have worked the growth of beech trees in periods of 80 or 100 years. Thus, while taking each year the quantity of timber required to produce the quantum of charcoal, the forest supervisors arrange for the reproduction of an equal quantity for the future.

Those trees that are far removed from a stream are felled, cut up and turned into charcoal on the spot, during the summer months, the charcoal being conveyed to the furnace in the best manner possible. But, in the case of all timber that can by any means be got down to a stream, a regular system is pursued. It is felled in winter, drifted down by the torrents which swell the streams in the spring of the year, carried on to the charcoal stations, as will shortly be described, stacked to dry during the summer and autumn, and burnt into charcoal the following winter. The principal charcoal stations are on the river Berzava, near Reschitza, in which district alone there are no less than 27,000 hectares—66,720 acres—of forest land for supplying timber and charcoal. At about 8½ kilometres from the source of this river, a timber dam was constructed in 1865, 11.4 metres—38ft.—high by 25 m.—82ft.—wide, capable of retaining a volume of 115,900 cubic metres or about 25,500,000 gallons of water. The

sluice which allows a certain proportion of logs to pass to the second station 500 metres—say yards—below the first, and having space for thirty-four piles on fire at once. At the third station, still lower, a double row of palisades arrests the passage of the remainder of the logs, which are burnt in forty piles. The three stations are capable of producing 9,000 tons of charcoal in a single season. Formerly, none but the smaller branches were used; but it has since been found that the larger wood is also suitable for making charcoal fit for use in the blast furnace.

The Hungarian method of burning is adopted, in



which conical piles, called "pits" in the North of England, of 130 to 220 cubic yards content are formed, as shown in the annexed sketch. The logs are piled up regularly round a core of small wood, the larger at the bottom and the smaller at the top. They are covered with straw and fine earth, which is used over

making coke. This is effected in three rows of Belgian ovens containing twenty each. The charge is drawn, or rather pushed out, by a ram with rack worked by a combined portable and locomotive engine. The annual production

ing is effected in more than one lift, the space left by the extracted coal being afterwards gobbled with shale. The output is 60,000 tons per annum; and all the coal extracted, which is of good coking quality, is sent to the

retain their uniform with crossed hammers for highdays and holidays, and say "Glück auf" on passing, while children make use of the early Christians' salutation, "Gelobt sei Jesus Christus."

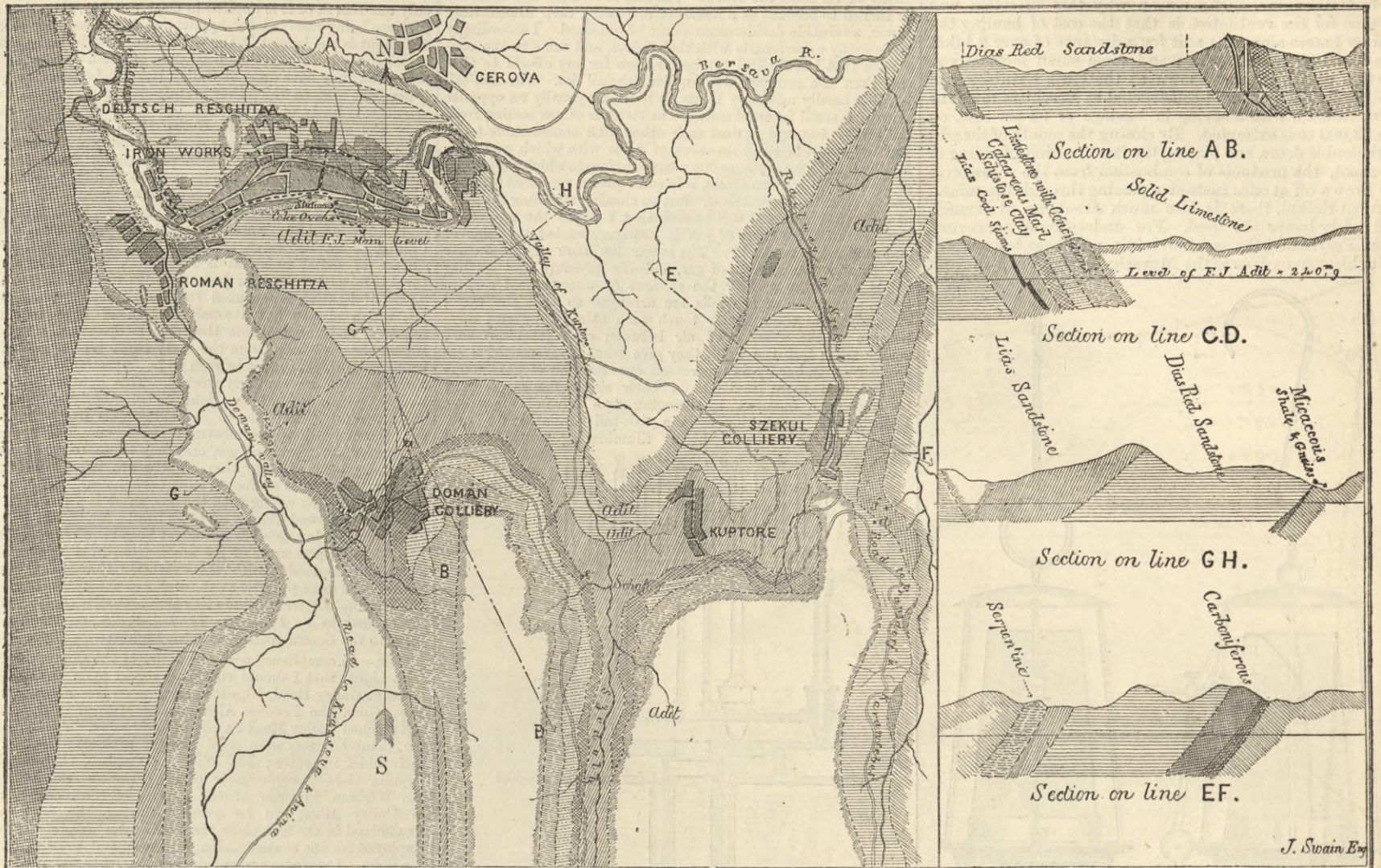


Fig. 2.—GEOLOGICAL PLAN AND SECTIONS OF RESCHITZA DISTRICT.

- a Szécsén shaft .. Winding .. 324.9 399.5 Depth to the level of Franz Jozsef adit, 147m.
- b Almásy shaft .. Ventilation 109.2 366.0 Serves also to take down wood for timbering.
- c Alfred shaft .. Winding .. 243.3 468.9 Depth to level of adit, 32m.
- d Versuch shaft .. Exploration 170.4 545.5 Serves also for winding.
- e Georg shaft .. Exploration 204.6 387.5 Abandoned.
- f Wetter schacht Ventilation 27.6 512.0 Serves to extract the air from the Szekul Colliery.

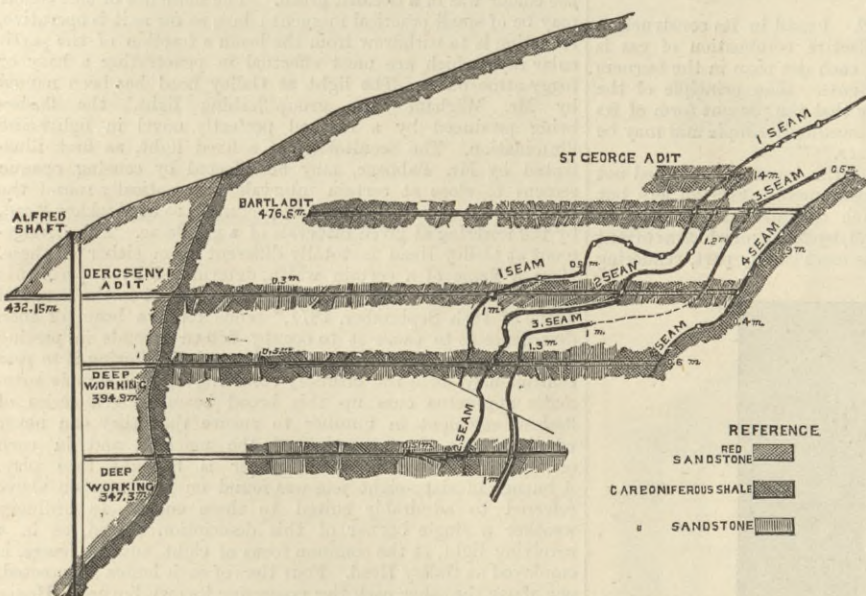


Fig. 3.—VERTICAL SECTION OF SZEKUL COLLIERY.

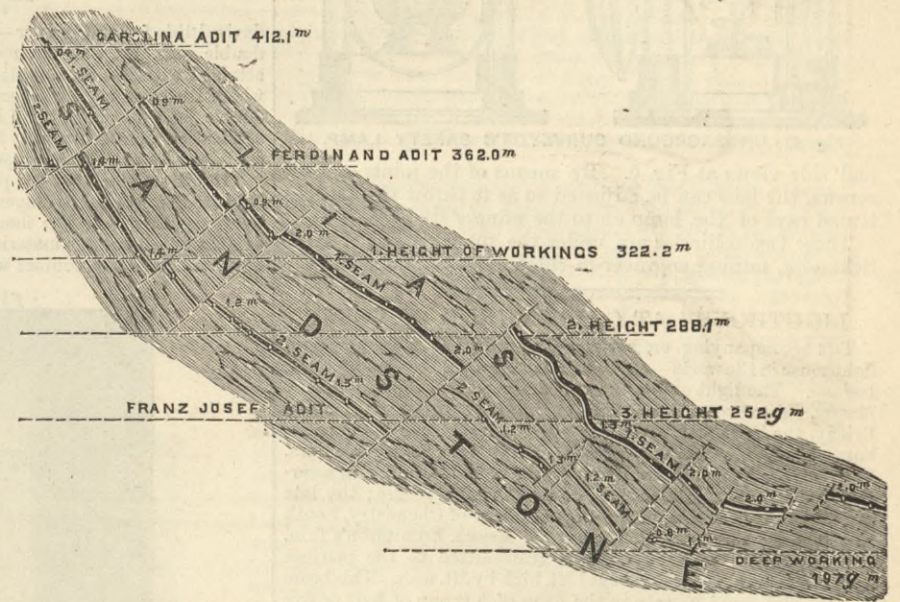


Fig. 4.—VERTICAL SECTION OF DOMAN COLLIERY.

is about 15,000 tons of coke, with an absolute heat effect of 6268 calories or 24,871 English heat units, and of the following average composition:—Fixed carbon, 83.85; volatile substances, 1.23; water, 0.75; ash, 14.17.

As will be seen by the geological plan—Fig. 2—of the district round Reschitza, and the section EF, the coal measures crop out to the surface at Székul, to the east of Reschitza. The four seams worked—shown by the section at Fig. 3—run north and south, and dip about 50 deg. towards the west. Their thickness is very variable, but averages respectively 0.8 m., 1.75 m., 1.4 m., and 1.6 m., beginning from the surface. The measures are tolerably regular for 500 m., but afterwards are much distorted. They are proved for a length of 1300 m. horizontally, and to a depth of 130 m. All the coal between the surface and the Dercsenyi Adit, equal to a vertical height of about 152 m., or 83 fathoms, has been worked out; and in 1871 the Alfred shaft was put down to raise the deep coal to the adit, by which it is run out to the day. This shaft is now 330 m., or 180 fathoms deep; and the levels are driven regularly 40 m.—nearly 22 fathoms—apart, the fifth height being now begun. The method of working pursued is that known in German as *fürstenbau*, that is to say, in reverse steps. Both the coal and the sandstone are mined by dynamite cartridges fired by electricity, great care being taken about the ventilation in the neighbourhood of a shot. There is a great deal of fire-damp, and Mueseler safety lamps, fed with mineral oil, are used. In the case of seams 2 m. thick and under, the whole thickness of coal is extracted at once, and the roof propped. The props are afterwards taken out, when the roof falls in. But with seams of over 2 m. thickness the work-

works at Reschitza, the cost of getting, raising, and transport being 60 kreutzers, or about 1s. a ton. About 700 hands



Fig. 5.—DOMAN COLLIERY.

are employed at Székul, of which 300 are Roumanians, and the rest Germans or Bohemians. The German miners

It will also be seen from the geological plan—Fig. 2—already referred to, that the outcroppings of the lias measures form the ridge between the Domán and Berzava valleys. They enclose two workable seams of coal, averaging 1 m. 9 and 1 m. 3 in thickness, shown at sections A B and C D, Fig. 2, and also enlarged at Figs. 4 and 5. These sections are both taken on a line running N.W. and S.E., but Fig. 4 is east, and Fig. 5 west of the shaft. The seams dip to the south, and run generally east and west, but with the eastern end inclining towards the south. They were worked by adits as early as 1819, the coal being then carted to Reschitza by a long winding road. The colliery is now worked principally by the Szécsén shaft in the centre of the deposit—shown at a in the plan, Fig. 2—and by the Franz Jozsef adit, 2320 m. long. The coal is proved to a depth of 140 m. below the adit, and for over 1500 m. on either side of it. The levels are, as at Székul, 40 m. or 22 fathoms apart, and are driven right and left to cut the seams. When the coal is struck, a level is driven along it of sufficient sectional area to admit of the trams being drawn by horses. This is followed a few metres above by a return air-way put in connection with the upper heights of workings. The main rolley-way only is lined with masonry, the roof of the levels being generally supported by prop-wood, consisting of oak and beech, while birch and poplar serve for sprags at the working faces. In places where the thrust is considerable, iron frames, consisting of two old rails are employed for supporting the roof. Hitherto it has been possible to raise all the water encountered in water-cages during the night; but a pumping engine is now being erected. Contrary to the usual

practice, the air current is drawn downwards through the Szecsén shaft, and out of the mouth of the Franz Jozsef adit, by a Guibal fan, 9 m.—nearly 30ft.—in diameter, and 2 m.—6ft. 6in.—wide, driven direct by a 100-horse power horizontal engine. The reason why this direction was adopted for the ventilation is that the cost of hauling the coal by horses along the adit for a distance of over 2 kilos. was found to be too great; and some small locomotives, the first of which was shown at the Paris Exhibition of 1878, were designed and constructed at Reschitza to do the work instead, with a saving in haulage of 92 per cent. on the 53,000 tons extracted. By closing the mouth of the adit with double doors, and placing the fan in a kind of siding or off-shoot, the products of combustion from the locomotive are drawn off at once instead of passing through the mine.

As at Székul, there is also much fire-damp at Domán; and safety lamps are used. For underground surveying, Herr Przyborski, the assistant mining engineer, has adapted a double convex lens to the Muesler lamp, shown in front

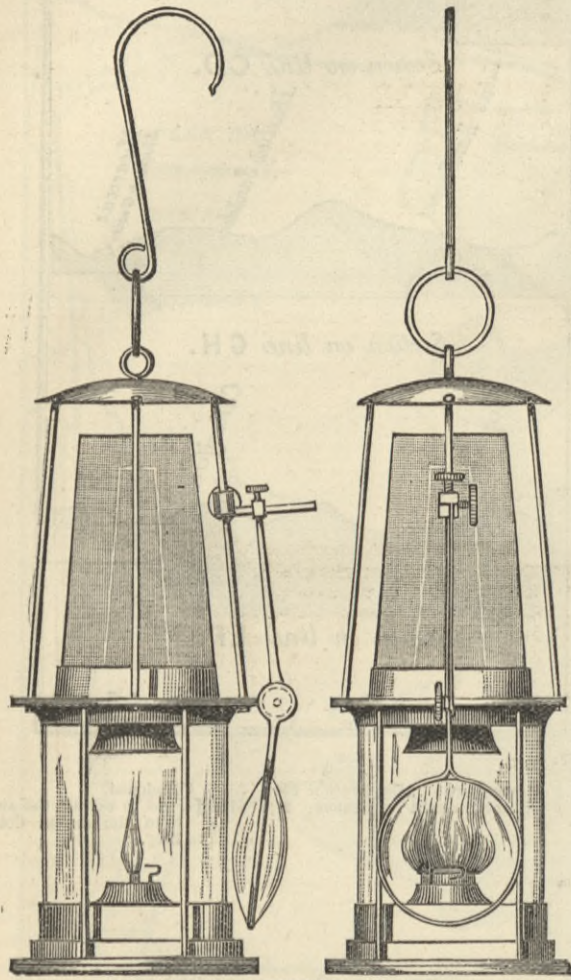


Fig. 6.—UNDERGROUND SURVEYOR'S SAFETY LAMP.

and side views at Fig. 6. By means of the joints and set screws, the lens can be adjusted so as to throw the concentrated rays of the lamp on to the miners' dial.

These two collieries are under the management of Herr Schmolik, mining engineer-in-chief.

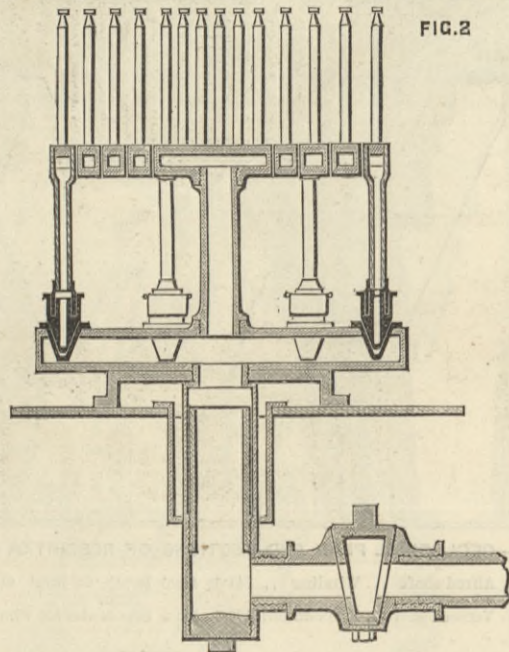
LIGHTHOUSE AT GALLEYHEAD, CO. CORK.

THE accompanying engravings illustrate the most powerful lighthouse in the world—that at Galley Head, in the County Cork, Ireland. The light apparatus was designed and constructed by Messrs. Edmunson and Co., gas engineers, Capel-street, Dublin. Briefly, the light may be said to proceed from four gas-burners, burned without chimney glasses or any interposing medium. Each burner has an illuminating power of 1253 candles, as ascertained by Sir James Douglass, of the Trinity House; the late Mr. William Valentine, of the Royal College of Chemistry, South Kensington; and Mr. J. R. Wigham, of Messrs. Edmunson's firm. The great beam of light which is transmitted to the mariner from these four burners is about 13ft. high by 3ft. wide. This beam reaches him every minute in the form of a group of four or five flashes. This is caused by the continual extinction and re-ignition of the gas by clockwork machinery, so that about one-half the consumption of gas is saved, while the effect to the mariner is exceedingly distinctive.

With respect to the novelty of this mode of lighting, it consists in the superposing of the lights and lenses. Until Mr. Wigham devised this plan, only one central illuminant was used in first-order lighthouses, the dioptric apparatus for which consisted of three parts, viz., the great central annular lens, the top prisms, and the bottom prisms. The light from these top and bottom prisms being but feeble,—practically about 20 per cent. of the whole—it occurred to Mr. Wigham that it would be better to use three of these central lenses superposed, with a light in the focus of each, thus securing an addition of light in the ratio of 240 to 100. The three superposed lenses do not take up more space than the original dioptric apparatus, consequently the same lantern will contain them; and as to the cost of consumption it is very trifling, for only one out of the three burners is used in clear weather, the other two being added when the weather becomes foggy. As there are only about sixty foggy nights in the year, this extra consumption contributes but to a small extent to the annual cost, while during these sixty nights, the benefits of having these three lights instead of one is incalculable. We have spoken of three lights in place of one, but it will be remembered that there are four lights at Galley Head, so that the effect is still greater. The lantern at Galley Head was made specially for this quadriform light, but, as we said above, any first-order light in the kingdom may be altered to triform without the necessity of altering the lantern. Why the lighthouse authorities should not at once alter all their great sea lights to triform is astonishing, more especially when Mr. Wigham's patent covers the use of oil, as well as gas, in this superposed arrangement.

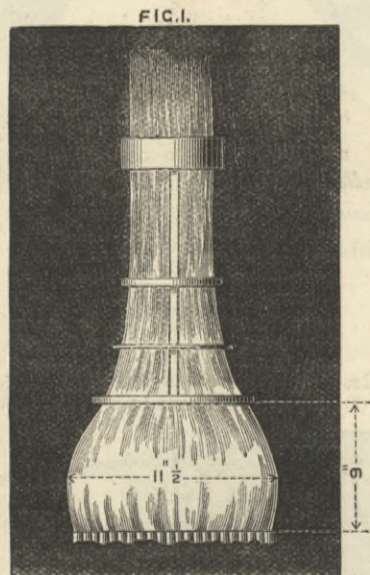
We may now proceed to describe more in detail the installation at Galley Head. Galley Head is a precipitous cliff, near Cape Clear, County Cork, and the lighthouse was constructed from the designs of Mr. John S. Sloane, C.E., Engineer to the Com-

missioners of Irish Lights. Mr. Wigham read a paper before the British Association in Dublin in 1878, in which he described his system of burning gas. "It occurred to me," says Mr. Wigham, "that if any plan could be devised by which the excess of carbon—the smoke—existing in rich gas flames could be turned to account as a means of increasing their illuminating power, a valuable desideratum would be obtained. I accordingly made many experiments with that object, and came to the conclusion that I could find no better basis for my efforts to that end than the ordinary well-known fish-tail jet. The fish-tail jet, it is hardly necessary to say, is bored diagonally on opposite sides of a small internal cone. The streams of gas issuing from the orifices impinge against each other with considerable force, and the result is the thin sheet of flame with which we are so familiar. This flame possessing a large surface to which the oxygen of the air readily gains access, is in consequence rendered brilliant and comparatively smokeless. But on closely examining the flame of a fish-tail burner it will be seen that towards the top, where the force of the stream of gas is nearly expended, it is thicker and inclined to be smoky. The larger the bore of the burner the thicker the stream of gas, and—its pressure and quality being good—the greater the amount of unconsumed carbon. When a number of fish-tails are arranged so that the upper extremities of their flames touch each other, they run up—because of the absence of air between each jet—into very smoky tails; but the light they give when thus united is increased—with hardly any increased consumption of gas—much beyond the mere multiple of their single flames, as may be seen in a moment by bringing two fish-tails together. I made this peculiarity of the fish-tail available for producing a large flame of highly illuminating power, and I



devised this form of burner—Fig. 2. I used in its construction double jets, by which a more effective combustion of gas is attained with less consumption for each jet than in the burners which I used in my earlier experiments. The principle of the double jet is not new, but I believe that the present form of its application is entirely so. It is exceedingly simple and may be explained by this ordinary gas-burner.

"It will be seen that the power of this burner is obtained not only by the peculiar arrangement of numerous fish-tail jets, but by suspending over the flame which they unitedly produce an oxidiser of talc or other material, Fig. 1, by means of which a current of air is brought in contact with its most smoky part, rendering



it not only smokeless, but exceedingly white. The combustion is also assisted by a bottom cone for equalising the current of air to the flame. The oxygen of the air is thus twice availed of, first, at the bottom of the flame, through the medium of the several fish-tail burners; and, secondly, at the top of it, where its action raises to a white heat the large quantity of solid carbon found there. I may say, in passing, that burners like this are superior to any form of argand burner in this important particular, that they require no chimney glasses, the breaking and cleansing of which often cause much inconvenience in lighthouse maintenance, to say nothing of their presenting an obstruction to the passage of the light of the flame to the dioptric apparatus. The Irish lighthouse burner is so constructed that a light-keeper can increase the power of the light by five steps, according as the state of the weather may seem to require it, from the burner used in clear weather, consisting of 28 jets to the second, third, fourth, and fifth fog powers, consisting of 48, 68, 88, and 108 jets respectively. The changes from one power to another can be made very quickly by the use of mercurial joints.

"In the quadriform apparatus at Galley Head there are thirty-two lenses arranged in four tiers, eight in each tier. Each lens is of the size of the first-order lens, and one of these powerful gas lights is placed in the focus of each tier; thus there are four burners placed over each other. As the lenses touch each

other the lights blend at the distance of a few yards and form a great pillar of light about 13ft. high by 3ft. wide, the illuminating power of which is calculated to be equal to nearly one million sperm candles. This great illuminating power, it is to be remembered, is so under the control of the light-keeper that only one-fourth of it is applied in clear weather, the other three portions being reserved for application as the weather thickens. This light is the largest in the world, and it ought to be a source of satisfaction to the Commissioners of Irish Lights to know that what they have done at Galley Head in furtherance of the benevolent work to which they gratuitously give so much anxious attention is likely to be of much benefit to the sailor. Indeed, since the completion of the Galley Head Lighthouse early in 1878 the Commissioners have received from the commanders of the great ocean steamers which pass Galley Head the most satisfactory testimonials as to its power and distinctiveness."

The method adopted for extinguishing and re-igniting the gas for producing the flashes is exceedingly ingenious, being caused by a motion produced from the clockwork on the valves, similar to the Cornish or bevelled valve, the bevel being underneath, but the surface of metal to metal is horizontal, truly turned. This bevel is formed to stop an instantaneous rush of gas; and the means of lighting is produced by a small pipe leading to one jet, which always has a small portion of light burning as required, and the moment the valve is opened, the small jet ignites the gas issuing from the sixty-eight jets, which gives a brilliant light, that must be seen to be appreciated. The other three burners are similarly worked. This lighthouse has two screens, which cut off the light east-northerly, and west by north-westerly. The flue to the chimney is inside the sector, and therefore does not obstruct the light. There are five retorts for production of gas, one only being required to produce the gas for consumption. There are two gas-holders for storage. The gas is extracted from cannel coal. In the event of anything going wrong with the gas, there is a provision made by which the usual Trinity oil lamp can be applied in less than half-a-minute, but this has never yet been required in practice. The joints to stop waste of gas are treated in a similar way to a common chandelier, with this exception, that $\frac{1}{4}$ in. of mercury answers the same purpose as the water in the chandelier.

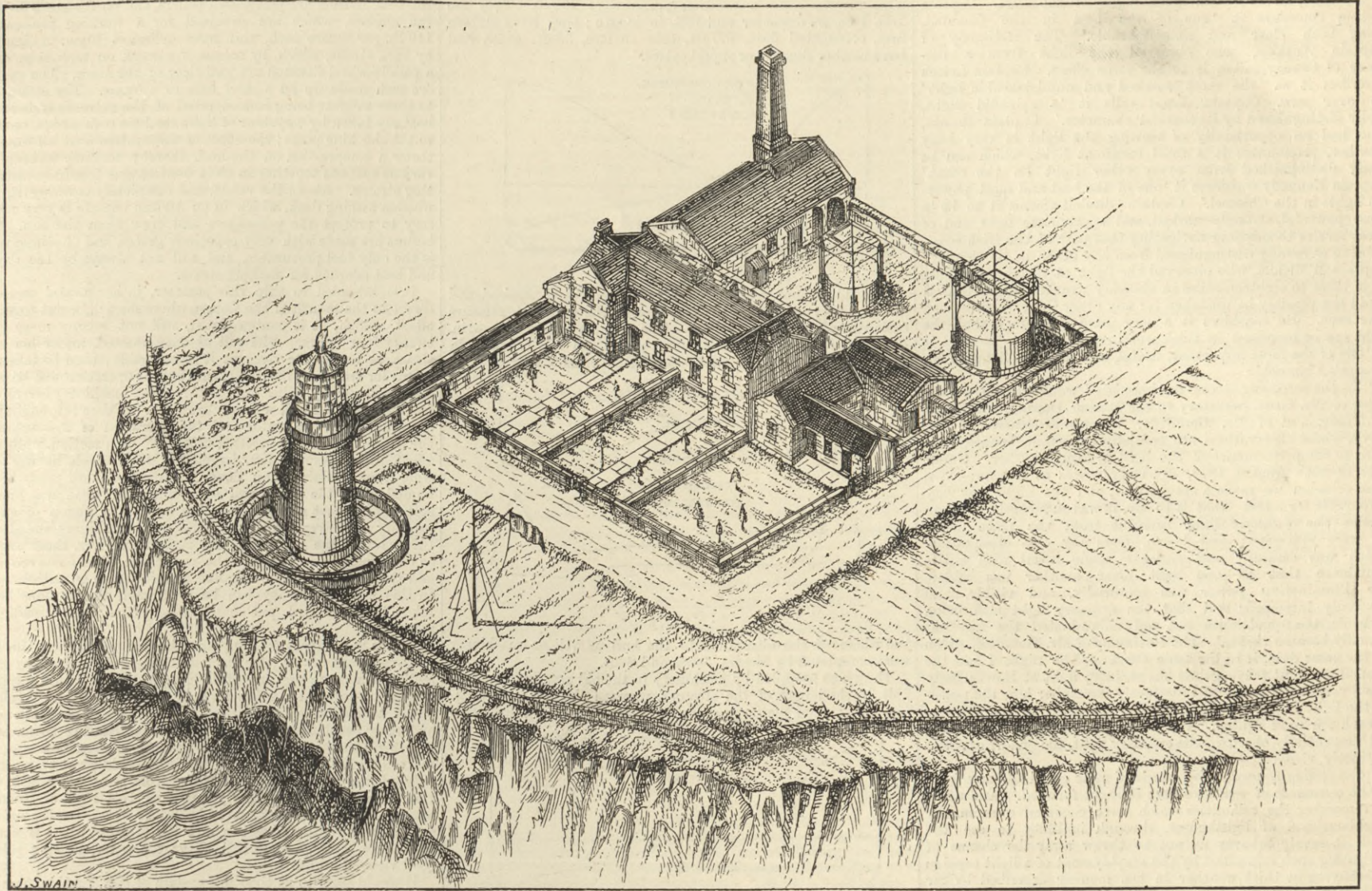
We cannot better conclude this article than with the following report sent in by Professor Tyndall, F.R.S., on the 9th May, 1879, to the Commissioners of Irish Lights:—

"Sir,—In compliance with the desire of the Commissioners of Irish Lights that I should visit and report upon the new lighthouse at Galley Head, I quitted London on the morning of 8th May, joined the Princess Alexandra at Milford in the evening, and reached Galley Head on the following day. At my request, the Commissioners were good enough to invite Captain Cole, their chief inspector; Mr. William Douglass, their engineer; Captain Galwey, commander of the Princess Alexandra; and Mr. Wigham, inventor of the system of illumination special to Galley Head, to be present during the observations. I examined in the first place the quadriform dioptric apparatus employed for the concentration, direction, and multiplication of the light. I was also present during the rehearsal of the experiments to be subsequently made afloat. The glass of the apparatus seemed singularly free from striae and other mechanical defects. Looked at normally, moreover, it appeared very transparent; but on looking at it obliquely, so as to cause the light reaching the eye to traverse considerable thicknesses of the glass, the colour was of a decided green. The influence of this colour may be of small practical moment; but, so far as it is operative, its action is to withdraw from the beam a fraction of the particular rays which are most effectual in penetrating a hazy or foggy atmosphere. The light at Galley head has been named by Mr. Wigham 'the group-flashing light,' the flashes being produced by a method perfectly novel in lighthouse illumination. The occultation of a fixed light, as first illustrated by Mr. Babbage, may be effected by causing opaque screens to close at certain intervals automatically round the light; or the occultation may be produced, as at Wicklow Head, by the lowering at given intervals of a gas flame. The arrangement at Galley Head is totally different from either of these. Here a flame of a certain width, determined by experiments made at Rockabill, and described in my report to the Board of Trade of 18th September, 1871,* sends forth a beam of such divergence as to cause it to occupy fifteen seconds in passing over the eye of the mariner. But instead of allowing it to pass continuously, as in the ordinary revolving light, a simple automatic apparatus cuts up this broad beam into a series of flashes, sufficient in number to ensure that they can never wholly escape the attention of the mariner, and in each of which a flame of great power is brought into play. A burner of sixty-eight jets was found on the occasion above referred to admirably suited to these ends. In ordinary weather a single burner of this description placed, as in a revolving light, at the common focus of eight annular lenses, is employed at Galley Head. Four tiers of such lenses are erected, one above the other, each tier possessing its own burner. Hence the name of the apparatus. As the weather thickens, these burners are ignited in succession, the power of the light, if the adjustments be correct, being sensibly doubled, trebled, and quadrupled, when the biform, triform, and quadriform arrangements are respectively brought into play. At the usual sunset hour the single 68-jet burner was ignited, and it continued burning up to 8.50 p.m., when the experiments began. We were then equidistant from Galley Head and the Old Head of Kinsale, being $12\frac{1}{2}$ miles from both. The night was a dark one, neither moon nor stars being visible; but though the upper atmosphere was filled with heavy clouds, the lower air was clear. Commencing with a power of twelve burners, we ascended through successive stages to a power of 108 burners, then fell to a power of twenty-eight burners—the automatic flashing of the light being continued throughout this entire series of experiments. The 12-jet burner yielded two bright flashes, the 28-jet burner three brilliant flashes, the 48-jet burner four strong flashes, the 68-jet burner five powerful flashes, while the 108-jet burner produced seven flashes of still greater intensity. The flashes here enumerated were, in each particular case, of sensibly the same strength; but besides these gushes of full power, each series was heralded and ended by a flash of minor intensity. With the larger burners, moreover, when the observer was placed in the angular space between two successive beams, a residual speck of light was observed winking in synchronism with the rise and fall of the flame within the apparatus. No mariner could, in my opinion, be in the least degree embarrassed by the effect here described. Indeed, this intermittent speck enabled us clearly to realise one of the principal advantages of the Galley Head Light. The speck accurately represented the aspect of a fixed light when enfeebled by distance or thickish weather. A great number of fishing boats were afloat on the night of the 9th, and had the speck been fixed, it could not have been distinguished from the lights of the boats. It would have formed one of a multitude of luminous points of approxi-

* See papers presented to Parliament by command in 1875. (C. 1151.)

GALLEY HEAD LIGHTHOUSE AND KEEPERS' DWELLINGS.

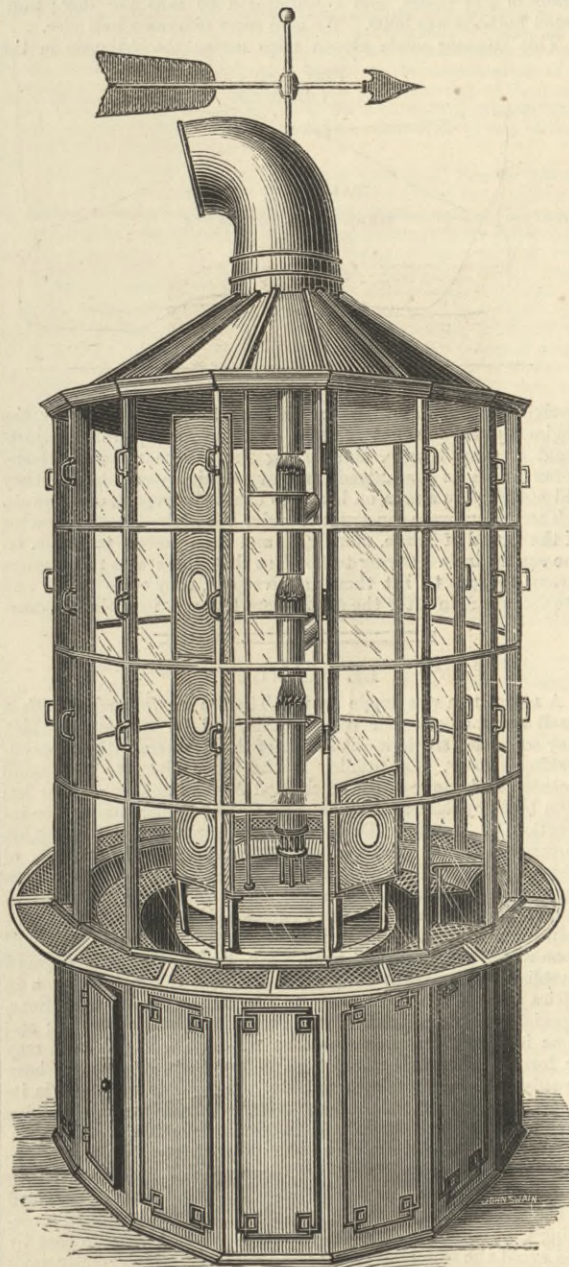
MR. JOHN S. SLOANE, M. INST. C.E., ENGINEER



mately equal intensity. But, winking as it did, it immediately differentiated itself from its fellows, a confounding of the shore light with the ship's lights being thereby rendered impossible.

"In the next series of experiments—time 9.25—the apparatus was employed as an ordinary revolving light, the flashing being suspended; and instead of the beam from a single burner, the quadriform light was exhibited. The beam from the four 28-jet burners, which was strong, brilliant, and altogether satisfactory, required six seconds to pass over the observer's eye. The beam from the four 68-jet burners, which yielded a light much superior in intensity to that of the 28-jet burners, had, as before stated, a duration of fifteen seconds. It is this widening of the beam outside of the apparatus as the diameter of the burner inside is increased, that enables the 68-jet beam to be cut up into the five powerful flashes and the two minor flashes already alluded to. The augmented intensity of the beam from the larger burner is to be ascribed to the increased number of luminous layers from which the radiation comes. Supposing the radiation of any lens to emanate from a line of burners one deep, and parallel to the lens, the effect of augmenting the length of this line would simply be to increase the width of the beam outside the apparatus. There would be no increase of intensity. But if contemporaneously with the lengthening of the row of flames other rows were placed before and behind it, it is obvious that not the width of the beam only, but its intensity also, would be increased. This is what virtually occurs when the larger burners are brought into action at Galley Head. Wishing to test still further the increase of intensity as the number of jets were augmented, arrangements had been made for stopping the apparatus, and sending the beam for a time in a fixed direction. During this interval it was proposed to run through the series of powers, from the 28 to the 108-jet burner. The tide, however, had so far drifted us from axis of the beam, that before we recovered it the two first experiments were practically defeated. The opportunity of comparing the largest and smallest burners, which was my principal object in making the arrangement, did not therefore present itself. Evidence as to the augmentation of intensity with the augmenting magnitude of the burner was, however, furnished by the preceding experiments. On this point there was no difference of opinion. Mr. William Douglass, who stood at my side, pronounced the increase of light in passing from the 28 to the 68-jet burner to be considerable. My notes describe the fixed beam of the 68-jet burner as an extremely fine and steady light; while, in relation to the distance, the beam from the 108-jet burner is described as exceedingly powerful. Recurring to the group-flashing—time, 9.55—and beginning with the single burner of 68 jets, we passed to the biform, trifirm, and quadriform in succession. The beams, as might be expected, augmented in intensity as the number of burners increased, the flash from the quadriform being very powerful. Rendering the beam again fixed, we steamed across it with the view of observing any variations in intensity which might exist at different parts of its transverse section. The observation, which was inferior in delicacy to that of the flashes, corroborated the conclusion drawn from the latter, that the body of the beam is of nearly the same intensity throughout, the fall to obscurity at its edges being rapid. Returning to the single 68-jet flashing light, we steamed out until it dipped beneath the horizon. In the cloudy air above the lighthouse every pulse of the flame was distinctly visible, after the direct beam had disappeared. I cannot but think that these atmospheric thrills will prove of great importance to the mariner, even in atmospheres thick enough to render the light itself invisible. At fifteen minutes past midnight, the 68-jet quadriform was again brought into action, we then being twenty-one miles from Galley Head. On the bridge of the steamer the atmospheric pulses only were visible; but ascending to the top of the deck-house, the light

itself came into view, its white blaze striking the eye as if the lighthouse were close at hand. On ascending from the bridge the sudden emergence of these powerful flashes out of the dark-



ness of a starless and moonless night was in the highest degree impressive. My impression at the time was that, on the whole,

I had never seen a finer light. Wishing, however, to check my own judgment by that of an independent and experienced observer, at the conclusion of the experiments I asked Mr. Douglass whether he knew of any light which, in point of power and distinctiveness combined, came up to that of Galley Head. His reply was that he knew of none. The programme of the night's experiments was carried out with accuracy and promptitude by Mr. Young, with the assistance of the light-keepers. I append the programme which summarises the night's observations:—

"*Testimonies regarding the Galley Head light.*—From a report presented to the Board of Trade on the 18th September, 1871,* I quote the following brief paragraph:—'Should it be thought desirable to give a revolving light so distinctive a character as to render it perfectly unmistakable, the "group-flashing gas light," as its inventor, Mr. Wigham, calls it, secures this end. I have not been called upon to offer any recommendation as to its adoption, and I would, therefore, merely refer to it as a light of unrivalled individuality, of great power, and, in Ireland at least, of moderate cost.' Appended to this paragraph is the following foot-note:—'It might be tried in the next new lighthouse, and thus tested without any disturbance of existing lights.' The light at Galley Head, which was started at the beginning of last year is the outcome of this suggestion; and I have now to adduce additional evidence in justification of my recommendation to the Board of Trade, that the group-flashing light should have a full and fair trial upon the coast of Ireland. During my experiments at Rockabill, in September, 1871, I was honoured by the company of Sir Leopold M'Clintock, who, in a letter addressed to Mr. Wigham, on the 18th September, 1871, thus expresses himself:—'No better means could be devised for distinguishing a light from other lights than this plan of a group of flashes. The half-minute interval between the groups is quite sufficient, and yet not greater than can easily be estimated by the observer, without having recourse to a watch to measure the time; and the periods recurring within 45 seconds, that short time is sufficient to determine which light it is; and both these are great practical advantages. I consider that the superior brilliancy of gas to oil, and its applicability both to revolving and fixed lights, is most satisfactorily established; and as I regard the proposed change solely from the seaman's point of view, I look exclusively to the relative efficiency, without any regard whatever to their comparative cost.' In September, 1874, the preliminary experimental arrangements, devised at Howth Baily to illustrate the construction and the power of the trifirm light, was inspected by Sir William Thomson. From a letter addressed to Mr. Wigham on the 12th October, 1874, I make the following extract:—'I have much pleasure in reporting upon the experiments on the Howth Baily Lighthouse arrangements, which I witnessed from Salthill on the evening of the 21st September, and from my yacht on the evening of the 22nd September. First: The great fog-power of 108-jet burners showed an immense superiority of light over the ordinary light of the lighthouse. The quick transition from the ordinary light to the high power was very remarkable, and seemed most satisfactory. Next day I was very much pleased to see, at the lighthouse itself, the simple and thoroughly trustworthy apparatus by which this transition was made. Second: The trifirm light exhibited from the lower position in the neighbourhood of the chief tower was strikingly superior even to the great fog-power of 108 burners exhibited on the chief tower; so much so that a heavy thunderstorm, which happily chanced to pass during our experiments between the Salthill Hotel and the lighthouse, completely eclipsed the light of the chief tower; while the trifirm still shone conspicuously through it.' The two weighty authorities here cited based their conclusions upon

*See papers presented to Parliament by command in 1875. (C1151)

experiments made with apparatus temporarily erected at Howth Baily and Rockabill. I have now to refer to the testimony of seamen with regard to the merits of the light permanently established at Galley Head. Before me are various testimonials from commanders on the Inman, White Star, and Cunard lines of steamers, all of which speak highly of the light. Captain Fulton considers it 'one of the best in the Channel, being both clear and unmistakable.' The testimony of Captain Watkins, who observed the light from a distance of twenty miles, is to the same effect. Captain Leitch describes it as 'the most marked and unmistakable light' he ever saw. Captain Laud calls it 'a splendid light, easily distinguished by its marked character.' Captain Brooks, who had an opportunity of viewing the light in very hazy weather, pronounces it 'a most excellent light, which can be easily distinguished from every other light on the coast.' Captain Kennedy considers it 'one of the best and most powerful lights in the Channel.' Captain Gleadell affirms it to be 'a most powerful, strongly-marked, and appropriate light, and of great service to shipping navigating that part of the Irish coast, it being so readily distinguished from any other in its vicinity.' Captain M'Mickan, who observed the light at distances varying from three to eighteen miles in showery weather, states that it could not possibly be mistaken for any other light which he had ever seen. He considers it a very great advantage that the light can be increased in thick weather, and finally describes it as 'one of the most important, useful, and brilliant lights in St. George's Channel.'

"To the foregoing strong testimonials I would venture to add those of Mr. Gray, Secretary to the Marine Department, Board of Trade, and of Mr. Hamilton, Accountant-General of the Navy, whose observations are specially important, because they refer to the performance of the light in foggy weather. Under date of 30th August, 1878, Mr. Gray writes as follows:—'On that occasion we made a special visit, and the night was very favourable for a test—that is to say, it was sufficiently thick to render the ordinary light invisible from the place where we were stationed; and I can, from my own observation, which was carefully and patiently made, assert with entire confidence that as one light after another was added, the illuminating power was materially, and visibly, and markedly increased; and that the ordinary light still being invisible, the quadriform not only illuminated the fog, but actually became visible.' The testimony of Mr. Hamilton, given on the same date, is to the same effect:—'The night I saw the quadriform light tried against the ordinary light at Howth Baily was a very foggy one, and I distinctly remember how the power of the light to penetrate the fog was increased as the burners in each tier were lighted. I remember, also, that while the fog at times entirely obscured the ordinary light, the quadriform was distinctly visible.'

"Concluding remarks.—No words of mine could add any force to the consensus of evidence here brought forward. And when we remember the calamities which have occurred even in the neighbourhood of lighthouses, through inability to see the light, it surely behoves us not to throw away the chance of mitigating such calamities by the employment of a light capable of behaving in thick weather in the manner described by Sir William Thomson, Mr. Gray, and Mr. Hamilton. I only know, indeed, of one circumstance which could legitimately interfere with the extension to other important points on the Irish coast of the system of gas illumination, and that is inordinate cost of production. Regarding this point ample data must be in existence, and the Board of Trade, which has hitherto shown a marked liberality towards Mr. Wigham, has here, I think, a right to demand the fullest and most distinct information. The necessary and unavoidable accompaniments of the use of gas ought obviously, when the expense of this illuminant is in question, to be carefully kept apart from unnecessary ones. And here I am tempted to offer a remark which may be considered to lie beyond the strict limits of the present report. The cost of the lighthouse at Galley Head and of its adjuncts must have been very considerable. The quantity of land inclosed is large, a corresponding length of wall being needed to enclose it. The buildings are erected in the most substantial fashion, a finish being given to the doors, windows, and copings which must have entailed considerable expense. I will not say that in the long run it may not prove a wise economy to have incurred this outlay. But, with the exception of the gas-house and its appurtenances, it is not an outlay necessarily connected with the mode of illumination at Galley Head. Were oil instead of gas the illuminant employed, the expense of the buildings might have been substantially the same. In conclusion, I would observe that gas lends itself with admirable freedom to any change in its mode of application which it may be thought desirable to make. The suppression, for example, of the flashing apparatus at Galley Head would convert that light into an ordinary revolving light, surpassing any other in the world. Indeed, were the power of the burner reduced to forty-eight jets instead of sixty-eight, the light, with its full strength invoked, would still transcend all other revolving lights. Even the 28-jet burner would furnish a beautiful light. But the advantage of the present mode of illumination consists partly in the intensity and partly in the duration of the 68-jet beam, whereby the flashes are rendered so numerous and so powerful as to confer upon the light the individuality universally ascribed to it. I need not dwell upon the obvious fact that, broken into flashes, the 68-jet beam involves the expenditure of little more than half the amount of gas which would be required to feed it if used as a continuous light. It may be added that the 48-jet burner, with its four flashes, or the 28-jet burner, with its three flashes, would constitute a highly distinctive light; but I should deprecate the economy which would reduce either in number or power the flashes now sent forth from Galley Head.

"William Lees, Esq., (Signed) JOHN TYNDALL,
Secretary Commissioners of Irish Lights."

THE ABYSSINIA.

LAST week we illustrated on page 10 the new steel boilers made and fitted on board the screw steamer Abyssinia by Messrs. John Jones and Sons in 1881, and the following additional particulars are of interest. The Abyssinia was built and engined by Messrs. J. and G. Thomson in 1870 for the Cunard Company, and was for many years employed by them in the regular mail service between Liverpool and New York. Her dimensions are—Length, 363ft.; beam, 42ft.; depth, 34ft. Her machinery at that time was a pair of inverted direct-acting surface-condensing engines, diameter of cylinders 72in., stroke 48in. Steam was supplied by four rectangular boilers, having twenty-four fires, 432ft. grate-bar, with 9698ft. tube surface, working at 30 lb. pressure; each boiler was 21ft. wide, 11ft. long, and 15ft. high; there was one cylindrical superheater fixed on the top of the four boilers 13ft. in diameter and 6ft. in length, fitted with tubes about 12in. diameter.

These engines required 80 tons of coal per day, and

the indicated horse-power was 2070 horses. In the year 1881 the steamer was bought by Messrs. Guion and Co. for their Atlantic trade, and Mr. John G. Hughes, their superintendent engineer, designed the new boilers and general arrangement. The new boilers, which at that time were much larger than any in use, were arranged for a working pressure of 110 lb. They are 16ft. 10in. in diameter and 16ft. in length; they have sixteen fires, corrugated flues, 6774ft. tube surface, 336ft. grate, and have neither domes nor superheaters.

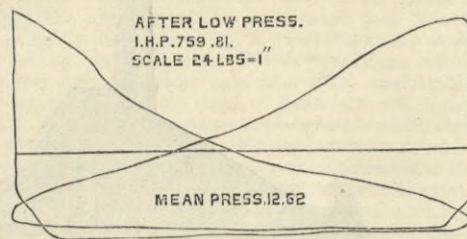


FIG. 1

The old engines were thoroughly overhauled and repaired, and the necessary alterations made to receive the new high-pressure cylinder with piston valves. The new cylinders are 31in. diameter, fitted with Jones's patent piston. A new crank shaft, propeller and propeller shaft were fitted on new bearings, and

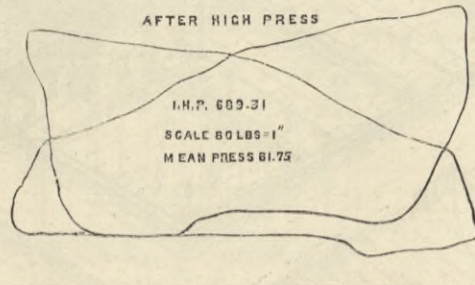


FIG. 2

the whole of the alterations to the hull as well as machinery were completed by Messrs. Jones and Sons.

The space occupied by machinery in the old arrangement was 78ft. in the length of the steamer, whereas the new only occupies 58ft.; thus the cargo space was increased by the alteration

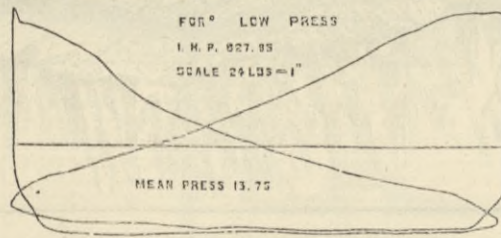


FIG. 3

634 tons measurement. The effect of the change in speed and consumption is as follows:—Greatest day's run eastward 322 knots in 23½ hours, and consumption 60 tons per day; indicated horse-power 3000. We give some diagrams half size.

This steamer made eleven trips across the Atlantic in the

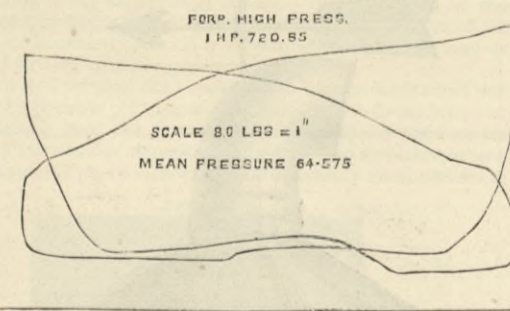


FIG. 4

twelve months following her delivery to the company by the engineers, and was not stopped an hour for repairs or adjustment on any voyage, and during the twelve months Messrs. Jones and Sons guaranteed her new machinery and boilers they did not employ a man on board to effect any repairs or renewals.

The boilers were constructed under the highest possible factor of the Board of Trade, namely, 5, and were tested to 220 lb. on the square inch. Owing to the fact that there was not a crane strong enough to lift them in Liverpool, they were tubed and the stays put in after the shells were lowered into the steamer.

LE STANLEY.

A RIVER run was made in the Thames on Saturday, with a small vessel of peculiar construction, and for a purpose which may some day single it out as one of the steamers with an epoch-making history. Le Stanley is the name given to this small steamer, in honour of the celebrated African explorer. She has been built by Messrs. Yarrow and Co., of Poplar, under the inspection of Monsieur Delcourt, chief engineer of the Belgian Government, for l'Association Internationale de Brussels, of which the King of the Belgians is the head. It is an association having for its object the opening up to commerce and civilisation of the unknown regions of Africa, said to be wholly without political aim, and what it is doing must therefore be looked upon as for the universal good. Mr. Stanley, who is engaged establishing numerous stations, is the head of the expedition in Africa; the little steamer is to assist him in his operations, especially in the district of the Congo and its tributaries; and some idea of the magnitude of an expedition of this kind may be formed when it is stated that no less than 500 natives have already been engaged to accompany the steamer and assist in its transport overland. About the middle of last year the Belgian authorities placed themselves in communication with Messrs. Yarrow and Co., with a view to build a thoroughly serviceable steamer of exceptionally shallow draught and able to steam in places where there is not water sufficient for vessels constructed in the usual way. The main point however, was to design something that could be easily transported overland, so as to pass by and avoid the numerous rapids and cataracts which render navigation impossible. With these requirements before them, Messrs. Yarrow and Co. have constructed the present steamer; it consists of six galvanised steel square-shaped pontoons 18ft. long by 8½ft. wide by 4ft. deep; these sections, each of which is

watertight and therefore floatable, are placed side by side, to these are added a bow piece and a stern piece, making together a hull 70ft. long by 18ft. beam. By means which we shall describe at more length at another time these sections can be readily united and disunited, and this can be done afloat. On the bow division are placed two boilers, and on the stern division the engines, which are designed for a working pressure of 140 lb. per square inch, and have cylinders 10½in. in diameter by 2½ft. stroke, which, by means of a crank on each side, drive a paddle-wheel situated aft well clear of the stern. The engines are each made up on a steel tube as a frame. The strain due to these weights being concentrated at the extreme ends of the boat are taken by a system of light steel tie rods above, secured to tubular king posts; the effect of this system is at all times to throw a compression on the hull, thereby tending to keep the various sections together in close contact and free from alternating strains. Above the vessel, and completely covering it, is a wooden awning deck, which in an African climate is very necessary to protect the passengers and crew from the sun. The boilers are made with very capacious grates, and of course wood is the only fuel procurable, and will not always be the driest and best adapted for making steam.

It is intended to ship this steamer, in her several sections, direct to the mouth of the Congo, where she will be put together afloat, which, it is contemplated, will not occupy more than twenty-four hours. She will at once proceed, under her own steam, as far up the river as it is navigable; then be taken to pieces for transport overland; and in this operation will be seen one great novelty in her design. After the machinery is removed from the deck the hull will only draw 6in.; it then is brought into exceedingly shallow water and the operation of disconnecting the various sections proceeded with. To each section, while still afloat, will be secured four large light steel wheels having very wide tires. This being done, the divisions are ready to be hauled out of the water and over land, and what was once a section of a boat now becomes the body of a wagon of ample capacity to convey the lighter portions of machinery and stores. On arrival at the next navigable part of the river, these wagons so constructed are run into the water, the wheels are removed and the various divisions reunited, forming again an entire vessel. In this way the journey can be continued, the steamer being taken to pieces and put together as often as circumstances require.

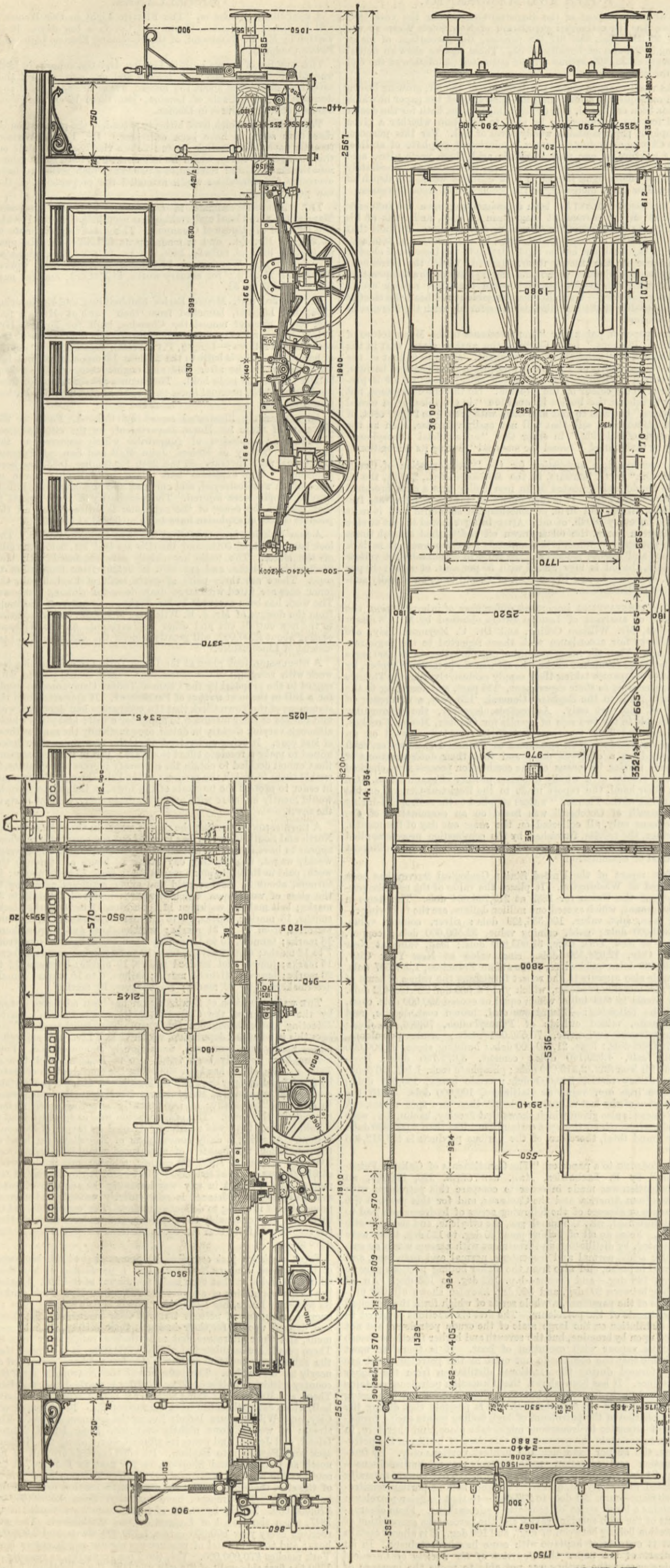
At the preliminary trial on Saturday the vessel went through numerous manœuvres; the mean draft was 14in. in working trim, and with a steam pressure of 100 lb. per square inch a speed of nine and a-half to ten miles an hour was obtained—an excellent result, taking into consideration the proportion of length to beam and other peculiarities of the craft. Great steering power is of course necessary, and the most striking performance was the marvellous facility with which the boat could pivot on a centre only a little within a point a few feet from the stern, which was very remarkable, and clearly rendered this type of steamer admirably suited for tortuous and winding rivers. On the deck is a small well-ventilated saloon, and the steering wheel is placed high up on a bridge some 12ft. above the water, giving a pilot a good view all round.

It would seem to us that this system of construction, namely, that of uniting together a number of floating sections, so as to form a vessel of moderate and useful dimensions, and of good carrying capacity, opens up a new field, as the difficulty hitherto experienced in the development of trade with Africa has been due in a great measure to practical difficulties in placing vessels of light draft on the rivers.

ROYAL AGRICULTURAL SOCIETY OF ENGLAND.

IN funds, membership, and general prosperity, the Royal Agricultural Society is gradually assuming the position which it occupied before the disastrous International Exhibition held in London under its auspices in 1879, when £13,000 were hopelessly sunk in the never-to-be-forgotten Kilburn mud, in which was also wrecked the finest collection of agricultural implements ever assembled. According to the half-yearly report of the Council lately presented to the members, after allowing for all the changes by death, withdrawal, or from other causes, there has been an increase during the past year of 394 members, bringing the total up to the respectable figure of 8352. Of these, seventy-four are life governors, a title conferred on those who, on election, subscribe the sum of £50; seventy-four are annual governors who pay £5 each year; 3115 are life members, i.e., those who have compounded for all future payments by giving £10 to the funds of the Society; 5068 are annual subscribers of £1 each; and the remaining twenty-one are honorary members. Thanks, in great measure, to the economy exercised in connection with the York meeting last July, and in other directions, the funded capital of the Society has been increased by the investment of £6000, and now stands at £25,880 4s. 1d. new Three per Cents. In addition, a sum of nearly £3000 remains in the hands of the bankers. Reverting to the York meeting, the Council pronounce the opinion that it was "one of the most successful" which the Society has held for several years, whether judged by the number and quality of exhibits or the attendance of the members and the public—an opinion which, perhaps, it would not be easy to controvert, especially when it is backed up by the definite statement that the exhibition resulted in an addition of more than £4500 to the Society's funds. "The exhibition of implements," say the noblemen and gentlemen who constitute the governing body, "was remarkable for the number of new inventions which the judges considered worthy of an award, no less than nine silver medals out of the ten at their disposal having been allotted with the sanction of the stewards. The working dairy was also more completely organised than on some recent occasions, and attracted a large share of attention." Later on in the report it is intimated that a similarly constructed dairy is to form one of the chief features of this year's show at Shrewsbury, the implement department of which, it may here be mentioned, will be open to the public on Saturday, July 12th, the live stock department opening on the following Monday. As already notified to the readers of THE ENGINEER, in addition to the usual medals offered for new inventions, the Council have offered substantial prizes for self-binding reapers and for separate sheaf-binders, the binding material to be other than wire. They also offer a prize for an efficient machine for cutting and elevating materials to be preserved in silos. Sir John Thorold has been elected as one of the Stewards of Implements at the country meetings, and Mr. Jacob Wilson has been unanimously re-elected Steward of General Arrangements for a term of three years. The authorities of Preston and Chester are each anxious to secure the holding of the exhibition of 1885 in their vicinity, and so keenly does each town anticipate a favourable decision that local funds have already been raised to the extent of over £1000 in one case, and nearly that sum in the other. A committee has been appointed to report on these invitations.

THIRD-CLASS CARRIAGES, ST. GOTHARD RAILWAY.

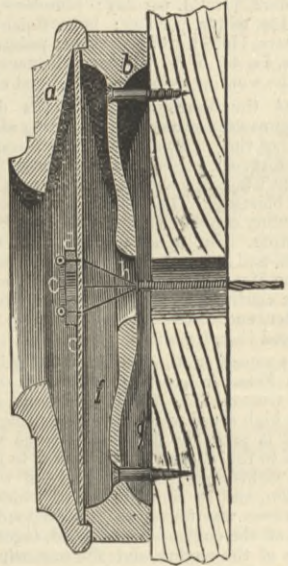


ABOVE we publish engravings of the type of third-class carriages at present in use on the St. Gothard Railway, between Lucerne and Milan. Of these carriages the company possesses sixty-one, giving a total of 3664 places. It will be seen that they are very much on the American type, being carried at each end on a four-wheeled bogie truck, swivelling round a central pin. The seats are arranged back to back in groups of four, on either side of a central gangway. The carriage is provided with brakes at each end, worked by screw gear from a platform outside the carriage proper. From this platform it is, of course, easy to step to the next carriage, and so travel along the whole length of the train. The chief particulars with regard to the carriage are as given below. For these we are indebted to Herr Stocker, locomotive and carriage superintendent of the line:

No. of seats	72
Tare weight of carriage	13,400 kg.
Wheel base, bogie to bogie (inner axles)	6.2m.
Wheel base, wheels of each bogie	1.8m.
Length of underframe, including buffers	13.764m.
Distance between inner edges of side bars	2.52m.
Height from rail surface, centre to centre	1.75m.
Length of buffers	1.05m.
Outside length of carriage body	0.585m.
Inside	12.144m.
Outside width	12.000m.
Inside width	2.940m.
Height of floor above rails	2.800m.
Height in middle of carriage	1.205m.
Height inside of roof above rail	3.370m.
Width of roof	3.050m.

MECHANICAL TELEPHONE.

THE mechanical or acoustic telephone herewith illustrated will transmit and receive speech with great clearness and accuracy of tone. The mouthpiece *a* has a central aperture for the passage of sound waves to the diaphragm *c*, whose edges are secured within a rabbet of the mouthpiece. The diaphragm is about 7in. in diameter and is made of spruce wood, which possesses great sonorosity combined with strength sufficient to sustain



the tension of the line wire. The mouthpiece and diaphragm are held to the wall on a bed-piece *b* by the tension of the line wire. The bed-piece is recessed at both sides *f, f'*, and centrally apertured for the passage of threads connecting the line wire to the diaphragm. The front recess *f* affords a space between the diaphragm and the centre of the bed-piece for free action of the diaphragm, promoting clearness of enunciation when the instrument is used as a receiver, and the rear recess *f'* secures a small marginal sup-

port for the transmitter, thereby avoiding a large contact with the wall and preventing excessive vibration.

To avoid indistinct articulation and the ringing sounds common to acoustic telephones, the line wire is connected to the diaphragm by silk cords, which are twisted about the end of the wire to obtain a firm connection therewith, and which diverge into three or more strands that are secured, to a metal ring *e*, between which and the diaphragm a rubber or leather ring *d* is interposed. The line wire is made of strands twisted together and coated with varnish, to bind them and prevent them rubbing upon one another. This construction of the line wire makes it strong and protects it from the weather, and, combined with the silk cord connections, aids largely in clear transmission over line wires of considerable length. The invention has been patented by Mr. A. G. Miller, of Leyden, New York.—*Scientific American*.

THE ELECTRIC LIGHT IN AUSTRALIA.—Although Sydney, the metropolis of New South Wales, is brilliantly illuminated at night with thousands of gas lamps, the electric light is rapidly coming into favour, being used at the Houses of Parliament, the Theatre Royal, and other places. The Circular Quay, at which the magnificent vessels of the Orient, Peninsula and Oriental, and other companies are berthed, is also illuminated by means of electricity, the effect being almost fairy-like, especially when viewed from the waters of the harbour. The principal lighthouse at the entrance to Port Jackson is also illuminated by electricity, the light being one of the largest in the world. It is visible very many miles at sea, although during clear weather the intensity of the light is reduced one-half.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR.

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

WATER WHEELS.

SIR,—When we consider the time that has been spent and thought expended on the steam engine, it does not surprise us to see the clumsy, wasteful, and necessarily expensive engine used by our fathers developed into the effective and economical motor of the present day.

In some of our colonies, where coal is £3 and more per ton and land cheap, the tidal energy might be utilised far more economically than coal. This might be done by taking advantage of an estuary, or making a dam of sufficient size to hold the requisite water, to be filled by the rising tide, and another small one with sluice gates, for the wheel tail-water to discharge into whilst the tide was rising; the gates to open automatically when the tide level was below the wheel-race.

Looking at wheels themselves, we find them to-day much the same as they were fifty years ago, and with the exception of turbines, come under the heads of "overshot," "breast," and "undershot." These terms have anything but a definite meaning, two manufacturers using various terms for the same wheel.

From the above it will be readily seen that the kind of wheel must depend entirely upon the fall of water obtainable, and the size depend on the velocity and quantity of water; quantity of water varying with the velocity for a given section of stream. This section can be obtained by the ordinary method of finding the area of a superficies, by means of perpendiculars, found in this case with the plumb line.

about one-eighth its diameter from the top, thus saving the fall on the horizontal part of the wheel, which would do little else than increase its friction. Thus the diameters of all overshot wheels at present constructed should be about one-eighth greater than the attainable fall; thus a 24ft. fall would require a 27ft. wheel.

Where the fall is not sufficient for an overshot wheel it may be found to be enough for a breast wheel, which follows in efficiency. With these wheels, as they were constructed fifty years ago, it was found advantageous to deliver the water as high up as possible, for though they lost the impulse gained from the impetus of the stream lower down, yet the height through which the water acted is decreased, and the straining force on the wheel much more severe.

Undershot wheels are used where the fall of water is too small for any of the more effective kind. The advantage of using a large undershot wheel is derived from the floats entering the water more vertically than they otherwise would; indeed, some makers adopt the plan used on steamers, whose paddles, by means of an eccentric motion, enter and leave the water vertically.

The results of these experiments help one to understand the otherwise perplexing, various performances of wheels, under apparently similar conditions. W. P. ABELL, Wh. Schr. Derby, December 31st.

ARITHMETICAL CHEMISTRY.

SIR,—I have but just seen the review of my "Arithmetical Chemistry," which appeared in your issue of the 7th inst. I am obliged to your reviewer for calling my attention to points that escaped my notice when looking over the proofs.

[Mr. Woodward cuts the sentence on page 23 short. Let him quote it in full and he will give the title of a journal which did not exist, as given in his book, at the date he mentions. We regret the very obvious omission "of gases" before the words "from coals." We saw page 93, and maintain that "Roscoe" is misleading. The work Mr. Woodward refers to is also written by Schorlemmer, and the short title "Roscoe" for a book should be applied to one of two books written by Roscoe. As regards the question by the Science and Art Department, Mr. Woodward says in a footnote, "There seems to be a mistake in the numbers given," but he does not give the correction.—ED. E.]

THE NEW PATENT ACT, 1883.

SIR,—The pointing out of difficulties that beset inventors under the new Act in the columns of the last and former issues of THE ENGINEER, is of the greatest benefit to inventors, for it dispels many delusions about the benefits of the new Patent Act, 1883.

Now if that is so it would be the grossest injustice to home inventors that a foreign inventor should be able to do so; and if it should happen that both have the same invention—which is probable, so many inventions having been kept back—the home inventor would have to shelve his invention, whereas the foreign inventor would have the full benefit of his invention—the home inventor beaten not by any of his faults but the laws of his country.

requires the signature of the inventor and declaration as to true, &c., before a consul, &c., and not of the agent but the inventor, and if the signature is affixed on the 1st of January—the official notice requires it—no agent could file an application on the 1st of January.

2, Roseworth-terrace, Gosforth, Newcastle-on-Tyne, January 2nd.

C. L. H. LAMMERS.

SIR,—Will you permit us through your columns to call the attention of those who, like ourselves, are owners of current patents granted under the old law, to the extraordinary action of the Patent-office authorities in refusing to permit payment of the renewal fees by the annual sums stated in the second schedule to the new Patent Act, 1883.

Dublin, January 2nd.

SIR,—Under the old law declarations were not required to be stamped with the 2s. 6d. duty. According to notice from the Patent-office all declarations made before a commissioner to administer oaths, &c., must be stamped with the 2s. 6d. stamp, and thus the applicant is taxed and put to the trouble of getting the declaration stamped.

Manchester, January 7th. PATENT AGENT.

RIVET MAKING MACHINERY.

SIR,—Replying to your correspondent, "F. Y.," in last week's ENGINEER, there were two rivet making machines just as he describes working at Palmer's Ironworks, Jarrow-on-Tyne, ten years ago.

Brass and Iron Works, Short-street, Lambeth, Jan. 3rd.

INTERNATIONAL FISHERIES EXHIBITION.—The Commissioners appointed by her Majesty's Government have, upon the recommendation of the International Juries, awarded a "diploma of honour" to Mr. Charles Lever, of Culheth Hall, Bowdon, Cheshire, for special services rendered by him in connection with the lighting of the council chamber, lecture theatre, picture gallery, and dining rooms of the Fisheries Exhibition at South Kensington, by means of his Lever arc lamp.

COAL GAS—WATER GAS—ELECTRIC LIGHT.—The illuminating folks have grown very quarrelsome; and at present there is a triangular fight going on with the water gas, the coal gas, and the electric light advocates as mutual antagonists.

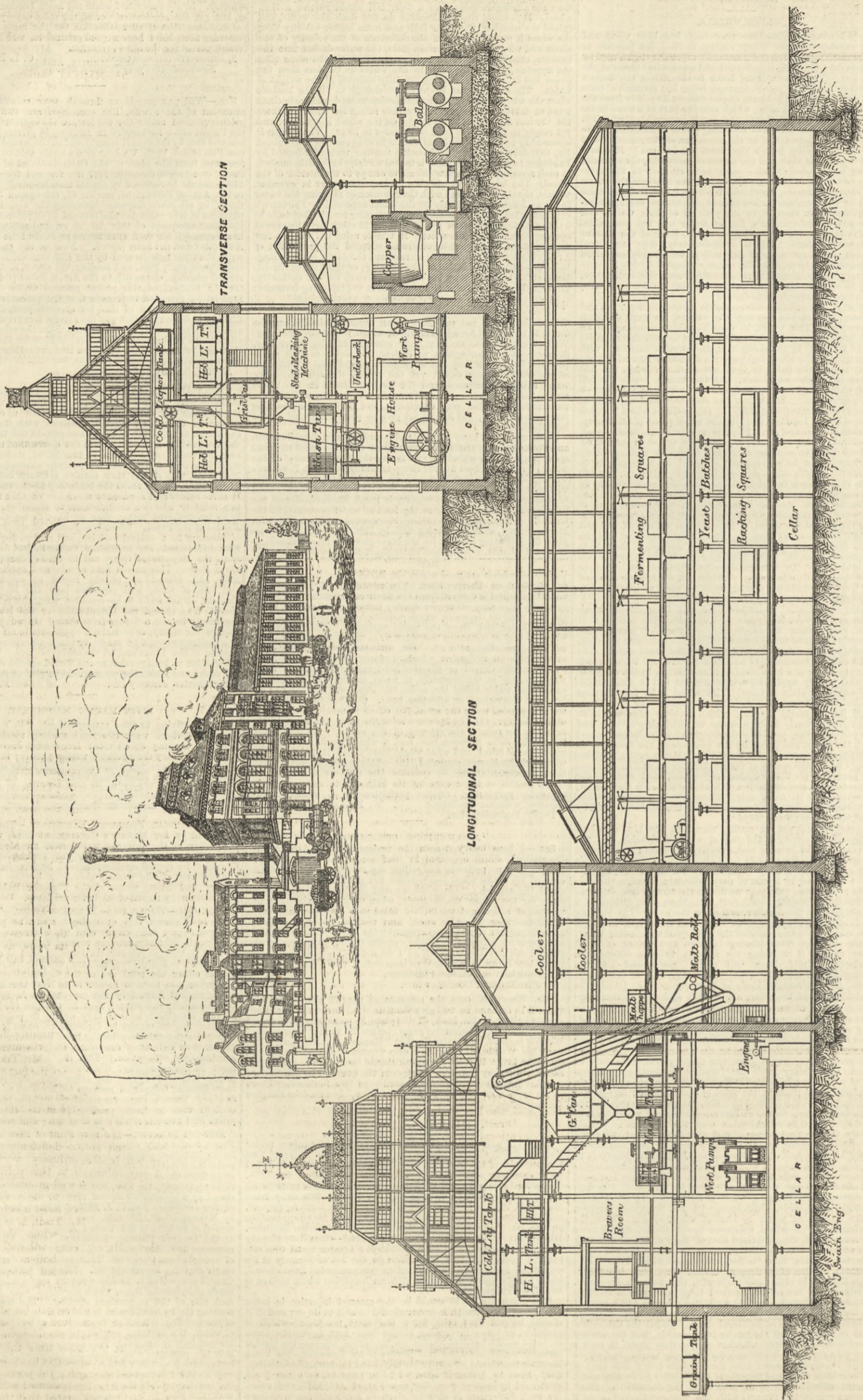
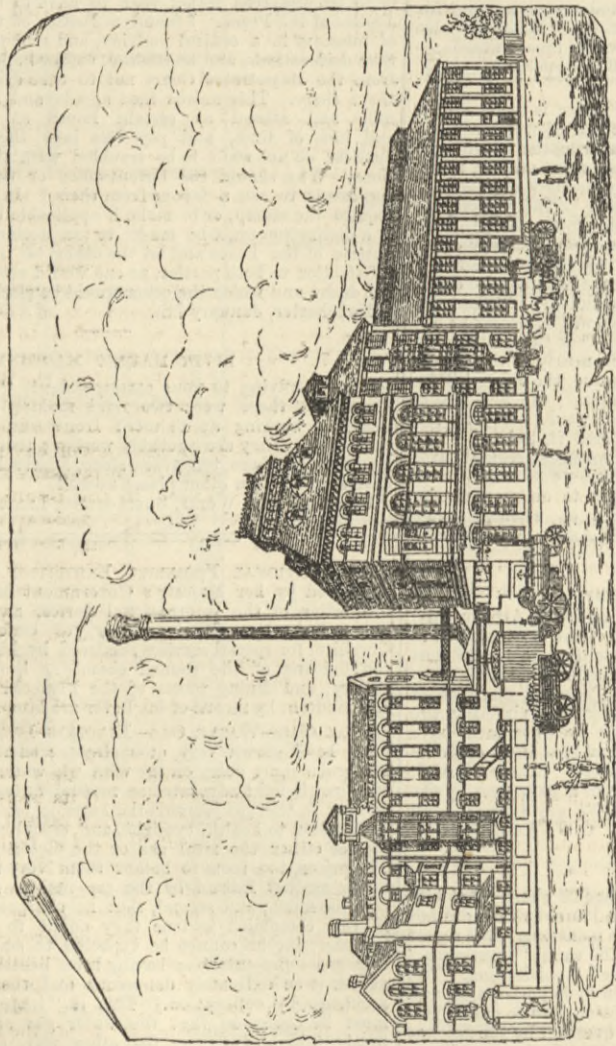
PRINCE'S THEATRE.—The new Prince's Theatre, for Mr. Edgar Bruce, now nearly completed in Coventry-street, Haymarket, in its construction presents several important features that tend to make the structure fireproof. The proscenium wall, separating the stage from the auditorium, rises from the basement and is carried right up through the roof, and the proscenium opening is entirely closed by a hydraulic fireproof curtain, which, under the direction of the architect, Mr. C. J. Phipps, F.S.A., has been constructed by Messrs. Clark, Bunnett, and Co.

* "Water-wheels," by J. Inrray.

160-QUARTERS BREWERY AT TADCASTER, NEAR YORK.

MESSRS. SCAMMELL AND COLYER, WESTMINSTER, ENGINEERS.

(For description see page 32.)



J. Swain, Eng.

FOREIGN AGENTS FOR THE SALE OF THE ENGINEER.

PARIS.—Madame BOYVEAU, Rue de la Banque.
BERLIN.—ASHER and Co., 5, Unter den Linden.
VIENNA.—MESSRS. GEROLD and Co., Booksellers.
LEIPZIG.—A. TWITMEYER, Bookseller.
NEW YORK.—THE WILLIAMS and ROGERS NEWS COMPANY, 31, Beekman-street.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

** In order to avoid trouble and confusion, we find it necessary to inform correspondents that letters of inquiry addressed to the public, and intended for insertion in this column, must, in all cases, be accompanied by a large envelope legibly directed by the writer to himself, and bearing a 1d. postage stamp, in order that answers received by us may be forwarded to their destination. No notice will be taken of communications which do not comply with these instructions.

J. A. (Bath).—Messrs. Warner and Sons, Cripplegate, London, can supply you with the wind wheels you want.
J. S.—We cannot call to mind any particular article such as you speak of, but the subject has been frequently discussed in our pages. Perhaps you can give us some more precise information as to the date and title. That which you supply is too vague.
J. P. S.—Your question related to a square belt, the frictional grip of which in a V-grooved pulley would be very great and very different to that of a flat belt on a flat pulley, and to use which of the size you gave would require large wheels. Now you ask respecting flat belts in which greater allowance must be made for the frictional hold of the belt on the turned pulley. The formula you quote has been constructed with this view. For further information consult Uvencin's "Elements of Machine Design," or "Rules, Tables, and Data," by D. K. Clark, which is probably in a library in Barrow, or in possession of some of its engineers.

CANADA AS A FIELD FOR EMIGRATION.

(To the Editor of The Engineer.)
SIR,—Would any of the numerous readers of THE ENGINEER furnish me with the following particulars? Which part of Canada would give me the best opening for one who is used to the routine of office work as a civil engineer, can also level and survey? Would it be best to try for a place in a town, or as a railway engineer? Would also be glad to be put in communication with anyone going out in a similar way.

SUBSCRIPTIONS.

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

ADVERTISEMENTS.

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

MEETINGS NEXT WEEK.

THE INSTITUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS.—Tuesday, Jan. 15th, at 8 p.m.: Ordinary meeting. Adjourned discussion upon the paper by Mr. W. H. Preece, F.R.S., M. Inst. C.E., "On Electrical Conductors." Thursday, Jan. 17th, at 8 p.m.: Special meeting. Third lecture "On Heat in its Mechanical Applications," by Mr. E. A. Cowper, M. Inst. C.E. Friday, Jan. 18th, at 7 p.m.: Students' meeting. "Elements of the Propagation of Disease," by Mr. T. S. Bright, Stud. Inst. C.E.
ROYAL METEOROLOGICAL SOCIETY.—Wednesday, Jan. 16th, at 7 p.m.: Annual general meeting of the Society, when the report of the Council will be read, the election of officers and Council for the ensuing year will take place, and the President will deliver his address.
CHEMICAL SOCIETY.—Thursday, Jan. 17th, at 8 p.m.: "On Camphoric Peroxide and Camphorate of Barium," by Mr. T. C. Kingzett. "On the Decomposition of Silver Fulminate by Hydrochloric Acid," Supplementary note "On Liebig's Production of Fulminating Silver without the Use of Nitric Acid," by Mr. Edward Divers, M.D., and Mr. Mechtitada Kawakita, M.E. "On Hyponitrites," by Mr. Edward Divers, M.D., and Mr. Tamemasa Haga.
THE PARKES MUSEUM.—Thursday, Jan. 17th, at 8 p.m.: Lecture by Mr. Pridgin Teale, of Leeds, "On Economy of Coal in Private Houses." The chair will be taken by Prof. G. M. Humphry, M.D., F.R.S.

THE ENGINEER.

JANUARY 11, 1884.

PUBLIC LANDS AND PUBLIC WORKS IN NEW SOUTH WALES.

We have more than once called attention to the manner in which engineering contracts are conducted in the colonies, and we shall never hesitate to point out, when we deem it necessary, abuses which affect our countrymen abroad. In New South Wales just now there seems to be

a restless and aggressive spirit which is showing itself in several ways to the detriment of the community. The management of affairs does not appear to be in good hands, or, if there be able managers, they are controlled and hindered by political influences of a mischievous kind. Patronage is not well bestowed, for it is to a large extent in the hands of those who use it to their own advantage; the number of public servants under such circumstances tends to increase, and is already out of all proportion to the population. It is not our present intention to discuss the influences by which the power of mismanagement has been gained, although we may on another occasion investigate the economical fallacies by which the less intelligent majority in the colony is at present beguiled. Where manhood suffrage rules the State, it is a favourite demagogic art to promise material advantages, high wages, and the like, to the electors as the results of a certain policy, while private gain and personal aggrandisement are the real ends in view. There are no fixed lines in which operations of this sort are carried on. In America, which is often held up as an example to be avoided, the most notorious cases have been in the municipalities, where the taxes have found their way with but little circumlocution into the pockets of the party leaders. In New South Wales at present misappropriation of public lands and the diversion of railways to benefit private persons appear to be the methods adopted; and they are worse than the simple abstraction of public money just referred to, because the latter is measurable, and is limited to the amount stolen, while the future life of the colony is bound up in its land, which has in many cases an enormous potential value; and a railway wrongly laid out and constructed is a permanent and almost irremediable injury. The land laws of the colony offer, unfortunately, great facilities for malpractice; and when under such adventitious circumstances, members of Parliament become, either themselves or by their relatives, land agents, while permanent officials appointed to safeguard the public interests become land speculators, the result is not doubtful. Of the millions of acres which a few years ago were still available, almost all the good plots are appropriated, and are in the hands of a very small number of people. The jobbery to which we have referred has taken place more or less in all the Australian colonies, and bodes ill for the future public peace of the inhabitants when the facts are realised. But it is not of agricultural land we would speak here, but of what more immediately interests our readers, the vast mineral territory, the coal and iron fields which are to make of New South Wales the future workshop of the Pacific. All the best of these lands is alienated at prices and on terms ridiculously inadequate and disastrous to the well-being of the State. But misappropriation of the land is only the beginning of the evil. Having acquired the land, it then becomes necessary so to lay out the railways as to favour these private estates; and the scandal becomes glaring when for this purpose lines which have been projected by capable engineers in a sensible manner, namely, to serve best the public traffic and to allow of easy construction, are diverted to routes of an exactly opposite character affording the minimum of convenience, costly to construct, and expensive to work. We quote the following from a recent number of the Sydney Mail:—"What public but an American ring-cursed public, or an apathetic Australian public, would permit a number of its representatives to become the owners at a peppercorn value of vast tracts of its richest coal-lands—lands worth in themselves to any company a hundred times, aye, a thousand times, the price paid to a supine public for them, and then, forsooth, also allow these men in their representative capacity to complete their already most excellent bargains by delusory railway projects having for their real aim the development, simply and mainly, of those very lands and of their owners' interests." Sydney and her Parliament are in these days of quick communication too near us to allow these scandals to remain unnoticed; and we are glad to see that public attention has already been called to them on the spot, and that some of the most flagrant cases have been arrested.

Much of the evil arises from the anomalous position of the technical staff in the colony. The railways are under Government control, and engineers as able and trustworthy as any in England are in the public service. There is an engineer-in-chief for railways with the considerable salary of £1800 per annum, under whom all trial surveys are made and all new lines constructed. It would be thought reasonable that, having such an engineer, he would have the authority of his office, and that, in the usual way, there would be from the lowest subordinate upwards a chain of responsibility devolving finally upon him. But there is another official, the Commissioner of Railways, with a salary of £1200 per annum, who controls the "existing lines," and who has under him an engineer at £1000 per annum. Directly a new line is finished, it is turned over to this gentleman, who at once proceeds to criticise and alter the work just passed by the engineer-in-chief. And as at present there is a feud between the two departments, the proceedings are as might be expected under such a system of an aggravating kind, and rather costly to the public. For instance, bridges and roofs which have been made in England, inspected and passed here by engineers of the highest eminence, duly accepted by the engineer-in-chief and paid for by the colony, are reported against by the minor official, and pronounced unsafe. Unfortunately, the desire of the protectionist party to manufacture everything in the colony has found expression not in effective legislation to this end, which would be perfectly legitimate, though perhaps economically unwise, but in a wretched jealousy of everything done in this country for the public service of the colony; and this feeling fits in well with the feud between the departments just referred to. To criticise adversely what has been imported seems just now to be popular and praiseworthy. So accordingly the engineer of existing lines, aided by subordinates who have for various reasons left the department of the engineer-in-chief, find it a congenial task to criticise and condemn what has been passed and accepted by the responsible authorities in the colony as well as in England.

Surely the better opinion in Australia will reject a policy so mean and ignoble. The public always suffers in such a case, as is evidenced by the wretched condition into which railway affairs have been allowed to fall in Victoria. There the evils arising from divided authority and corrupt management have become unendurable, and public resentment has at last found expression. Mr. Speight, one of the best railway men in this country, and till recently assistant general manager of the Midland Railway, has just left England to take up the position of Chief Commissioner of Railways—not, we hope, to occupy the anomalous position of the similar office in Sydney, but presumably, with full authority to put matters right. We shall watch his progress with much interest, and appreciate fully any success he may achieve amidst the political strife and jobbery with which he will have to struggle. Some such heroic remedy seems wanting in the colony of New South Wales. We wish not to be misunderstood. The day is past when the mother country would attempt or desire to dictate to the colonies, whose contentment, if not always their prosperity, is bound up in the self-government which has been so lavishly granted there. But the colonies are not yet independent of home opinion, for the strong reason that they seek development by means of British capital; and good credit is the very life-blood of the borrower. Even as we write new loans are being negotiated in London, and investors will be the less inclined to accept low interest if they think their money is to be misapplied. The land which would have afforded so rich and increasing a revenue is already alienated, and if the railways are also to be ill-arranged and made unremunerative, the income out of which the fundholders are to be paid will be still further diminished. We write in the public interest, and also in that of engineers, who, as members of an honourable profession, must neither be made the instruments of jobbery, nor subjected to insult if they do their duty.

BOARD OF TRADE RULES FOR THE STRENGTH OF MARINE BOILERS.

It will be remembered that at the last session of the Institution of Naval Architects a paper was read by Mr. Milton, one of the members, on "The Influence of the Board of Trade Rules for Boilers upon the Commercial Marine." In this paper it was stated that the Board of Trade Rules for Marine Boilers as then enforced, not only were not based upon sound principles, but that they were exceedingly oppressive in their action, compelling marine boilers in passenger steamers to be worked at pressures much lower than experience had proved to be abundantly safe, and thus preventing steamship owners from taking advantage of the greater economy of which higher pressures would admit; and it was further stated that the rules actually prohibited further improvements in marine engineering because the thickness of boiler plates they demanded for high pressures were altogether too great to admit of their being properly worked. It was stated in the paper that hundreds of vessels not engaged in trades requiring them to conform to the Board of Trade Rules, have been running safely for years with boilers worked at pressures far beyond those which the Board of Trade Rules would permit. The President of the Institution took the matter up very strongly, and the Council have been in correspondence with the Board with a view of having the Rules modified. One of the results of the pressure thus brought to bear upon the Board is seen in the issuing of a remarkable document of fifty-seven pages, foolscap size, containing the observations of Mr. T. W. Traill, the head of the Consultative Branch of the Marine Department of the Board of Trade, upon the Board of Trade Rules and Lloyd's Rules for boilers, and also upon the paper read by Mr. Milton. This document bears date the 27th June, 1883; but it appears from the printer's marks at the foot of the first page that it was not printed until November. Apparently the Board required the long interval between these dates in order to make up their minds as to the advisability of allowing the document to see the light of day; and after careful perusal of its contents, we think that they were very ill-advised not to have indefinitely delayed its issue, as its dissemination amongst practical engineers cannot fail to lower whatever prestige the Board's Rules for boilers have up to the present enjoyed. It appears to us that the gravest charge against the Board's Rules in Mr. Milton's paper is that the Rules insist upon a less pressure being carried in all cases than could safely be allowed, as proved by the fact that hundreds of vessels have been running for years with boilers worked at much higher pressures than would be allowed by the Board of Trade. Mr. Traill does not in this document attempt to controvert the fact that the boilers of these vessels carry high pressures, nor does he state that the result has been disastrous in any single case. As a matter of fact, boiler explosions and serious boiler accidents have been very rare at sea; and when they have occurred they have been due to want of care in the management of the boiler, and not to deficiency of strength of structure in relation to the ordinary working pressure. The omission of any reference to this point leads to the conclusion that the charge was well-grounded, and that the Rules as they now exist require to be very considerably modified. This is further shown most conclusively in the document itself. In Part I. Mr. Traill is at great pains to show that previously to 1872, when the Board first insisted upon their Rules being adhered to, the practice of the makers of marine boilers was to assume that the strength of double rivetted joints was equal to seven-tenths of that of the solid plates, however the joints were proportioned, while in some cases they actually possessed only three-fifths of the strength for which they were credited. The Board of Trade Rules, by pointing out the weakness of such joints, no doubt made engineers make their boilers stronger, but at the same time the Board did not allow them to be worked at pressures increased proportionately to their increased strength; yet presumably the original comparatively weak boilers possessed sufficient strength for their purpose, for it is not stated that they in any case proved themselves to be weak by bursting. It follows then that in these cases the Board's Rules, by the showing of

their chief surveyor, required the improved boilers to be worked at pressures of only three-fifths of those for which they would have been safe. Since 1872, the stringency of the Rules has been slightly relaxed, but not nearly to so great an extent as indicated by the above figures.

The same fact is shown also in this document in the reference to the boilers of the s.s. Ban Righ. The boiler in question had worked satisfactorily for six years at a pressure of 60 lb. per square inch, and was then condemned by the Board of Trade as being unfit to carry that pressure any longer. It was burst by hydraulic pressure after it had been taken out of the vessel, and the experiment showed that its strength was then as great as it was when the boiler was new, for it tore through a rivetted seam which had not suffered at all by corrosion during the six years' work. Its six years of work showed that this boiler with an ultimate strength of about four times the working pressure was perfectly safe; and the experiment proved also that the Board's action in this matter put the owners of this vessel to much unnecessary expense by compelling them to renew the boilers, which not only were perfectly safe, but which were as strong when condemned as they were when they were originally passed by the Board's officials.

Although in this document the main point at issue has been lost sight of, yet the criticisms upon some of the details of the Board's Rules have been replied to, and comparisons have been made between these Rules and those of Lloyd's Register, and some curious remarks concerning the latter are made. It appears to us that the Board of Trade and Lloyd's, in framing rules for boilers, should have very different objects in view. The Board of Trade is a Government Department entrusted with certain functions for the purpose of seeing that due provision is made for safety of the vessels and their equipment. Their surveyors have, so far as the boilers are concerned, only to declare that they are safe for a certain working pressure, and that the requirements of a certain Act of Parliament in regard to the safety valves are carried out. The Board's Rules for boilers should, therefore, be such as would permit of the greatest load consistent with safety being carried by the boilers, for the period for which they are passed, this period being never more than twelve months; and Government officials are not called upon to take notice of points in the construction of the boilers, not at all affecting their strength or efficiency for such a limited time, but which might perhaps, rightly or wrongly, be considered to have some influence upon their ultimate durability—say, for instance, as to whether they should remain serviceable for eight or for twelve years. Lloyd's surveyors, on the other hand, not only have to certify that the vessels they class, together with the machinery, are in safe and efficient condition, but they class the vessels for much longer periods than twelve months; so that the question of ultimate durability is one which really concerns them. Further, although Lloyd's at present only give one class to machinery, merely certifying to its safety and efficiency, it would at any time be open to them to classify machinery in a similar way to that in which they class the hulls of vessels, taking cognisance of many other points than mere safety, such, for instance, as design and proportion influencing ultimate durability, economy of coal consumption, and accessibility of parts—all very important points from a shipowner's point of view, but points upon which a Government Department cannot possibly have any excuse to meddle. The Board of Trade Rules for boilers, however, do contain very many instructions as to different pressures which are to be allowed upon boilers, according to the particular methods of constructing the circumferential seams of the shell. Lloyd's Rules make no difference in the pressure allowed to be carried by the boilers on account of these seams, as their influence upon the strength and safety of the boilers is *nil*. In the criticism on this point of Lloyd's Rule, Mr. Traill says: "The chief cause of the circumferential seams being entirely ignored in this rule, is that practically they are not subjected to a stress of any importance due to the steam pressure, but the utility of that knowledge is *nil* when we know from experience that cylindrical shells are frequently severely strained, and that long shells have cracked circumferentially owing to one or more portions being either hotter or colder than the adjacent parts. So much is this the case, that there are very few marine boilers not fitted with apparatus for promoting uniform temperature that do not leak at the bottom, and it is a fact that quite as many cylindrical boilers have cracked circumferentially as have fractured longitudinally. These circumferential strainings and crackings are not very dangerous, and do not cause explosions, but they involve detention, as well as considerable annoyance and expense to the shipowner in the form of repairs." We have here Mr. Traill's own statement that even fracture of a circumferential seam would not result in an explosion, and would not be very dangerous. Then, we ask, why do the Board Rules attach so much importance to these seams? and since "they are not subjected to a stress of any importance due to the steam pressure," why is the steam pressure made to depend so largely upon the way in which these seams are made? If any legislation is required to prevent these "circumferential strainings and crackings," it should take the form of a measure to prevent "one or more portions being either hotter or colder than the adjacent parts." Further comment on this point would be superfluous.

The explanation given in the document for the elaborate series of coefficients to be used in determining the pressure to be allowed upon furnaces, according as the holes in the longitudinal seams are drilled or punched, and as the seams themselves are lapped or butted, and single or double rivetted, is one which is worth repeating here. "The object in allowing a higher pressure for drilled furnaces than for those punched was to encourage manufacturers to do that which would check leakage, and by that means not only prolong the life of the boiler, but reduce the working expenses and the risks incurred. Furnace tubes are generally made of high-class plates, which, by reason of their ductility, are better suited to resist the unequal expansion and contraction due to the unequal temperature of the various parts of the tubes; but when holes are punched in them, such as the holes in the longitudinal seams, they harden

the plate in their vicinity, or at least destroy its ductility and produce a strip of hard or unyielding plate from one end of the tube to the other, which in time cracks, usually from the holes to the caulking edge, and causes leakage, corrosion, and repairs which are troublesome and costly."

In the first place, we would remark that cracks in the seams of furnaces are by no means uncommon, but they are always produced by the action of the fire upon the laps of the plate in the circumferential seams, and as the longitudinal seams of the furnaces in marine boilers are invariably placed beneath the line of fire-bars, such cracks do not occur in them. We would like to know also if "a strip of hard or unyielding plate from one end of the tube to the other" is such a serious defect as to warrant a great reduction of the working pressure being made, why a joint made with double butt straps, involving a treble thickness of plate along the whole length, should not be considered to be very much more efficient than a welded joint; yet furnaces made with either of these joints are allowed to work with equal pressures. Further, if a tendency to leak is observed with any form of joint, it appears to us that the practical remedy is to stop the leakage, not to reduce the pressure.

THE ROYAL ENGINEERS AND INDIA.

An unforeseen difficulty appears likely to trouble the authorities at the Horse Guards with reference to the demands made by the Indian Government for officers of the Royal Engineers. Of course the arbitrary rules of the service, if enforced, suffice to overcome this for the present; but it is very evident that, if that enforcement is long persisted in, it will end in making a distinguished regiment, instead of being, as it is at present, the coveted service of the scientific branch of the army, one of the most unpopular and least to be desired among our youthful aspirants for military employment. Hitherto, to receive a commission in the Royal Engineers as the reward of attainments of a specially high character, and only to be secured by the hardest workers and men of exceptional capacity and ability, has been considered to be equivalent to being on the high road to a distinguished position, if but rarely to high military command. Hence that desire to be enrolled upon its lists which has secured for its relatively few vacancies so many competitors; but it is not difficult to predict that unless some measures of relief are soon determined upon, the right of selection between the Artillery and Engineers will lead most of those successful at the Woolwich examination to choose the former arm of the service, instead of, as has almost invariably been the case hitherto, the latter.

Until very recently it was never known to be necessary to order engineer officers to India—the list of anxious volunteers at the Horse Guards was always full, and service in our Indian Empire was looked upon as a prize to be courted. There were all sorts of good appointments to be secured in that country by officers who proved themselves of calibre, and their services were eagerly sought for for the Public Works Department. But all this has changed. It was evidently unjust to the trained civil engineers sent out from Coopers' Hill, or otherwise secured, always to pass them over in favour of military men. There was some show of justice in such a course as long as students at Woolwich could be said to have possessed the monopoly of high scientific training, but when that ceased to be the case the mere prestige of belonging to the military service could no longer weigh. From the cessation of this practice may be said to date the commencement of the disinclination of officers of the Royal Engineers to serve in India. It is but just to them to say that it was not alone the pecuniary advantages which weighed with them in their desire for civil employ. Every engineer desires practice in his profession, and in the Public Works Department of India this desire could be fully gratified. But when work is confined, as it must be now, almost entirely to the routine duties of barrack and station charge, life in India becomes burdensome in the extreme. There is an entire want of interest in such duties, and the mind becomes weary for want of the intellectual employment which from long habit has become a necessity.

From the two causes above enumerated therefore has arisen that disinclination to Indian service among military engineers which has given rise to the difficulty now felt in meeting the demand made for them by the Indian government. Instead of hundreds of men anxious to go out, large sums are now offered by officers whose turn it may be to serve to effect an exchange; but even this inducement rarely succeeds in obtaining a substitute. Only recently we have heard of a requisition being received from the Viceroy's Government for twenty officers, and in order to fulfil it men have had to be placed under orders for early departure who have been scarcely any time back from foreign service. Thus some officers whose misfortune it has become to take their turn on the roster will have passed, according to present arrangements, no less than twelve out of fifteen years of service in tropical stations; and now that the prizes formerly attainable are closed to them, such conditions must soon end in depriving this eminent branch of the army of the attractions which have hitherto been so alluring, for few positions in the service could have been considered so lucrative or honourable as that of an engineer officer in the past. No blame whatever can be attached to the authorities for the individual causes of hardship to which the present difficulties have given rise. They have had no alternative but to act upon regulations; but it may well be suggested to them that if they desire still to secure for the Royal Engineers the services of the best men, these must be accorded privileges which, if not widely exceptional, still must exempt them from undue hardship. An engineer officer in India but rarely has those duties connected with subordinates which occupy and interest other officers. In many cases they have nothing to attend to but office routine and work possessing little or no attractions of a scientific character. Taken from them the opportunities for lucrative or interesting

employment, their life in India becomes barren of all inducements to submit to it.

Of course we cannot recommend a recurrence to the practice we have often condemned of superseding civil engineers by military men. There may be some few offices in the scientific departments of the Indian public service which it may be desirable to fill by officers of military training, but these are so small in number as not to weigh in the general question. We understand that by recent arrangements the emoluments of engineer officers serving in India have been considerably reduced, even when they are confined to ordinary duty; and if we have been correctly informed on this point, the difficulty arising from the causes we have already pointed out will become enhanced. It is manifest, however, that something must be done if the Government considers that the importance of the duties of the Royal Engineers demands for that regiment the continuance as heretofore of the services of the best men obtainable. What course should be pursued we shall not now suggest. We can merely call attention to the position, for which it is imperative a remedy should be found. Life in India, when active service is rare and work of interest absent, has few attractions; and the pay of a military man no longer represents, in the changed conditions of Indian social life of late years, anything beyond a bare maintenance. We have even had under our notice lately the fact that no qualified officer of the Royal Engineers has been found willing to accept a civil appointment of £1200 a year now vacant in that country, and which seems to be literally going-a-begging. We heartily desire to see some course resolved upon which shall stay the growing unpopularity of one of our most distinguished services.

THE ELECTRIC LIGHT IN HOUSES.

The purveyors of the electric light have found a difficulty where this was little expected. The British public displayed a good deal of enthusiasm over the electric light in exhibitions and elsewhere; but now that those who are prepared to supply the light as a substitute for gas are giving would-be consumers their estimates for supplying electricity and for fitting up houses with the necessary lamps, lamp holders, and wires, it is found that the cost of a domestic installation is beginning to damp enthusiasm, and to make people question whether they want it in their houses after all so very much. To say the least the grapes are getting sour. To the uninitiated it may seem strange, but it nevertheless appears to be the fact, that the "wiring" of a house worth, say, £150 per year, costs a very considerable sum; and when to this is added the cost of even unpretentious fittings, lamps, switches, cutouts, the cost is generally enough to make private householders think they will rub along with gas. The cost of wiring seems to be one of the most deterrent items. The price of current has been reduced to a figure which will make the lighting of a room cost little more than with gas; but though this is done, people stand aghast at what they are asked to pay to get the current to the lamps. In the days when the price of gas was 12s. per thousand cubic feet, as it was in 1825, and everyone was provided with oil lamps and ornamental candelabra, the same difficulty turned up, though, perhaps, it was more easily got over. The price of gas soon came down, and it was so much less trouble than the old illuminants, that the expense of gas fittings was not quite so great a bar. It has now for a good many years been customary to fit up new houses with gas pipes before the house is completed or during its construction; the charge being borne by the landlord just as it is for water pipes. For these the tenant has, of course, to pay rent, but to this he does not object as it is included as a part of the whole rent. Moreover, the householders in any district, such as that, for instance, to be lighted by the Victoria Central Station, are already provided with their gas fittings, many of which are of a costly character. These they do not care to put aside merely to adopt another, though a better, cleaner, and more healthy light. The mere wiring, as it has been thought and spoken of, costs a prohibitive sum; and electroliers and brackets of any pretence to tasteful design cost as much, or more, than the well designed ornamental gasaliers. The question is often asked, why not utilise the best of the gas fittings of this kind? The answer by experienced electrical engineers is, "We have done it over and over again, and will not do it any more." However well this is done, it is a makeshift, and those who have had it done will not have the gas connections removed. The result has in almost all cases been electric light failure or trouble after a year or so, because of the makeshift character of the electric arrangements, and because the gas atmosphere and slight gas leakage have always ruined the wire coverings at places. If householders would have the fittings taken down and properly converted into electrical fittings, and would have the gas connections removed, something satisfactory could be effected; but even then the electrical engineer is not satisfied, because he considers that hardly any of the gas fittings, whatever their design, are appropriate to the electric light; and here again the electric companies are in a difficulty at present, for there are hardly any good designs of electric lighting fittings yet to be had. They feel that something special is required for the new light, and none are able to show exactly what. A few, very few, firms have made a speciality of pendants and brackets and so on; but most of them are charging a very high price, just as they are at present for the more artistic modern gas fittings. The appreciation of good design is more rapidly extending amongst purchasers and would-be purchasers than it is amongst the manufacturers, and hence a few people pay the high price which the few artistic manufacturers demand, while the many are waiting until the manufacturers generally recognise the fact that many of the best designs could be more cheaply carried out than the tawdry things they are still making at a comparatively small profit. There is a demand now for good appropriate, yet inexpensive, designs for electric light pendants and brackets. The difficulty of getting these is really felt. The main difficulty, however, is with respect to the wiring. Household-ers object to pay for wiring a house, and especially

a house which is not their own. The landlord will not do it. It has been proposed that the electric lighting companies should do this and charge rental, but as against this it is urged that this would increase the cost of lighting for supplying a thing the equivalent of which is not supplied by the gas companies. The gas companies stop at the meter, and even for this they make a small charge. The difficulty would not be so great if the electric light consumer would be satisfied to have the whole of the light in from one to three places in a room, as is the gas light, which reduces the piping to a minimum; but he is not. As soon as he entertains the idea of using electricity, he wants the lights distributed so as to get the best possible effect, and the electrical engineer wants to do the same. The householder has also heard that electric lamps can be fixed up in cupboards, cellars, and in every corner of the house quite easily where he could not safely have gaslight, and hence he no sooner thinks of adopting the new light than he wants at least twice as many points of light as he has been accustomed to. There is a feeling that to supply all these lights nothing is required but a few wires. All want to have the wires quite out of sight, and it is this that runs up the cost. If the wires are run along cornices, and so on, the cost is less; but few are satisfied with these.

We have only touched upon the multitude of small difficulties, the weight of which is distressing the electric light people who are really doing commercial domestic lighting, but perhaps enough has been said to call attention to the fact that the difficulties are nevertheless real. Several things must be done. Consumers must be taught to be moderate in the extent to which they would go in lighting what has not hitherto been lighted at all by gas. A compromise must be struck as to the use of gas fittings, and as to the mode of wiring. Designers must be employed in devising suitable and not too costly fittings of all kinds. At present it is necessary to solder the wire connections, and those who have had most experience seem to be strongest in insisting upon the necessity. More ready means of connection than this must be devised. Some of the electricians urge that this costs a good deal, as compared with gas pipes in lengths at about 2d. per foot, with screwed ends and collars all ready, or which only need to be smothered with white lead to be tight. This may be easy, but surely electrical people are not long to go about complaining that a system of iron gas pipes can be put up in a house so much more readily and cheaply than a system of electrical wires. The "mere matters of detail" are, as usual, turning out to be the difficulties. They are, however, of the order of things which can be winked at by many, and we should like to see the several chief questions concerned fully discussed. This question of willing appears to have assumed unwarrantable proportions, and so far as regards new houses it should present no difficulties at all. Unfortunately up to the present electricians have always been the last to see how a trouble of this kind is to be got over. A few hours with a bell-hanger might prove useful to not a few of them. Soldering is not necessary, but electricians as a body do not seem to know how to make a good contact without it. Engineers will be happy to teach them.

MARINE INSURANCE.

THERE are several new methods of insurance of vessels proposed in the North of England, which may, when carried out, alter considerably the bearings of the question. It has been usual hitherto to insure vessels against all risks in a large number of clubs or societies, and thus the risk has been spread over a very large area. One of the proposals aims at decreasing the number of clubs by increasing the amount that they may insure upon each vessel; and the advocates of this claim that it will secure a more complete supervision of the vessel in case of average repairs. Another club is proposed to insure one type of vessel that is considered to be very safe. A third is about to lessen the area of the assurances, by declining to replace certain parts of the vessel's outfit that suffer more by wear and tear than by actual loss; and there are several other proposals which are to be decided upon at the annual meetings of the old clubs at the beginning of next month. But it is doubtful whether any of these will lessen the gross cost of the insurance of the vessel, its cargo, and outfit. It is found that over a period of years the total loss of vessels does not very materially change, and therefore the cost of that part of assurance cannot be much reduced. But there is a large outlay, and perhaps the largest, paid for the repairs of vessels that are not entirely lost. It is known that the cost of this is excessive. At present it is not to the interest of the owner of the vessel to keep down this cost; when his vessel is injured his interest lies in seeing that the repairs are as complete and as speedy as possible; and it is evident that as these repairs may take place in any part of the world, the supervision of the assurers must be limited to some extent. Some abuses have grown up, and what is now aimed at is to lessen these or to eradicate them as far as possible. But as they have been of slow growth and have to some extent become incorporated with the system, the work is found to be very difficult, and it is only after much experiment that the desired end can be attained. Meantime, the variation in the rates of premium or the calls that are paid is one of the most remarkable features in the case, and it is becoming clear that before any Government interference can take place, there is need for an inquiry that would enable a better judgment to be formed as to the cause of the fluctuations, and the conditions under which marine assurance can be most cheaply and efficiently effected.

RAILWAY RATES.

THE opinions held upon the railway freightage question by the ironmasters and hardware manufacturers of South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire have been expressed with no uncertain sound at a joint meeting in Wolverhampton of the Railway Rates Committee of the Wolverhampton Chamber of Commerce, and the Railway Rates Committee of the South Staffordshire Ironmasters' Association. It has been resolved to form an association embracing all the trades of the district, whose object shall be to report to the Railway Commissioners the many cases of hardship to which the companies' policy gives rise; to represent that the companies' interests would be best served by assisting rather than "crushing" the traders and manufacturers of the district; and also to aid individual traders in dealing with cases of unequal and excessive charges. An

offer of co-operation from the Associated Operative Ironworkers has been accepted, and invitations have been sent for the co-operation of the Associations of Miners and Hardware Operatives. The preliminary meeting of the Association is to be held in Birmingham on the 17th inst., when representatives of divers trades are expected from most of the chief South Staffordshire towns. The joint secretaries are the secretary of the South Staffordshire Ironmasters' Association, and the secretary of the Wolverhampton Chamber of Commerce. A guarantee fund, which it is intended shall reach some £20,000 or more, was begun at the meeting with offers aggregating £600. It is high time that energetic action was taken in the matter, and we are fully persuaded that no loss would be inflicted on the railway companies whose prosperity is inextricably involved with that of the districts which they serve.

LITERATURE.

Kinematics: a Treatise on the Modification of Motion, as affected by the Forms and Modes of Connection of the Moving Parts of Machines. By CHARLES WILLIAM MACCORD, A.M., S.C.D. John Wiley and Sons, New York; Trübner and Co., London, 1883.

This is a very valuable book. Nothing has been published since Willis's "Principles of Mechanism" which is more likely to prove useful to those who have much to do with the design of gearing. In matter, method, and illustration it will be found alike excellent. It is to be regretted, however, that the author has selected a title which is calculated to mislead. Indeed, it is only by attaching a very elastic value to the word "Kinematics" that it can be made to apply to the book at all. Mr. MacCord is apparently aware of this, and he opens his preface by stating that "a word of explanation is due to the reader in view of the fact that the following pages relate to but a small number of the vast array of devices included in the broad term 'mechanism.'" The book is really a treatise on gearing, and nothing else, for only incidental reference is made to link work. "The endeavour has been made," says our author, "to treat the theory of the subject in a practical manner for the benefit of the practical man. That is to say, the demonstrations are made as far as possible directly dependent upon the diagrams; and the latter, in most cases reduced from work actually executed upon a large scale, are accompanied by explanations which it is hoped will enable any ordinarily expert draughtsman to lay out the movements with ease and accuracy." He has been very successful in his endeavour to attain a praiseworthy object.

Questions connected with spur gearing are usually regarded under two different aspects. The "practical" man regards the production of a good spur wheel and pinion as a comparatively easy matter; and the result is that not one pair of wheels out of fifty is nearly perfect. Much of this imperfection is the result of ignorance. It is very nearly as easy to make a pattern right as wrong when the draughtsman and the pattern-maker know how. As a rule, however, they do not know how, and all parties are well satisfied if the wheels run without making a great deal of noise and without cutting each other to pieces in a short time; and here we would specially warn those who have to deal with gearing that a pair of ill-fitting wheels will never get better, in which respect they are unlike some other portions of machines. A bearing, for example, bad to begin with, may by degrees be got into good condition; but wheels never improve, they get worse the longer they act on each other. There is, perhaps, one partial exception to this—a worm wheel and screw. The screw will sometimes be found to cut a badly fitting wheel into adjustment; but nothing of this kind can possibly take place between two wheels. The teeth will polish each other, and so far improvement will take place, but no further. The second point of view is that of the mathematician. He knows that the problems which gearing present may for the most part be solved, and he can also tell, which is perhaps more important, which problems cannot be solved. We have heard it argued by men of some experience that it is impossible to make teeth work perfectly on each other—that is to say, that no mathematically exact solution applies to such a case, let us say, as that presented by a spur fly-wheel driving a pinion. This is quite untrue. There are improprieties as well as impossibilities in gearing, such as present themselves when we attempt to drive pinions with very few teeth; but these are quite exceptional, and not only is it true that a very excellent form can be imparted to the teeth of any given pair of wheels, but that more forms than one may be employed.

Mr. MacCord's object is to combine the two plans referred to into one, and to show how it is possible to apply the mathematical principles on which accuracy depends with practice. This has often been attempted before, but unfortunately the mathematician has too often made very simple matters appear repulsive. When the practical man, who wants information finds pages filled with formulæ and constant references to sines and tangents, he gives up in despair and goes back to the carpenter's compass as a solution of all his difficulties. Now, Mr. MacCord has happily avoided all this, and even the most complex problems, such as those connected with lobed wheel gearing, he has handled in such a way that it will be the engineer's own fault if he fails to understand what our author has to say. As an example of our author's style we quote the following passage:—"Although not coming strictly within the scope of this treatise, the practical ill effects of using wheels with incorrectly shaped teeth are so closely connected with the subject as to demand a brief notice. It is to be observed then that the noise and the vibration which often attend the action of toothed gearing, especially at high speeds, are not necessarily identical in origin. It is true that the causes which produce noise will also produce vibration: but vibration may be produced by other causes, and may at least be imagined to occur without noise. To explain: suppose two wheels of perfect form and finish to gear with each other, the power and the resistance being absolutely uniform; then, whatever the amount of backlash, there would be neither vibration nor noise. Now in

practice this uniformity of power and resistance seldom or never exists, and the variations in speed cause the fronts, and often the backs, of the teeth to strike together at short intervals. These blows cause a rattling noise, which is worse the higher the speed, and is accompanied by vibrations due to the impact between the teeth. The sole cause of the noise evidently is the existence of backlash; but even were the teeth so perfect as to have no backlash at all, these irregularities in the power and the resistance would still give rise to vibrations, more or less injurious, according to the suddenness of the changes. They would, however, take place in quiet. But again, vibratory action may result from a totally different cause, namely, incorrect forms of the teeth. To illustrate this, imagine two engaging wheels whose teeth are, as before, of perfect finish, but not of proper contour; let the speed of the driver be absolutely uniform, and the resistance such as to keep the acting outlines always in contact, so that there is none of the rattling above mentioned. The average velocity ratio will be correct. If the driver has, for instance, 100 teeth and the follower 50, each revolution of the former will cause two revolutions of the latter; and further, one-hundredth of a revolution of the driver will cause one-fiftieth of a revolution of the follower. But during this fractional motion the velocity ratio is not constant, the follower being driven too rapidly during one part of the action, too slowly during the other part. Thus the action of each pair of teeth, though correct as a whole, is faulty in detail, being made up of two counterbalancing errors. The speed of the driver is uniform, but that of the follower is fluctuating; its motion consists of a series of pulsations, not necessarily audible at low speeds, though practically certain to become so at high ones. But even at moderate velocities this vibration acts injuriously upon the whole mechanism, and in many cases it is easy to see that the perfection of work done by the machine may be impaired by irregularity of its motion, no matter how slowly it runs."

Our author, in handling this part of his subject, has not given sufficient prominence to the question of "drop," which is quite distinct from backlash. If a pair of wheels are properly made and put to work, then there will be no interval, however small, during which the teeth are not in contact. If, on the other hand, the gear is imperfect, then one pair of teeth will go out of contact before another have come into contact, and the result is that the next tooth in order of precedence on the driver, will fall on the tooth to be driven with a blow more or less heavy. This is one of the commonest defects in gearing, and does much to make it noisy. Concerning another point of much importance our author is almost wholly silent, namely, the importance of keeping the pitch lines in their proper places. These lines should be in rolling contact, and neither cut each other, nor lie apart; but in practice it is difficult to find this rule complied with. We often see wheels pitched too deep in gear to begin with, because as wear takes place in the bearings they will get further apart. This is obviously bad practice, because it is just the thing to spoil the wheels at the outset. Again, the millwright who mounts the wheels is often sore bestead to find the pitch circle; in a large wheel a mistake of $\frac{1}{16}$ in. in the radius is easily made. In all cases the pitch circle should be marked by the maker, either by punch dots or scoring.

In this book will be found a good many things not dealt with in any other treatise of the kind; we may refer specially to the section on pin gearing. It is not generally known that lantern pinions, such, for example, as are used in Dutch and American clocks, possess certain advantages over leaved pinions, and they can be produced so cheaply and accurately that they deserve the attention of all interested in gearing.

Finally, it will suffice to say that the book specially commends itself to those who have to do with such mechanism as that employed in spinning and weaving, because in it are fully described forms of gearing concerning which next to nothing has hitherto been written; such, for example, as dissimilar lobed wheels, derived from similar ellipses, and interchangeable logarithmic spiral multilobes. There is also in the book a good deal of useful, practical information on the preparation of cutters for wheel teeth. The volume is a large octavo, containing 335 pages, and 306 well executed engravings.

DEATH OF MR. FISKEN.

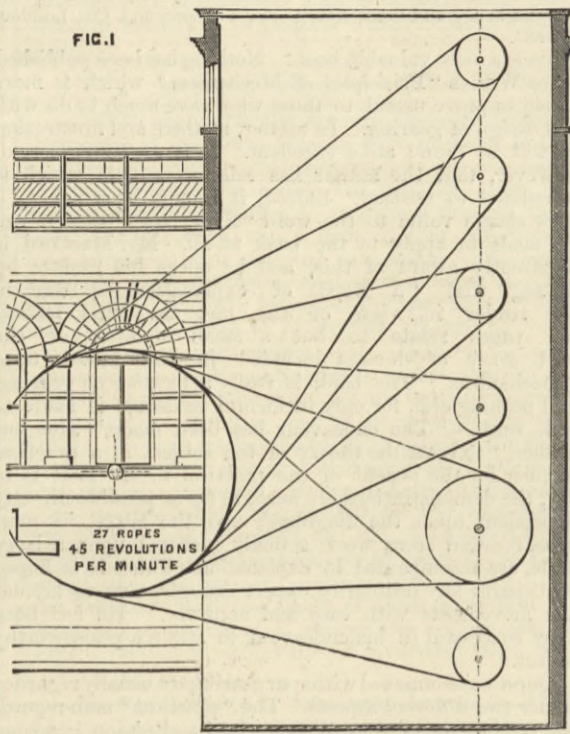
WE announce with much regret the death of the Rev. William Fisken, which took place very recently at Stamfordham. Mr. Fisken was more than seventy. He was a native of Perthshire; and alongside the study of theology, diligently pursued mechanics. In this latter science his brothers, Thomas and David—of whom Thomas is a survivor—were equally proficient. Mr. Fisken will be remembered by posterity, as he well deserves to be, and especially by agriculturists, as having been one of the two inventors of a steam plough, the other being his brother Thomas. Several years ago an important trial came off at Westminster upon the merits of the invention. The parties were Messrs. Fisken and Messrs. Fowler, Leeds, and the finding of the jury was that the Presbyterian minister at Stamfordham and the schoolmaster at Stockton-upon-Tees were the original discoverers. Mr. Fisken worked on the fly-rope system. An endless rope, running round the field or across it, according to circumstances, was put into motion direct by the fly-wheel of the engine, and this rope drove windlasses of an extremely ingenious type, by which the plough or other implement was put in motion. A great deal of excellent work was done on this system, especially with tackle made by Messrs. Barford and Perkins, of Peterborough, but for some reason the system never quite "took" with farmers, and we believe that very few sets of Fisken's tackle are now at work. Personally, Mr. Fisken was much liked. He was an extremely genial, shrewd north-countryman, and his absence from the showyards and trial grounds of the Royal Agricultural Society will be much missed by many old friends and acquaintances.

THE *South Wales Daily News* announces that the chairmanship of the Departmental Government Committee which is to investigate the question of the load-line for merchant ships has been accepted by Sir Edward Reed.

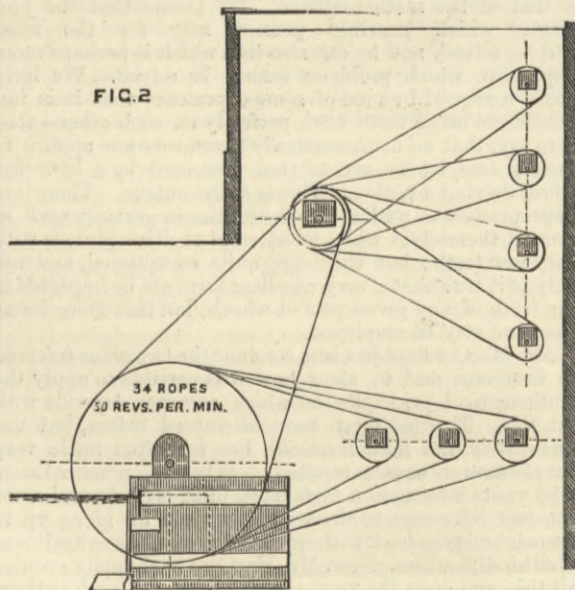
ROPE DRIVING GEAR.

THE special adaptability of rope gearing for the transmission of power where continuous high speeds are required has for many years past been fully appreciated in the large cotton mills of Lancashire, where a considerable proportion of the machinery is now driven by this means. There are, however, one or two important considerations connected with rope gearing upon which very largely depend its successful application, to which it will be of interest to draw attention. There has been a number of cases in which rope gearing has been tried and has failed, and it cannot be too emphatically asserted that as a first and most essential basis for its successful introduction, the mill in which this system is to be used should either possess ample facilities for enabling rope-driving to be carried out on right principles, or it should be specially laid out and designed for the transmission of power by this means. The first requisite is ample space for pulleys of sufficiently large diameter, with shafting so arranged that the power may be transmitted in direct line from pulley to pulley; that is, the ropes, whatever their number or however the power may be distributed, must run as nearly as possible in straight parallel lines off the drum or driving pulley on to the second motion pulleys on the line shaft. These are the primary requirements for success. There are of course numerous other details which contribute towards securing the best results, and it is to these we wish more particularly to refer. Where rope gearing has been a failure it is chiefly in old mills originally laid out to be driven by wheel gearing, but which has been replaced by the rope system of transmitting power under conditions so unfavourable that satisfactory results were impossible, and after a short trial a return to the old method has been the only alternative of such ill-devised experiments. These failures of the rope system in old mills, a few years back, had a tendency to create an unfavourable impression, but where it has been properly applied under suitable conditions, the inquiries we have made throughout the cotton districts surrounding Manchester show that the most satisfactory results have been obtained, and with the erection of new mills the system has been, and is rapidly extending. Wherever mills do not possess the proper facilities for applying rope gearing under right conditions, it may be stated at once that it is far better to adhere to the old system of wheel gearing. Various devices are sometimes introduced to overcome the difficulties connected with the introduction of rope driving into old mills; where the pulleys cannot be erected in line an intervening pulley is sometimes employed, but this causes an extra amount of friction on the rope which enormously increases the wear and tear; the ropes, in cases of absolute necessity, are allowed to divert from the straight line in transmitting the power from the drum pulley to the second motion pulley, but although they will do their work, this again is at a great sacrifice in the life of the rope. Another equally serious objection in some old mills is that the diameter of the pulleys has to be so curtailed for want of space that it is impossible to get the high travelling speed which is an essential to the success of rope driving, whilst the small diameter of the pulleys has further an injurious effect upon the wear and tear of the rope. In a paper on rope gearing, read before the Institution of Mechanical Engineers at Manchester in 1876, Mr. James Duril laid down certain facts as the result of the experience which, up to that time, had been gained on this subject:—"The velocity of the periphery of the grooved fly-wheel and pulley is always arranged," says Mr. Duril, "to be between 3000ft. and 6000ft. per minute." And he adds, "It is very essential that the right proportion between the diameter of the ropes and the pulleys should be obtained; if the diameter of the pulleys is too small, the rope, in continually bending over them, is apt to strain the strands and grind the core into dust, and on the size of the pulleys in great measure depends the life of the rope. As a general rule, the circumference of a pulley should not be less than thirty times that of the rope which works on it. In apportioning the distance between the driver and the driven shafts, great latitude may be allowed, but a distance of 20ft. to 60ft. may be taken as a fair space." These facts may be accepted with very little modification at the present time. We may, however, state with a little more precision, what is now considered to be the best travelling speed over the periphery of the driving pulley. The invariable answer to inquiries upon this point is that an average of 4500ft. per minute is the speed at which the best results can be obtained with rope driving; in some cases 4000ft. is found to give good results, whilst some ropes are run at as high as 5000ft. per minute, but these two figures represent the minimum and the maximum speeds at which rope gearing when laid down under proper conditions is driven. In dealing with other conditions of rope gearing, the construction, diameter, and strength of rope is of course a feature of special importance. When rope driving was first introduced those made of flax were mostly in vogue. In Lancashire, however, a preference has of late sprung up for those constructed of cotton; for inside work, this class of rope is said to give the best results, and in the mills of the above district cotton ropes are now generally in use. As to the diameter of the ropes, this varies according to the special methods adopted by different makers. As illustrations, we may take two of the representative makers of rope gearing plant in Lancashire. Messrs. Hick, Hargreaves, and Co., of Bolton, have adopted a uniform rope of 5in. circumference, whilst Messrs. Buckley and Taylor, of Oldham, have as their standard, ropes of 2in. diameter. There is, however, in all cases, a more than ample margin of safety. The power to be transmitted by the ropes is distributed in the case of the smaller diameter at an average of from 30 to 40-horse power per rope, and in the case of the larger diameter at from 40 to 50-horse power per rope. In the 2in. diameter of ropes the breaking strain may be estimated at about 10 tons, whilst the actual strain on the rope travelling at 4000ft. per minute, and transmitting 40-horse power, would be only equal to 330 lb. per rope, and a proportionate margin of safety would be secured with rope of smaller diameter. The right method of setting the ropes upon the pulleys is a matter with regard to which there appears to be some misapprehension, and this is especially the case in some of the mills abroad, where engineers appear to be under the impression that the best results are obtained where the ropes are fixed perfectly tight. Of course it is essential that underneath the pulleys the ropes should have a tight lead from one to the other, but over the tops of the pulleys there should be sufficient looseness in the ropes to allow of a fairly good sag between the two pulleys, so that the ropes have a slight lap over the top rim. As regards the comparative cost of rope and other systems of gearing, and the average life of a rope, these are matters on which it is difficult to get any actually precise data. As compared with leather belting, it may, however, be stated, as some indication of the great difference as regards the first outlay in this system and that of rope gearing, that in two mills laid out on exactly the same lines, where it had cost in the one about £1200 to put on the leather belting, the cost of the ropes on the other did not exceed £150. As to the life of a rope, this is also a question upon which it is difficult to obtain precise information, but it is roughly estimated that with proper usage

this should not be less than about seven years; whilst as regards the actual breakage of ropes, this would appear to be extremely small. We have met with very few instances of the sudden collapse of a rope, and the risk of these is reduced to a minimum by the fact that any defects in a rope, arising either from wear or other causes, will show themselves long before the point of danger is reached. The proper construction of the pulleys is another essential feature in the success of rope driving gear. The necessity of a sufficient diameter we have already alluded to, and we may add that the conclusions arrived at by Mr. Duril on this point are those accepted by the leading makers of to-day. No pulley should have a less diameter than 30 to 1 with that of the rope, whilst for the large or driver pulley this may be increased according to the results wished to be obtained, some of these pulleys having a diameter of as much as 35ft. Where sufficient diameter of pulley is not obtained two serious disadvantages are the result—increased wear and tear on the ropes, and a travelling speed below that which is the most effective for this system of gearing. The form of groove on the pulley is a matter upon which various opinions appear to be held. Some



are of the V, others of the U-shape, with modifications between these two forms; but this point is of so much importance that one firm has spent many hundreds of pounds in perfecting the special system they have adopted. The general practice, however, is to give a sufficiently deep groove that the edges project considerably above the top of the rope. The invariable arrangement of the grooves is in parallel lines round the face of the pulley, about 2in. apart, according to the number of ropes that have to be driven, and frequently a pulley will carry on its face as many as forty separate grooves. With regard to the distance between the first and second motion pulleys, although it cannot be said that there is any particular rule so long as the rope will lead properly and carry its own weight, it is important that the pulleys should not be too close together. Between the two pulleys there should not be a less distance than 30ft., but sometimes the ropes travel a distance from pulley to pulley of 100ft. We have heard some objections raised with regard to rope driving—that it is impossible to get all the ropes to travel at one speed, and that they are constantly liable to twist. That this is so, it is pointed out, may be readily ascertained by drawing a white mark across the ropes when they are stationary, and afterwards



observing the different positions of these white marks when the ropes have been put in motion. So far as the travelling speed is concerned, it would be an extremely difficult matter to secure exact uniformity in any set of ropes, as however carefully they might be made, exact uniformity of length would be impossible, but slight variations of speed are of little consequence. Where, however, the difference of travelling speed becomes serious, it may invariably be traced to some defect in the system, and in all probability will be due to some irregularity in the turning of the pulley, which, however slight, would necessarily be a continuing error. As to the twisting of the ropes, this would probably be produced by the same cause, or where they had not a perfectly straight run from pulley to pulley. To sum up the special features of rope driving, where they are applicable, and where they are not, it may be stated that this system of transmitting power is altogether unfitted for driving heavy machine tools where variations of speed are required, and consequently, except for special purposes, it has not been largely adopted in the shops of engineers. Where it can be best applied is in main

driving for mills and such works, where constant and regular high speeds are necessary, and to these it is chiefly applied at present. One great advantage in rope driving is the absence of noise and the special facilities it affords for the distribution of power as required. Of course, as already stated, the system gives the best results when the ropes can be led in perfectly straight lines from pulley to pulley, however they may be split up on the line shafts, but there is certainly more margin for deviation. Where this is an absolute necessity it can be obtained with driving by belts, and this may be allowed as another point in the favour of ropes. Cost is also an important item, and in first outlay this may be set down as about one-fourth, as compared with belting. The safety of rope driving is another point which is secured by the large margin obtained in the strength of the ropes, whilst in the case of the failure of the rope the readiness and comparatively small cost with which it can be replaced without any serious interruption of work is an advantage which users of power can appreciate.

Having given generally the main features of rope driving a few practical illustrations of the system, both as regards the construction of rope driving plant and its application on a large scale will be of interest. In making our inquiries we visited several large works in Lancashire where special plant has been put down for manufacturing all descriptions of rope driving gear. Messrs. Hick, Hargreaves, and Co., of Bolton, have fitted up mills with rope driving for transmitting greater power than probably any other firm in the world. Recently we noticed an exceptionally powerful pair of engines they had completed for a cotton mill in India. These engines are of 4000-horse power, and the whole of this power is transmitted by ropes on a fly-wheel 30ft. diameter and 140 tons in weight. The power is transmitted by sixty ropes passing over one fly-wheel, which is 15ft. wide across the face, the ropes in this instance carrying more than is the average weight per rope in this country. This is probably the largest example of rope driving that has yet been applied, but when we visited Messrs. Hick, Hargreaves, and Co.'s works, they had in hand plant of a similar kind representing a total of nearly 20,000-horse power, the whole of which was to be transmitted by ropes, and this will serve to illustrate the extent to which rope driving is being introduced. For power, various types of engines are used, but the pulleys are all made on the system of groove which after careful and costly experiments has been specially introduced, and the firm have pits in which they can turn simultaneously four pulleys of 35ft. diameter. Several very ingenious processes for the building up and turning of these wheels have been adopted, but into these we have not space to enter, and we will simply add two illustrations of rope gearing laid down by the above firm in modern mills as fairly representative of the most approved methods of applying this system for the transmission of power. In these illustrations the gable end of each mill is shown, but excepting the main fly-wheels, no other portions of the engine is indicated. Fig. 1 represents the arrangement of rope-gearing at Messrs. Illingworth Bros. mills, Bradford. The engine put down in this mill, which has been fully described and illustrated in THE ENGINEER, indicate 1000-horse power. The fly-wheel, which is 30ft. diameter, is built up on an improved plan, is grooved for twenty-seven ropes, and is driven at 45 revolutions per minute, the power being distributed to the various line shafts as shown in the illustration. Fig. 2 shows the arrangement of rope driving now being put down in a new mill which is being erected in the immediate district. In this case, the pulley is 32ft. diameter with thirty-four grooves, transmitting 1300-horse power at 50 revolutions per minute to the various line shafts as shown. We may add, that Messrs. Hick, Hargreaves, and Co., are introducing improvements in their rope-driving plant, by constructing the pulleys of steel for extra high speed, but these are not as yet in use, and we may have to refer to them hereafter. In the important cotton district of Oldham, Messrs. Buckley and Taylor are the leading makers of rope-driving plant. The average horse power in the Oldham mills does not exceed 1000 to 1200, and this is generally transmitted by about thirty ropes. The above firm have an illustration of their rope driving plant at the Oldham Exhibition, where a pair of engines of 60-horse power with eight ropes running with a fly-wheel 14ft. diameter, at 70 revolutions per minute, drive the cotton and other machinery shown in the Exhibition. Messrs. Wright, Turner, and Co. of Pendleton, near Manchester, are also makers of rope driving plant, and their experience is that 4500ft. to 5000ft. per minute is the most effective speed. The grooves they adopt are of the V-shape. When visiting this works we saw a toothed wheel running at the exceptional speed of 2700ft. per minute, but this is a high speed for wheel gearing which can scarcely be maintained with safety, and it is being replaced by rope gearing. The transmission of power by ropes will be through a fly-wheel 25ft. diameter with eight grooves, and to a second motion pulley 8ft. diameter, the engines running at 70 revolutions per minute, and the eight ropes transmitting about 400-horse power.

Apart from mill driving, rope gearing, as we have already said, has not yet been very largely employed. For wood-cutting tools and also for nut and bolt works it is being introduced. In engineering works it is also used for driving high speed foundry and other heavy cranes. Messrs. W. and J. Galloway and Sons, of Manchester, have used ropes at their branch works for driving the cranes lifting the boilers for a considerable time past, and at their Knott Mill Works the cranes lifting 20 tons are driven by ropes. Hemp and manilla ropes were at first employed, but recently cotton ropes have been introduced with very satisfactory results. Endless 3/4in. ropes are used, and these run at a high speed over grooved pulleys transmitting the power a distance of about 100 yards. Messrs. W. Hulse and Co., of Manchester, are also introducing rope driving for certain purposes in the new works they are laying out, and although, as we stated, rope gearing is not adapted for driving where varying speeds are required, there are many purposes to which it might, with advantage, be applied both as an economical means of transmitting power and as adapting itself for this purpose under exceptional circumstances more readily than under other systems would be possible.

THE WIRRAL AND BIRKENHEAD AGRICULTURAL SOCIETY.—The next meeting of this Society will be held in the permanent show-yard on Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday, the 18th, 19th, and 20th of June.

NAVAL ENGINEER APPOINTMENTS.—The following appointments have been made at the Admiralty:—Charles Francis Hulford, chief engineer, to the Pembroke, additional, for service in the Ready; Francis C. Alton, Chief Inspector of Machinery, to the Asia, additional, vice Ellis; Richard Irwin, chief engineer, to the Myrmidon; Henry J. G. Moon, engineer, to the Duncan, for service in the Wildfire, vice Davis; Robert W. Edwards, engineer, to the Indus, for service in the Albacore, vice Robins; Thomas Williams, engineer to the Indus, additional, vice Burner; George S. Cornish, engineer, to the Indus, additional, vice Williams; Edward Q. H. Denison, assistant engineer, to the Myrmidon.

THE PATENT JOURNAL.

Condensed from the Journal of the Commissioners of Patents.

* * It has come to our notice that some applicants of the Patent-office Sales Department, for Patent Specifications, have caused much unnecessary trouble and annoyance, both to themselves and to the Patent-office Officials, by giving the number of the page of THE ENGINEER at which the Specification they require is referred to, instead of giving the proper number of the Specification. The mistake has been made by looking at THE ENGINEER Index, and giving the numbers there found, which only refer to the pages, in place of turning to those pages and finding the numbers of the Specification.

Applications for Letters Patent.

* * When patents have been "communicated," the name and address of the communicating party are printed in italics.

1st January, 1884.

- 1. DIVIDING DOUGH, G. Johnson, Glasgow.
2. SAFETY COOK or TAP, A. J. Boulton... (L. Pillet, France).
3. DOUGHING, &c., MACHINES, G. Johnson, Glasgow.
...
104. ELECTRIC SWITCHES, C. A. Bullock, Blackheath, and E. Shaw, Clifton.
105. WEATHERING PARAPET, J. Robson, London.
106. MECHANICAL TOY BOATS, G. Cole, London.
107. STOPPERS FOR BOTTLES, &c., T. Jones, London.
108. VENTILATORS, T. Jones, London.
109. MELTING POT, J. Harsant, Twickenham.
110. UNSTOPPERING BOTTLES, D. Griffiths, Birmingham.

- 111. CIGARETTES, F. Plaister, Oxford.
112. CARRYING PARCELS, F. Small and Halsey, London.
113. REFRIGERATION, J. Harrison, London.
114. VIGNETTED PHOTOGRAPHS, H. V. Weyde, London.
115. REAPING and MOWING, G. P. Barnes, London.
...
244. FASTENER for BOOTS, &c., R. Treleaven, London.
245. FURNACES, R. Morris, Doncaster, and J. Wood, West Stockwith.
246. STEROTYPING MATRICES, T. & H. Daw, Sevenoaks.
247. SUPPORTING BODIES in WATER, H. T. Clancy, London, and T. A. F. Hall, Southampton.

- 248. FEEDING LUBRICANT, J. Simmons, London.
249. SLIDING FLUSH BOLT, C. F. Hall, London.
250. LIFTING, &c., FLUIDS, F. B. Hill, London.
251. GALVANIC BATTERIES, L. J. Dopping-Hepensal, London.
...
266. HANSOM CABS, I. D. Pollard, London.

2nd January, 1884.

- 267. COMPOSITION for SHIPS, W. Day, Blackheath.
268. QUATREMAINE VELOCIPEDS, E. G. Colton, London.
269. TWIN-BOATS, J. Linklater & W. Mears, Tynemouth.
270. GLOVE FASTENERS, E. Atkins, Birmingham.
...
581. BICYCLES, &c., J. E. Bell, Nottingham.

- 282. PRINTING SURFACES, I. B. and E. S. Shaw, Tunstall, and W. S. Shaw, Wolverhampton.
283. PRINTING INSCRIPTIONS, &c., I. B. and E. S. Shaw, Tunstall, and W. S. Shaw, Wolverhampton.
...
480. HOLDING LUCIFER MATCHES, E. Edwards... (P. Gilliaux, Belgium.)

3rd January, 1884.

- 481. PURIFYING, &c., WATER, H. J. A. Bowers, London.
482. DAGGER UMBRELLA, W. Nicholas, New Southgate.
483. PERMANENT WAY, W. Colam & R. Phillips, London.
...
514. POTATO DIGGERS, W. Kirkham, Westby.

