

THE RATING OF MACHINERY.

A QUESTION of very great interest to ironmasters, engineers, machine and tool makers, and others who employ machinery largely in their business, has been exciting no little agitation in Hunslet and the Leeds district generally. The last valuation of the Hunslet Union was made in 1873-4 by the late Mr. Newsam, of Leeds. As new property has been erected within the union, it has been valued and assessed in the usual way, and at this moment the rateable value of the union is £195,987. The overseers, thinking that the time had come for a second valuation, engaged Messrs. Hedley and Sons, of Sunderland, to revalue the mills, ironworks, machine works, collieries, railways, and canals. These gentlemen have departed from the course which has been customary in Hunslet and other manufacturing districts. They have been guided, it appears, by a judgment delivered by Lord Chief Justice Cockburn, Mr. Justice Mellor, and Mr. Justice Lush, in January, 1878. Mr. James Laing, a shipbuilder at Bishopwearmouth, appealed against a valuation made in 1875 by Messrs. Hedley and Sons, on behalf of the overseers, for the purposes of assessment. Messrs. Hedley had included in their valuation punching machines, shearing machines, lathes, drilling machines, saw benches, and steam hammers. The judges held that certain rules had been established by previous decisions, and it appeared to them, after having carefully considered the character of the machinery in question, that the whole of it, though part might be capable of being removed without injury to itself or the freehold, was essentially necessary to the shipbuilding business, to which the appellants' premises were devoted, and must be taken to be intended to remain permanently attached to them as long as these premises were applied to their present purpose. Their lordships practically held that the case was covered by the decisions they had quoted, and gave judgment for the respondents. The appeal was not carried further, and, so far as authority goes, their lordships' decision appears to be the law with regard to the assessment of machinery. Applying this principle for the first time to the valuation in Hunslet, Messrs. Hedley and Sons added largely to the rateable value, and caused wide-spread dissatisfaction in that union. Some idea of the difference made at several of the Hunslet establishments will be gathered from the following figures:—Messrs. John Fowler and Co.'s present amount is £2472 1s. 8d., under the new it is £5640; Messrs. Kitson and Co. are raised from £1583 to £5388; Messrs. Taylor Bros. and Co., £2240 12s. 6d. becomes £3563; Messrs. Hathorn, Davey, and Co. rise from £391 to £891; and so on. It will be seen that the excess in the valuation is simply monstrous, not only in large, but in all establishments. The increase in seven cases is more than the entire assessment on the old basis. In one instance—Messrs. Kitson and Company—the increase is more than double the whole amount at which they are at present assessed, while in another typical instance, one firm previously assessed at £154, suddenly find £371 added to that value. It is impossible to suppose that there can have been any such remarkable increase in the value of the property to the proprietors as to justify such an arbitrary advance. Of course, the abrupt change in "value" is entirely due to the new method of assessment, to which the parties concerned naturally object most strenuously. There has also been a considerable increase in the valuation of collieries, railways, and canals.

When the firms found their valuations increased from £11,000 to £22,570, it was time to make a bold stand. With other firms they employed a solicitor to look after their interests, Mr. T. Simpson, who had an interview with the Assessment Committee. Mr. Hedley showed every desire to afford information as to the principle on which his firm had gone in their method of rating. In principle the classification was thus:—In Class 1 were included tools, the foundations of which are built in the soil, or which are otherwise so attached to the freehold as to become incorporated with it—for example, steam hammers. Mr. Simpson, on the part of the appellants, admitted that that class of machinery was rateable, and that it was incorporated with the property, and had really become part of the freehold. The machinery which they claimed should be exempted from rateability had been classified as follows:—Class 2 (a): Heavy tools resting upon a platform or base, either of stone or concrete, held rigid by bolts and nuts—driven by belts. 2 (b): Light tools resting on the floor and held rigid by bolts and nuts; also driven by belts. Class 3 (a): Tools standing upon the floor and not held rigid by bolts or otherwise. 3 (b): Tools of this class with power attached—the source of the power being loose as well as the tool—and having steam or hydraulic power supplied to them by a pipe. Class 4: Tools not falling within the above classes, but for which exemption is claimed. They have special features which are set out against each tool. Mr. Simpson pointed out that the machinery in Class 2 was not like boilers, or engines, or fixed shafting, which had manifestly become a part of the freehold, but was merely held in its position for the accommodation and convenience of those using it. In Class 3 they get to a division which he should have thought would never have entered into valuation at all, namely, machines or tools which stand on the floor and were perfectly loose. The only connection between these machines and the freehold was a belt which might be thrown over the drum, and which could be removed at any moment. Class 3—b—had this peculiarity about it: in order to get the motive power, a small pipe was attached through which hydraulic or steam power was conveyed. It was no more a part of the machine than a small india-rubber pipe attached to a gas pipe formed part of a gas standard. They also claimed exemption in Class 4, because it included tools which ought not to be rated at all. In addition to the points urged by Mr. Simpson, the machine makers of Hunslet, submitted that their position was not analogous to that of the Bishopwearmouth shipbuilder. In that case the judges were guided by the fact that the appellants admitted that

the machinery rated was permanently fixed to the freehold, while in the valuation at Hunslet had been included loose machinery and plant temporarily fixed, and not incorporated with the permanent buildings.

So strong is the feeling against the new system of rating, that at a further meeting of the Assessment Committee, one member—Mr. Pearson—moved: "That this Committee does not feel inclined to test the principle of rating machinery, and that Messrs. Hedley and Son be instructed to prepare a valuation on the principle of £4 per horse-power." This practically meant a return to the old system, Mr. Pearson remarking that the new principle was not followed in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred. Mr. Hedley insisted that the valuation had been made in accordance with the law on the subject. When custom was at variance with the law, custom had to give way. He differed from Mr. Pearson as to the number of unions which had adopted the system. Movable machinery was rated in Durham, Northumberland, Glamorganshire, and other counties in England and Wales. The principle of simply assessing the horse-power was unjust to the small manufacturers, who had to use larger engines than were absolutely necessary for the amount of their business. To do this would be monstrously unfair, while to adopt any other course than that to which Laing's case pointed would be illegal. Mr. Hedley was pressed to mention a single instance where looms were rated; but he could not mention at the moment a union where this was the case, remarking that he was not acquainted with the principle of valuation followed in Lancashire. His firm, however, were about to make a valuation for the West Derby Union, and it was their intention in that case to press the adoption of the new principle. It was pointed out that there was at present £8000 worth of mill property empty in the district, and the question was asked, who would be likely to occupy it if the rates were increased? Mr. Pearson read a law report in which it was stated that in Lancashire machinery was always treated as chattels, which might be removed from the premises. In connection with the case he referred to, ten valuers were examined at the trial, each one of whom stated it was the custom to rate movable machinery. He added that when the Hunslet Assessment Committee engaged Messrs. Hedley and Son to make a new valuation, they had not the slightest idea that a new principle would be introduced. Members of old committees had informed him that if it had been known such a course would have been followed, Messrs. Hedley would not have been employed. The upshot of it all was that a vote was taken, when it was resolved by five to four to return to the old system of rating, i.e., £4 per horse-power.

It is evident, however, that the engineers and manufacturers of the kingdom have not heard the cost of this new system of rating. Thanks to the courageous and intelligent resistance of the Hunslet firms, the experiment has been repulsed there; but it is certain to be tried elsewhere, and the attempt, whenever made, should be stubbornly resisted in the general interest. It is understood that action is being taken by the manufacturers in Northumberland and Durham to test the legality of assessing machinery. It is almost a pity that the Hunslet Assessment Committee have "harked back" so readily, as a test case would then have been taken, and the whole rating system might have been settled. One point is pretty clear: The manner in which valuers are paid is open to the objection that it does not encourage a minimum valuation. On inquiry at the Union Offices, Hunslet, we were informed that the arrangement with Messrs. Hedley and Son is that they shall be remunerated by commission on the rateable value as settled. Of course there is nothing unusual in this arrangement, and we are not assuming for one moment that this consideration would weigh with gentlemen of the high professional standing of the Sunderland firm; we simply state the fact that the principle of payment by commission is open to the objection that it gives the valuers, whoever they may be, a direct interest in a high valuation. Messrs. Hedley and Son have taken the clear ground throughout that they are following the strictly legal course in rating machinery; and to all inquiries of the Hunslet firms or their solicitors they have been candid and straightforward in every respect.

While at the Union Offices we had the curiosity to examine the list of members of the Hunslet Board of Guardians. Their occupations are as follow:—File cutter, confectioner, licensed victualler, innkeeper, grocer, milk dealer, brick manufacturer, four farmers, felt manufacturer, pawnbroker, timber merchant, quarry master, colliery manager, flax spinner, auctioneer and valuer, "gentleman," and two J.P.'s—*ex officio*. The Assessment Committee itself consists of a confectioner, colliery agent, timber merchant, two farmers, a file cutter, felt manufacturer, innkeeper, and brick manufacturer, with the two J.P.'s—who reside at Oulton Hall. Not one of the engineers or machine-makers, or any of the large manufacturers of Hunslet who bear the great bulk of the rates, is on the Board. Hunslet itself is divided into three wards, and is represented on the Board by the file-cutter, confectioner, licensed victualler, innkeeper, grocer, milk dealer, brick manufacturer, farmer, felt manufacturer, and pawnbroker—all most estimable and worthy persons in their own calling, no doubt, but the Board would surely be none the worse of a sprinkling of the large manufacturers, on whose shoulders fall the weight of the union taxation. The chairman is Mr. Hargreaves, the colliery agent, and the vice-chairman is Mr. Pearson, who is president of the Trades' Council. The elections are fought on political lines, the "colour" of the candidate being considered of more consequence than the status he has in the union, or his capacity for office. If the large employers of labour desire to check these attacks on capital—which must inevitably injure labour—they should put themselves to the trouble of mingling in the elections, and thus correct the error at the fountain-head. Men in business do not care to worry about local offices; yet there is no way of protecting themselves, except by taking pains to be in a position to prevent their interests being imperilled. By the skin of their teeth, as it were—by a majority of one, thanks mainly

to the sensible course taken by Mr. Pearson, after the employers had made it clear they meant to fight—the rating of machinery is, for the time, abandoned; but what assurance is there that the attempt may not be renewed at "some more convenient season"—say when another "boom" moves the stagnant waters of business in the leading industries of England?

DETERMINATION OF CARBON IN IRON AND STEEL WITH THE AID OF STEAD'S CHROMOMETER.

The difficulties hitherto met with in determining accurately small quantities of carbon may be removed, according to Stead, by a method employed by him, and which rests on the solubility of the coloured substance formed by the action of dilute nitric acid on iron or steel in potash or soda solution, as well as in the circumstance that the alkaline solution possesses a two and a-half times deeper colour than the acid liquid.

To conduct the proposed operation we require a normal nitric acid solution of specific gravity 1.20, and a normal soda solution of specific gravity 1.27, and we proceed as follows:—1 gramme of iron or of steel, as the case may be, is placed in a beaker of about 200 ccm. contents, and covered with a watch-glass with 12 ccm. of the normal nitric acid, and is to be heated to about 90-100 deg. C., whereby the solution takes place in about the space of ten minutes. In the same way normal iron of known percentage of carbon is to be treated, and then to each experiment 30 ccm. of hot water and 13 ccm. of soda solution is to be added. After a good shaking each is to be diluted to 60 ccm., filtered through a dry filter, and a portion of each to be compared with the others by pouring it into a tube of glass, so that each quantity, when looked down into from above, has the same hue. If, for example, in one tube there are 50 mm. of the normal solution—of a steel of known composition—and the steel to be examined contains just half as much carbon, it will be necessary to employ 100 mm. of that solution to produce the same amount of colour; the carbon constituent, in fact, acts in inverse quantity in the solutions which are to be compared.

As regards the influence of the duration of the treatment with sulphuric acid, it has been found by experiment that the colour is not materially affected when the digestion is a prolonged one; it is, however, convenient and advisable, even when the solution takes place rapidly, to continue the treatment for ten minutes, for the action on the coloured substance, at first formed, is not entirely completed under that time.

In order to test the influence exerted by the amount of nitric acid employed, five experiments were made, in which 12, 15, 18, 21, and 25 ccm. of acid were respectively employed, and it was found that while 6 ccm. of excess of acid does not materially affect the result, a larger excess decidedly reduces the colour.

In order to test the influence of a greater or less excess of the soda solution, four specimens of a soft steel were dissolved in the usual way, and to them were respectively added 13, 15, 18, and 21 ccm. of soda solution, whereby it was found, as has already been stated, that 13 ccm. is sufficient to dissolve the colouring matter; by employing a less amount some of it is thrown down with the iron sesquioxide.

As by the acid method small quantities of hydrochloric acid materially affect the result and the test is of no value, being untrustworthy, it appeared important to test the effect as regards the alkaline method. Four experiments with a specimen of steel showed that the presence of chloride exerts no influence; nitric acid, on the other hand, even in small quantities, checks the formation of the colouring substance which is due entirely to it.

If a steel containing much carbon be heated to a red heat and then quenched in water, the steel so treated gives, by the coloration test, a weaker colour than it would have done before being hardened. If the amount of carbon is low, the difference is relatively less, as the following results show. A number of specimens of iron and steel were heated to a red heat and cooled. The examination before and after this treatment gave the following results:—

	Percentage.	
Soft steel	0.168	Difference 0.010
" hardened in cold water	0.158	
" hardened in hot water	0.168	Difference 0.010
Stafford square iron rod	0.110	
" hoop-iron	0.100	Difference none.
" " hardened	0.089	
Soft steel	0.069	Difference 0.006
" hardened	0.077	
" " hardened	0.071	

Although iron and soft steel are seldom hardened before they come to be analysed, it is satisfactory to know that even in such a case the analysis is not useless. From repeated experiments with the new method it has been found that certain steel gives a much yellower coloration than others do, and that this arises from the existence of two different coloured bodies, which can be separated, and may be prepared in an almost pure condition. One is bright yellow, like potassium chromate; the other is of a dark brown-red. In certain steels the one is in excess, in others the other.

It is to be hoped that further investigation may throw light on the constitution of soft and hard steels.

As regards the comparison of the coloured liquids, two methods may be employed. Either we act, as we did before when the acid method was in use, by diluting the dark-coloured liquid till the same intensity of colour is shown in a unit of space; the diluted volume is then to be noted, and the amount of carbon read off in tenths of a per cent. for a cubic centimetre. In the alkaline method, however, it is better to use the second method as above described, and directly compare the intensity of colour of the undiluted solution by measuring the lengths of two columns. For this purpose the apparatus shown in

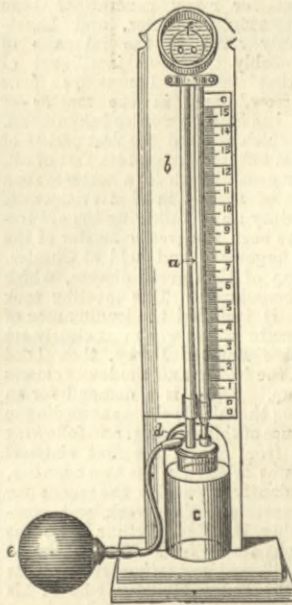


figure is adapted. It consists of two parallel tubes, a and b, of any desired diameter, one of which, a, is narrowed 23 cm. from the upper end, and is open both at top and bottom. The lower end goes through a cork of caoutchouc to the bottom of the bottle c,

of about 120 cm. capacity, which contains the normal solution. A second tube *d* of narrow diameter communicates through the stopper valve with the flask with the air-ball *e*. Close over the narrowed part of the first tube *a* there is a small glazed porcelain cylinder, as well as at the closed lower end of the second tube, about 23 cm in length, so that by being placed parallel the distance of the upper open end of the surface of the porcelain cylinder is equally great. The normal tube is graduated from 0.01—0.15, and when used a little mirror is brought at an angle of 45 deg. above the open end of the tubes.

To carry out a comparison we bring the solution to be tested into the second tube *b* up to a given mark, and then pump up, by squeezing the ball, the normal solution into first tube *a* so far that the coloration of the two tubes appears equal in the mirror, and then we read off the height of the normal solution, which gives the amount of carbon in the iron or steel under investigation in per cents.

THE SOCIETY OF ENGINEERS.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

(Concluded from page 117.)

In history it is found that those nations most active and successful in war turn with greatest ardour to the pursuits of peace; and after the great European struggle which terminated with the exile of the first Napoleon, England, released from her absorbing care in those great events, commenced a development of her trade and resources which soon left her without a rival. The times were most auspicious. A young Queen sat on the throne of these kingdoms, whom Heaven in its goodness still preserves to reign over our favoured land; and with her Consort, a man of sound common sense, and a deep student of political economy, her Majesty devoted untiring attention to everything that could encourage the development of all the resources of her wide dominions. To second such enlightened views prevailing in the highest quarters, there was a people whose aggressive instincts had been diverted from the prosecution of a tremendous war to the pursuits of peace. Free from national anxieties, while honoured and respected throughout the world, it became a matter for no astonishment that trade of every kind increased with surprising rapidity, and the prosperity of our nation seemed to attain the zenith of its most ambitious hopes. The researches of scientific inquirers were abundantly rewarded by nature unfolding her choicest secrets to their ardent gaze. Literature and art also flourished in the wake of successful trade, and it seemed as if an era of peace and prosperity was dawning on the world. No proof is now necessary that a very different condition of things prevails at the present time; for, instead of peace, we hear more of war; and instead of prosperity, all the music of the land is in the minor key. There is disquiet abroad and discontent at home; and even our real riches and prosperity are made a cause of croaking and despondency by weak unmanly spirits among us, men immeasurably inferior to those who laid the foundations and reared the fabric of our country's greatness. Following the example and profiting by the experience of England, other nations endeavoured, successfully, to enlarge the boundaries of their trade; not, however, in the fearless open-handed way in which England did not disdain to exhibit even her processes of manufacture, in the Great Exhibition of 1851, but in a mean and timid exclusiveness, characteristic of conscious weakness—afraid to let manufactures stand on their own merits with those of other countries, and taxing their own countrymen to prop up a system which could not stand without such adventitious aid. In Germany, along with prohibitive tariffs, a somewhat different course was adopted, even when that great empire was divided into many small principalities, in uneasy antagonism among themselves. These Governments devised and carried out very thorough systems of education, and sent their journeyman apprentices to extend their travels beyond the confines of their own country. These young men came in great numbers to England, and being subsidised by their own Governments, they were able to work for less wages than our own people required, and being also docile and intelligent, they readily secured positions which gave them a thorough insight into the methods by which our trade was carried on. This experience enabled them, on returning home, or setting up on their own account, to reap great advantages from their English apprenticeship. Their education also gave them a better start than English youths of corresponding age; and the practical outcome of the competition we have had to meet from other countries has been to draw particular attention to the education of those who are to be engaged in trades in our own country, and compelling us to neglect no longer the warning voices of those who foresaw and endeavoured to supply a better system of technical education many years ago. Indeed, so great has been the reaction that many timid people nowadays are inconsiderately rushing to the somewhat absurd conclusion that all our former plans by which England became so prosperous must have been wrong, and all we can do now is to admire and slavishly imitate a system which answers well enough in Germany, but is not necessarily adapted to a people like our own, of very different temperament. Rather ought we to choose good points out of the Continental systems, and engraft them upon the well-proved standard which educated our forefathers so wisely and so well. We should also remember the born instinct for engineering pursuits which prevails amongst the English race, more than among any other on the globe; and take care to cultivate the originality, and guide the inventive genius of our people rather than adopt a hard, unyielding, semi-military educational system, destructive of both. The northern parts of England have for many generations been the chief seats of its manufacturing industries, and Lancashire is the county most keenly alive to the interests of trade; and in native talent probably the most intelligent of all. It has been well said that 'where Lancashire leads to-day, England follows to-morrow,' and in the matter of education this particular county has been in nowise behindhand. The rapid progress in prosperity which marked the first period of the Victorian age from 1837 to 1851 affected Lancashire first of all, and led to the expression of a very general wish for a better system of education. The then leaders of society in that aristocratic county admirably fulfilled their duty; and following the old traditions that the Church has always been the great educator of the people, an imposing meeting was organised and held at Chester, under the presidency of the bishop of that great diocese, which then included Lancashire in its boundaries. This meeting took place on the 25th January, 1839. It included the leading men of Cheshire and Lancashire, and its main object was most clearly set forth in a speech made by the late Earl of Derby, then Lord Stanley. He said that "between the higher and the lower classes there is a great gap to be filled up. There is a demand for an improving scientific education among the middle classes according to the march of science." In consequence of this meeting, and following upon such important statements from one of the first classical scholars of his day, a deep interest was aroused in the two counties, and subscriptions flowed in abundantly to provide the means for a comprehensive scheme of education. The work was commenced at once, and my late father, the Rev. Arthur Rigg, was appointed to arrange and carry out its details. The college at Chester was opened in the year 1842, and my father received its keys from the hands of the present Prime Minister, who in his green old age remains the last survivor of that band of eminent men who gave the great impetus to practical education more than forty years ago. The schools were continued and gradually developed "with such an amount of useful and practical knowledge as may qualify the boys in an eminent degree for agricultural and commercial employments." In 1843 the diocesan report states that "many articles of furniture had been made by the boys in

the intervals between their school hours," and the evidence of neighbouring manufacturers gave encouragement to the system of education, as they stated with considerable acumen, that if a knowledge of the combinations of machinery were taught in those districts, a very important lesson would be taken towards raising the moral and intellectual character of our artisans. Many different trades were practised at the college, and again and again did her Majesty's inspectors testify that the knowledge gained in these workshops was more valuable than any other, and that—in 1850—they knew of no other place where such instruction could be gained.

In 1851 the tendency of the school towards the teaching of mechanical engineering became more pronounced; Mr. E. A. Davidson, the first science teacher educated by the Department of Science and Art, had taken charge of the instruction in geometrical drawing and orthographic projection, not only in Chester, but in the great works of the London and North-Western Railway Company at Crewe. The workshops and laboratory were enlarged, and chemistry, under the care of Professor Crookes—now F.R.S.—with other sciences, received their due share of attention. In 1862 a demand for engineers in India had arisen, and certificates of residence at the College, Chester, were "accepted by the Secretary of State for India from candidates for appointments, as if they had passed an equal time under a civil, mechanical, mining, or telegraph engineer," and large numbers of engineers now scattered over many lands received their education there. When its founder retired in 1869, after the arduous labours of thirty years, this, the first engineering school in England, ceased to exist; and the only memento of his work now to be seen at Chester is an admirable marble medallion, which has been erected last year in the college chapel by numbers of his former engineering pupils. The novel and unique educational system thus carried on at Chester caused the school to be visited by numerous Englishmen and foreigners interested in the subject. It thus served as a pattern and encouragement for others, and things have now reached such a pass, that now there is hardly a school for boys or girls of the smallest pretensions that does not teach science of some sort. Numerous schools now exist in London and the provinces, where admirable instruction is given in the principles and practice of engineering, both civil and mechanical. At King's College in the Strand, University College in Gower-street, at the Crystal Palace, and in the Technical Schools in the City of London, there are classes devoted to these subjects; while in the provinces at Owens College, Manchester, the Hartley Institute, Southampton, and the Corporation College at Nottingham, and other places, technical education is carried out; so that the younger generation of Englishmen cannot fall short of those advantages which may possibly have been one of the reasons that have enabled foreigners to run them so close. For an exclusively engineering education the chief place must be assigned to the College at Cooper's Hill, now opened for the education of all engineers, not specially of those destined for India. With schools so numerous and so good, some might be disposed to think that the older system of apprenticeship to engineers has become unnecessary, but no error could be more damaging to its victim; for do what you will, a school can never supply the experience necessary for practical life. Where, indeed, is such experience to come from? Not from the pupils or students, for they are often ignorant of the art of learning. Neither are books fit instructors of the many-sided requirements of ordinary life; and, however clever the professors, it is physically impossible for one among many to teach them as much as they will learn when they occupy a corresponding position scattered and isolated among others. The conclusion we are forced to come to is that no final training can ever be so good as carrying out works under the guidance of an engineer engaged in the ordinary affairs of his profession. A school is a world in miniature, and as far as a child resembles a man, the comparison is just; but it must not be carried further, and the best that any school can do is thoroughly to ground its pupils in general principles, and give them an insight into the best methods of their application. An engineer has to administer the perfect laws of nature, and although these are described in text books as unchanging and unchangeable, yet so hard and fast a condition of things is very far removed from what actually prevails. All these laws are subject to modification by external influences, and no mathematician can calculate, nor can any array of figures convey to the mind, their infinite variety. If, for example, we take a law so definite and absolute in its dominion as the attraction of gravity, a law which affects the limitless boundaries of eternal space, equally with the irresistible attraction, no microscope reveals, which holds together what we call the atoms of solids, we soon find that there are other laws equally universal, which may override the attractions of gravity. Centrifugal force, heat, and chemical affinity alike limit its extent, and a clear insight into all natural laws reveals how easy it is for us to regulate material things exactly as our varying needs require, without in the least denying their potency or curtailing their universal sway. The architect and civil engineer need only consider the statical properties of immovable bodies, while the studies of a mechanical engineer must include the whole range of their dynamical relationships. These greatly modify his methods and practice, and may indeed be regarded as placing him on a higher standing from a scientific point of view. Then, again, intruding into the domain of matter and motion, chemistry enters more largely than formerly into the education of an engineer, and there is no other science to which he is more deeply indebted.

If we consider the few elementary substances with which an engineer has to deal, they are found beyond all other endowed with the most unexpected and even contradictory qualities. These elements are four in number—oxygen, hydrogen, carbon, and iron; and without trespassing into pure chemistry, or wearying your patience with what is after all an adjunct of engineering, I think we may briefly consider what are some aspects of those substances so important to an engineer, and what some of their peculiarities. Oxygen, the main support of life, while also the cause of its decay and ultimate destruction, combines with every other substance, and may be called the haven of rest, or indeed the "Nirvana" of all material things. The comparatively small amount free in our atmosphere, is the residue from those imposing conflagrations which ushered in the present order of things, together with what has been rescued from its combinations by the strangely mysterious power of sunlight. With nitrogen, itself the most inert of gases, and oddly enough the essential ingredient of explosive compounds, oxygen forms the most corrosive of acids, while in combination with hydrogen it is the purest and most useful substance we know. In its higher allotropic form of ozone, chemistry itself seems defeated in assigning limits to its protean character. In water we have a marvellous and most unlooked-for development of powers and qualities of which not a trace can be found in either of the gases of which it is composed. A liquid unique amongst all others, possessing the highest known specific heat, and familiar to us in three conditions, it becomes the most convenient means for transmitting heat and utilising the chemical energies taken from the atmosphere countless ages ago by the sun, and locked up for our present use in the most perfect of "storage batteries." If we notice in passing the combinations of hydrogen and carbon, it is only to remark how the engineer who is concerned with gasworks must devote great care and attention to their study, and how of late years his colleague the chemist has positively made the bye-products of gas-making a source of greater profit than the hydro-carbons with which our streets and dwellings are illuminated at night. Carbon is perhaps, without any exception whatever, the most wonderful substance of which we possess any knowledge. At once the most permanent of all things, and the one which unchanged endures the most intense heat we can produce—that of the electric arc—this substance combines so easily with oxygen as to be readily burnt in our fires, and thus to it we owe most of what renders life supportable. And yet its affinities are so admirably adjusted, that during the combination of a hydro-carbon with oxygen, as may be readily seen in an ordinary candle flame, the hydrogen is first consumed, and raises the carbon to such a temperature that its solid unchanged particles illuminate the feeble glow of the hydrogen flames before they them-

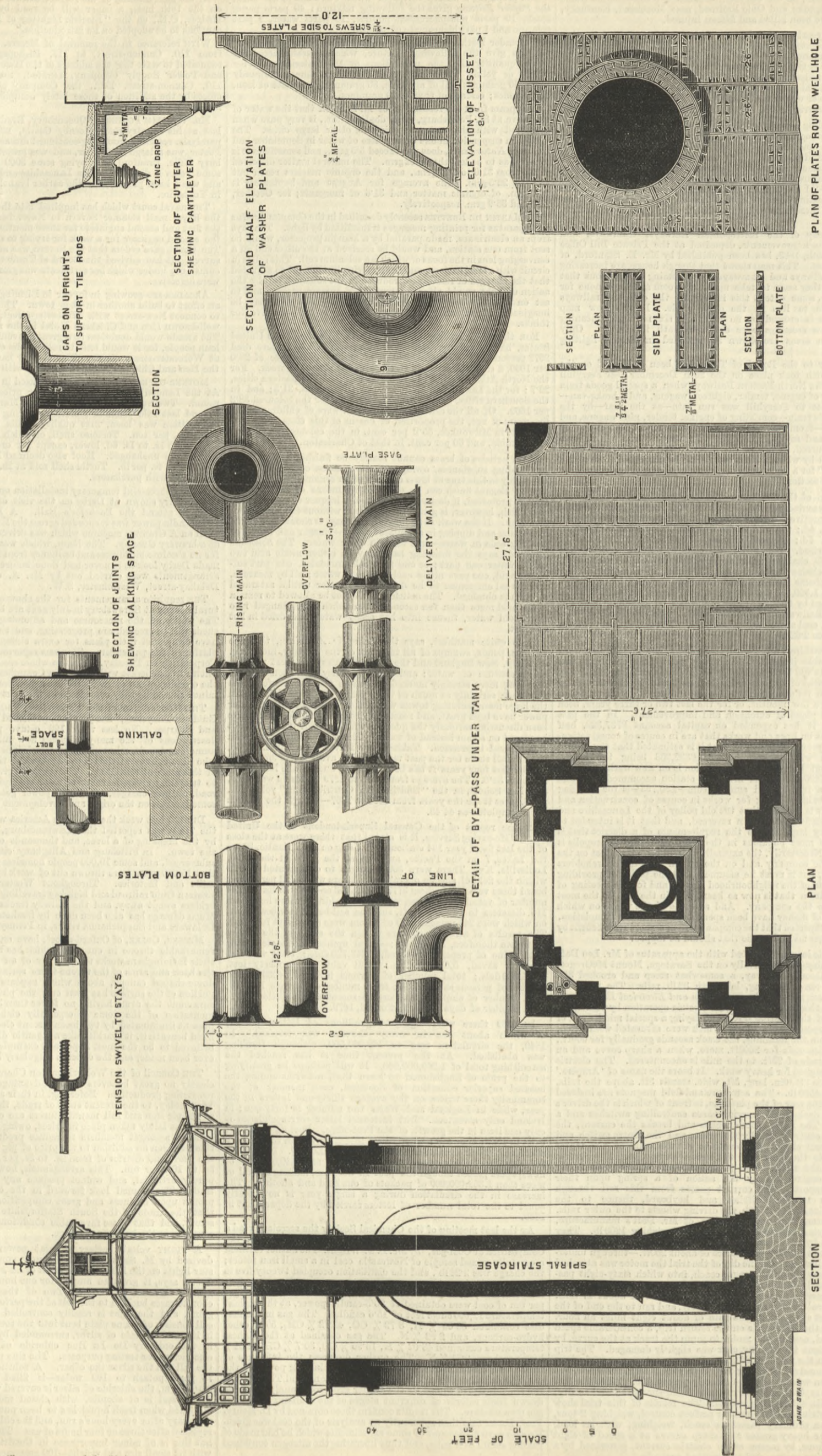
selves are changed into an invisible harmless gas. In blast furnaces this singular adjustment in the affinity of carbon for oxygen at different temperatures is made to play an important part. Those metallic oxides which are the chief ores of iron are reduced by the superior attraction which carbon possesses for oxygen at high temperatures; and if the pure metal so extracted be again exposed to atmospheric influences, we witness the curious phenomenon of its recombination with oxygen at ordinary temperatures, while carbon would remain for ever unchanging at its side. This variation at different temperatures of the affinities for oxygen by carbon and iron amounts to a complete reversal of an ascertained law. A philosopher residing in a planet where high temperatures were unknown, might most justly assert that oxygen possessed a greater affinity for iron than for carbon; whereas an inhabitant of the sun might on equally good grounds come to exactly the opposite conclusion. Thus this law, like many others, is governed by the conditions under which it is exercised, and it forms one of many illustrations how easy it is to bend the inflexible laws of nature to suit our endlessly varying requirements. Familiar qualities of all substances gradually disappear as they change from a solid to a gaseous condition. The hardness and brittleness of cast iron finds no place in its liquid state, nor can the properties of any liquid be traced in its gas. Thus we only know the properties of bodies such as are displayed in the narrow compass of temperatures which we can observe, and cannot tell anything of their mutual relations under different conditions of temperature, density, and of perhaps unexpected allotropic changes in their nature. Carbon possesses a greater number of separate compounds than any other element, and even these compounds sometimes behave as elementary substances, and combine amongst themselves. The conditions of mere mixture, and as carbide of iron, under which this element changes that metal into steel and cast iron, endowing it with new peculiarities, are at the present time the subject of an elaborate investigation by some of our leading metallurgical chemists, and the final result of their labours will be awaited with deep interest by engineers. Iron is the most important element with which engineers have to do; indeed, it may be said that they could not exist without it. This metal is more plentifully distributed than any other; easily reduced from ores, and possessing very different qualifications according to the proportions of carbon or other metals with which it is combined. In common with platinum, wrought iron has the rare quality of welding, by which its atoms at a white heat seem to be removed sufficiently far apart as to be within the sphere of attraction of another bar similarly heated and driven into close mechanical contact. But it is not alone in these qualities that iron is so remarkable a metal. Its peculiarly electrical and magnetic properties have within the last few years rather distracted attention from its other natural gifts. The investigations to which iron has rendered such signal service have tended more than anything else to place this youngest born of sciences in the position which now it occupies.

Although the effect of an electrical current in producing magnetism was first discovered by the late Professor Faraday in the year 1831, it was not until the year 1834 that this distinguished philosopher invented and showed at the Royal Institution an early form of dynamo-electrical machine; and, after resting for many years, and being the subject of many experiments, this machine has been taken up by a class of men of very different character to its original inventor, and it is only quite recently that engineers have had anything to do with it. Not like the older sciences, a slow growth of centuries, nor like engineering, the work of an entire generation, this precocious infant of days seems to have sprung into existence all at once, and everybody is expected to accept as proved the crude theories and unfounded assumptions of those who claim to be the sole depositories of the secrets of a new science. To the general public, ignorant of a new and uncouth nomenclature, and disconcerted by an array of mathematical symbols, which, if they knew the truth, not unfrequently resemble sheep walks on a barren moor, that start from nothing and lead nobody knows where, some of the electrical companies have made too hopeful promises, and financial disaster has proved an inevitable result. Indeed, we may see that the elementary principles of mechanical engineering have been entirely unknown by them, and that many thousands of pounds have been wasted in the construction of ill-designed machines which were little else than dangerous experiments for ascertaining the simple laws of centrifugal force, or the correct proportions of pulleys and bearings for transmission of power at high speeds. We used also continually to hear of irregular driving and engines breaking down; and though these evils might arise through mistaken cheapness, or not knowing the actual power transmitted in driving dynamo-electrical machines, yet, as the indicator was invented by Watt, and is now in universal use, such ignorance is wholly inexcusable, and no engineer could make such a mistake. All these proceedings form a good illustration of the need for some standard of qualification which shall enable the public to place confidence in a man's claim to rank as an engineer; and there is, unfortunately, no such security of any kind in this country. Besides, many people possessing the merest smattering of engineering, who would resent the suggestion that their own simple arrangements might be improved, will yet consider themselves perfectly competent to design or arrange a complicated mechanical combination, or discuss details which can only be mastered by much study and experience. In a new departure like modern electrical science it was only natural that experiments were necessary, and failures to be anticipated, and it is not to such that we allude; but that it should be implied that every educated engineer does not know the proper proportions of pulleys and belts to transmit a given power, nor how to construct an engine that shall not break down, is to place a most unmerited slur upon the profession. In the construction of their machinery the electricians have by this time blundered into more reasonable proportions; but they cannot be surprised that their want of knowledge in these matters, so generally known, should hardly form their best credentials for making statements upon the details of a science the most mysterious and extraordinary ever brought under the dominion of man. The practical details of electrical work are quite distinct from the true engineering involved in construction of engines and machinery, and in it electricians may fairly claim a position of their own; and it is only in continuation of previous remarks upon the unique properties of iron that I would venture to make a short excursion into their special province. Whether neutralised electricity or magnetism exists in all substances or not remains still to be proved; but certain it is that the earth and sun, and probably all the other planets, are powerfully magnetic, each as a whole. It is principally through the properties of iron that we are able to bring magnetism to practical use; and if we study Professor Hughes' most interesting experiments on the polarisation of its molecules under the influence of electrical currents, we see how, as by the action of wind on a field of corn, the magnetic pole of each molecule is turned in the same direction, and a maximum effect is reached. When, with pure iron, the exciting cause is withdrawn, the molecules again neutralise each other, and no external magnetism is perceived. But the addition of carbon, as in cast iron or steel, necessitates increased electrical force to rotate the molecules, and at the same time prevent their ready return. It is this property of carbon which gives us permanent magnets, and although the outlines of this theory are not new, yet Professor Hughes' experiments promise to throw more light upon the subject of magnetism, and collaterally upon the internal constitution of matter, and we may await their development with increasing interest. If magnetism is thus shown to be the polarisation of molecules of iron, what can electricity be, with which it is so intimately associated? It is an influence subject to none of the laws of matter, and has been ascribed to that mysterious ether which enters into the innermost recesses of all material things, like light through transparent glass, and at the same time seems only bounded by the confines of infinity. This appears to be the vehicle by which the light of stars is transmitted to our eyes, and may be the medium through which gravity acts, though not sub-

WATER TOWER, COLCHESTER WATERWORKS.

MR. CHARLES OLEGG, M. INST. C.E., ENGINEER.

(For description see page 133.)



dividends it must adapt itself to the manners and customs of the day, and it must provide steamboats very different in many respects from those it now uses. We know that this course has often been urged on the company; and we are not aware that any serious defence has ever been set up. A favourable opportunity now occurs at all events for making the change, and we urge its propriety once more on the directors of the company. The alterations needed would not demand any very radical departures as to size from the present type of boat. The oscillating paddle engines, designed and constructed by Messrs. John Penn and Son, have answered their purpose very well, and to the boats which go up to Kew paddle wheels are essential, as a draught of about 2ft. 6in. is the most that can be reckoned on in summer during certain states of the tide. The boats are fairly fast now and are admirably handled; but the new boats might easily be made a little faster with advantage. The accommodation provided for passengers is as bad as it possibly can be now. It consists of the deck, on which are certain hard wood seats, and there is no shelter whatever provided, either from the sun in summer or the rain and wind in winter. There is a cabin below the after deck; the sole attempt made to render this habitable consists in putting a hard wooden bench down each side. Is it a matter for surprise that in winter the traffic falls off? is it not rather wonderful that any passengers at all are carried?

It is too much, we suppose, to expect that really satisfactory boats will be put on the river all at once. Yet we can see no reason whatever why craft of the type of the steam gondola on Coniston Lake should not be used. The boat in question is smaller than a London penny steamer, being about 98ft. long, and carrying 223 passengers. She has a propeller 3ft. in diameter, and steams about twelve miles an hour. Her engines are aft, and she has a good promenade deck over them, while forward is a saloon beautifully fitted up, and provided on all sides with plate glass. A Thames steamer might easily be designed which could have a somewhat similar saloon on deck. There is nothing about the bridges to prevent one from being used. We have said that paddle-boats would be needed for the boats going up to Kew; but seeing what Messrs. Yarrow and Co. have done on the Magdalena and other rivers in the way of shallow draught steamers, it is evident that something very far superior to anything yet seen on the Thames could be made for working the higher portions of the river. For the rest, screws are more suitable than paddles, lending themselves more kindly to the wishes of the designer. The "mouche," well-known to all who have visited Paris, may be taken as faintly indicating what could be done on the Thames. The space now uselessly occupied by the cabin of the penny-boat would accommodate engines and boiler; and forward of these might be provided, as we have said, a deck house, the full width of the boat, save a narrow gangway or waterway required to protect its sides from injury when alongside a pier. The house would be low externally, being sunk, so to speak, below the level of the deck; but lofty enough within. The top could be made to serve as a promenade deck, as its level would be below that of the captain's bridge in the penny-boats. The bridges would not interfere even when the tide is highest. Aft of the deck-house would be an open deck, which would be covered, however, by a permanent iron awning, which would keep out the sun and rain. Two classes might be provided for—the first in the saloon, and the second on deck; and this would present no difficulties whatever. It is, of course, impossible to do more here than indicate in general terms the nature of the boat wanted; but any change must be a change for the better, and a change will have to be made. We have said nothing of the larger boats which ply to Woolwich; but they are in no respect better than the smaller craft which ply above bridge. Changes and improvements are wanted in them; but they would take a somewhat different direction from that which we have indicated as suitable for the typical penny steamer.

It is a matter for some wonder that the London Steamboat Company has existed so long without rivalry. Speculations of the most risky character have never failed for lack of funds; yet no one seems to have thought of putting on the Thames steamboats in which the civilised citizens of the greatest metropolis in the world might voyage with some sort of comfort. The fact that the London Steamboat Company is still in existence proves that money can be made by carrying passengers on the Thames as badly as it is possible to carry them. With suitable boats, properly worked, there can be no doubt that the traffic would be enormous as compared with what it is now. Possibly the present company will take warning in time, and endeavour to attract traffic. If not, sooner or later it will find itself supplanted by those who understand more fully modern conditions of success.

COMPOUND LOCOMOTIVES.

The compound locomotive does not appear to grow in favour with locomotive superintendents. A few are at work in the United States and on the Continent, and about a dozen of Mr. Webb's engines are now running on the London and North-Western Railway. It may perhaps be taken for granted, however, that the number is sufficiently large to permit an opinion to be formed concerning their merits. The results obtained up to the present are not encouraging. Compound locomotives cost more than the ordinary engine. Regularity in the force turning the crank shaft is of no consequence, and they have to depend for favour solely on their powers of saving coal as compared with other engines. In a word, if they are not economical in the consumption of coal, they possess no advantages over other locomotives. A great deal of interest has centred in the performance of Mr. Webb's engines—which were fully described and illustrated in our pages last August. It has been stated in general terms that they burned 20 per cent. less coal than the ordinary London and North-Western engines; but no definite figures were given until very recently, when a contemporary published a statement made by Mr. Webb, which supplies the information wanted. On the 26th October, 1883, a compound engine took the 10 a.m. Scotch

express from Euston to Carlisle, a distance of 300 miles in round numbers. The engine and tender weighed when starting 62 tons 13 cwt. The train consisted of twelve coaches to Crewe; a thirteenth was added at Crewe. The gross load, including this, was 214 tons 9 cwt. 1 qr., or up to Crewe, 204 tons in round numbers. The average running speed was a little over 44 miles an hour. Good time was kept. The engine has a pair of high-pressure cylinders, 13in. diameter, and one low-pressure cylinder 26in. diameter, the stroke of all being 24in. The diameter of the driving and trailing wheels is 6ft. 6in. The total weight of coal used—quality not stated—was 79 cwt. The water evaporated weighed 75,460 lb. The evaporation was therefore 8.5 lb. per lb. of coal, a very excellent result, seeing that the feed-water was not heated. The consumption per train mile was 29.46 lb. From this a deduction of 1.2 lb. per mile is made for lighting up. We do not quite see why, as coal is usually weighed on to a tender when the engine is in steam, although the fire has not been made up. However, accepting this deduction, we have 28.25 per mile as the actual consumption per mile. The Gladstone, with an average load of 19.5 vehicles, and about 300 tons gross load, burns 31 lb. per mile, the evaporation being about the same as in Mr. Webb's engine, the speed over forty-five miles an hour. The line is much steeper and more difficult than that between London and Crewe. The consumption per vehicle mile is 1.58 lb. Mr. Webb's engine burned 1.88 lb., counting the engine and tender as two vehicles, and the train as made up all through of thirteen coaches. No allowance has been made in the case of the Brighton Railway engine for coal burned during shunting and standing at Victoria station for some hours.

In order to arrive at a conclusion as to the value of this performance, we must carefully consider the conditions under which it was made. To begin with, the train load was about one-half that taken in the tourist season by single engines from London to Crewe. It is as nearly as possible one-half that of the Brighton 8.45 a.m. up express. Mr. Worsdell sends trains of twenty-two coaches out daily with a single engine. A train of thirteen coaches may be regarded as below the average for anything but limited mails. Again, the speed is not very high. The whole time allowed for running from Euston to Carlisle is seven hours and twenty minutes, from which must be deducted two minutes at Willesden, five minutes at Rugby, seven minutes at Crewe, and twenty minutes at Preston, or in all thirty-four minutes, leaving as running time 406 minutes, or 1.33 minutes per mile, or a little over forty-four miles an hour. There are none but very easy gradients on the London and North-Western from Chalk Farm to Preston. Up to Crewe 1 in 326 is the steepest gradient against a train going north, if we except one or two very short bits of rising ground; that is to say, for 235 miles the road is very level. It then continues to rise, with one small exception, to the top of Shapfell, a distance of about thirty miles. The incline from Tebay to the summit is at the rate of 1 in 75 for a distance of about five miles. This point reached, the line falls to Carlisle—a distance of thirty miles—at such a rate that the descent can be made almost entirely without the aid of steam. Taking into consideration the moderate dimensions of the train; the level profile of the road—with the Shapfell exception—the length of the continuous runs, and the good quality of the coal, as evinced by the performance of the boiler, it must, we think, be admitted 28.25 lb. per train mile is in no way an exceptional performance. It is a very good duty no doubt, but we fancy that it is hardly so good as that of Mr. Stirling's single driver outside cylinder engines on the Great Northern, which are reported to run from King's Cross to Doncaster with twelve coaches on a consumption of 26 lb. per mile. The figures given by Mr. Webb would obviously be far more interesting than they are if he had furnished the public with a statement of the normal consumption of fuel over the same road with his regular engines.

It is not easy to get from the advocates of the compound locomotive a definite statement of the reason why an advantage should be gained. Compounding is not adopted to prevent condensation. Indeed, to put two long cylinders of small diameter outside the frames of a locomotive is hardly the best way to secure that end; in any case, the condensation in a pair of inside cylinders is very small. Nor is it, as we have said, to secure regular turning of the crank shaft that the system has been adopted. Advantage can only be sought in the way of saving fuel; and this, it is clear, can only be had by expanding the steam more in the compound than in the normal engine. In one word, compounding is the same thing as putting in larger cylinders. The engines working the Scotch mail in the ordinary way have cylinders 17in. by 24in.; their capacity is therefore 6.306 cubic feet. The three cylinders of the compound engine have a capacity of 10.962 cubic feet. Two cylinders 22.5in. in diameter would have the same capacity, and we may ask why they should not be used instead of the three cylinders adopted by Mr. Webb. The objections can be briefly stated, and are not insurmountable. It would be possible with a little scheming to get them in between frames by the aid of Joy's valve gear, or by putting the slide valves under them as in the Gladstone. The frames would, however, require some modification in arrangement, in all probability. But with cylinders of this size four coupled drivers could be made to slip with the greatest ease, unless precautions were taken to prevent it. This is one of the reasons why attempts to use locomotives with great cylinder capacity have hitherto not been a success. Their drivers put them in full gear and turn on steam, and the wheels slip at once. If they attempt to start them with the link raised, the ports are blinded and the steam will not enter the cylinders at all. One way out of the difficulty lies in modifying the regulator. If that is made to open gradually by means of a hand wheel and fine pitch screw, it will not be easy to make the engine slip, because the throttle valve will act as a reducing valve. The great objection to the screw—which used to be employed pretty freely in old locomotives—is that if the engine does slip, steam cannot be shut off suddenly; but a modification might easily be made in the stop valve, which

would provide for this. When the engine was fairly running it could be worked at a high grade of expansion, and no doubt all the economy that can be derived from compounding would be had. However, we should be slow to advocate the use of two 22½in. cylinders instead of two 17in. cylinders for a passenger locomotive intended to work the Scotch express; but we should like to see what could be accomplished by a pair of 19in. cylinders, the proportions of the boiler remaining unaltered.

Mr. Webb has carried out a most interesting and instructive experiment. It is only to be regretted, we think, that he did not begin with goods engines, in which the steam is worked with much less expansion and to smaller advantage than it is in passenger engines. We understand that, apart from the data given above, the compound engines burn about 6 lb. per mile less than the non-compound. This, however, does not seem to be borne out by the result of the run from Euston to Carlisle, which we have given above, for we can scarcely think it probable that any modern English locomotive can want some 34 lb. of good coal to draw a train of but thirteen coaches over a road for the most part practically level.

THE UNITED STATES CRUISERS.

The latest advices from the United States go to show that the questions connected with the new cruisers are likely to be settled summarily by the refusal of Congress to build them at all. The *United States Army and Navy Journal* gives us to understand that, not the engines alone, but the hulls of the new ships are criticised. The inquiries of the Senate Naval Committee have revealed serious differences of opinion on the subject of the new cruisers. Chief Naval Constructor T. D. Wilson objects to placing the batteries in a central superstructure with an open fore-castle and poop deck, as allowing too much water to dash over the ships and impairing their speed in a high sea. The Secretary of the Navy, the Bureau of Ordnance, and a majority of the Advisory Board were of the opinion, on the contrary, that the sea-going qualities of the ship would be in no way impaired, while the fighting capacity would be notably increased. While Mr. Wilson does not think the Boston and Atlanta will be entire failures, he stated to the Committee that he thought it would be unwise to build any more vessels of their type. He has also doubts about the success of the Chicago. He does not believe she will make over 15 knots an hour in a heavy sea, and will fall considerably below that. The Senate Naval Committee continues to hear testimony on the subject. Admiral Porter was before the Committee and gave his views on the vessels now being built and those that should be built. Commodore Simpson and Semmes, Captain Johnson and Commander Bartlett were also heard. Other officers will be invited to appear. Meanwhile, the daily papers are vigorously discussing the merits of the new cruisers. The *New York Evening Post* has an article rigorously criticising them, which bears internal evidence of having been written by a naval officer. The *Chicago papers* are especially savage in their attacks. The *Tribune* of that city devotes nine columns to an account of the abuses of the naval administration. Thus the doubt increases as to whether Congress will make any further appropriation for new vessels for the present. This is certainly one way of settling the difficulty.

A GREAT RUSSIAN BRIDGE.

We learn from Russian newspapers just to hand that the idea of repeating the ice railway across the Bay of Cronstadt, tried with partial success in the year 1881, has now been finally given up. A scheme has, in fact, taken its place for connecting Cronstadt and Oranienbaum by a bridge at a cost of about sixteen millions of roubles. The structure will be erected under the supervision of engineers appointed by the Russian Government. It will rest upon granite pillars, fixed by the caisson method, each of them protected from the action of the waves during the prevalence of south-west winds by an angular wall-like guard of stone. The bridge will be 7½ versts in length, and is expected to be completed in the year 1889. When finished it will consist of two parts—a railway and a foot bridge—and will be lit by the electric light.

LITERATURE.

Steel and Iron; Comprising the Practice and Theory of the Several Methods Pursued in their Manufacture, and of their Treatment in the Rolling Mill, the Forge, and the Foundry. By W. H. GREENWOOD, F.C.S., M.I.M.E., &c. London, Paris, and New York: Cassell and Co. 1884.

This volume is one of the series of manuals of technology edited by Professor Ayrton and Dr. Wormell, having for their professed object the description of the various processes practised in the industry of which they treat, and the exposition of the scientific principles which underlie their application. The importance of such a work at the present moment can scarcely be overrated; our industries in general, and the iron trade in particular, are passing through one of those crises which, however much suffering they may for the time being cause to all connected with the trade, rarely pass away without leaving behind them a permanent benefit in the shape of improved processes whose object is an economy either of labour or material; and it is undeniable that the surest mode of attaining such economic improvement is the technical education of the artisan. As long as the workman remains a mere empiricist, content to work by rule of thumb, so long will he be found not only incapable of appreciating, but even ready to oppose, actively or passively, all progress in his trade. When the manufacturer finds that he has but little margin between the selling price and the cost of production, his utmost efforts must be directed towards the reduction of the latter by improved processes of manufacture; and the first step towards this desideratum must lie in the intelligent co-operation of his workpeople. This can only be attained by the prudent education of the masses, and notably by that training in elementary scientific principles which forms the groundwork of technological education, such as has of late years made exceptionally rapid advances in this country, and of the spread of which works like the present are the direct result.

The volume before us gives in a very compact form a clear though brief outline of all the most important pro-

cesses employed in the production of iron and steel, including their most recent developments; and though the author can tell us but little, if anything, that is novel or original, yet he has succeeded in giving a very good idea of the principles and practice of iron and steel manufacture.

Again, in the chapters on refractory materials and the ores of iron, we notice several slips. Surely 87 per cent. of silica cannot be considered an unusually high proportion of that substance in siliceous sand, nor do we see how it is possible to have a brown hematite containing no water of combination.

The account of iron smelting in the blast furnace, which forms the next portion of the book, is fairly accurate and comprehensive, although the author does not sufficiently bring out the advantages of the closed front, nor does he pay sufficient attention to the most modern developments of blast furnace construction, such as the jacketting of the hearth with water plates, the employment of large water breasts and bronze tuyeres, &c.; nor does he mention the spray tuyeres which are so highly approved of by some authorities.

In the next part of his subject, the manufacture of iron and steel, the author appears to be far more at home than in the production and applications of cast iron. His account of the various methods of producing wrought iron, especially of the numerous mechanical puddlers that have from time to time been introduced, is very good.

The last portion of the book, treating of the manufacture of steel, is very well executed, although the descriptions of some of the processes are scarcely as clear or as complete as might be desired; too much space has, perhaps, on the other hand, been devoted to such processes as the Heaton, Ellershausen, &c.

Upon the whole, and in spite of the blemishes we have noticed, the author may be congratulated upon having produced one of the best text books for its size on the technology of iron and steel, and one which cannot fail to be of service to a large class of readers, whether they be students who, possessing a knowledge of pure science, wish to get a clear conception of the different metallurgical processes, or workmen who have already gained their technical knowledge by practical experience, but wish in addition to

understand the scientific principles upon which their practice is based.

PRIVATE BILLS IN PARLIAMENT.

ON Thursday, in the Robing Room of the House of Lords, a conference was held between Lord Redesdale (Chairman of Committees of the House of Lords) and Sir Arthur Otway (Chairman of Ways and Means) on the one part, and the parliamentary agent having charge of Private Bills, for the purpose of deciding which Bills should commence in the Lords and which in the Commons.

The following will commence in the Commons:—Aldershot, Farnham, and Petersfield Railway, Anglesey and Carnarvon Direct Railway (No. 1), Athenry and Ennis Junction and Midland Great Western of Ireland Railway Companies, Avonmouth and South Wales Junction Railway, Barnstable and Lynton Railway, Barrmill and Kilwinning Railway, Barry Docks and Railways, Basingstoke, Alton, and Petersfield Railway, Bishop's Castle Extension to Montgomery Railway, Blackpool Railway, Caledonian Railway (No. 1), Caledonian Railway (No. 2), Cardiff and Monmouthshire Valley Railways, Central Wales and Carmarthen Junction Railway, Chatham and Brompton Tramways, Cleveland Extension Mineral Railway, Cork and Bandon and Clonakilty Extension Railway Companies, Cork and Kenmare Railway, Cranbrook and Paddock Wood Railway, Croydon and Kingston Junction Railway, Croydon Central Stations and Railways, Croydon Direct Railway, Croydon, Norwood, Dulwich, and London Railways, Denbighshire and Shropshire Junction Railway, Dore and Chinley Railway, Dublin Junction Railway, Dublin, Wicklow, and Wexford Railway, Dundee Suburban Railway, East and West Junction Railway, Eastern and Midlands Railway, East London Railway, East London Tramways, East of London, Crystal Palace, and South-Eastern Junction Railway, Easton and Church Hope Railway, Edinburgh Northern Tramways, Edinburgh Street Tramways, Enmerdale Railway, Essex (South-East) Tramways, Folkestone, Sandgate, and Hythe Tramways, Glasgow and South-Western Railway, Great Northern Railway, Great North of Scotland Railway, Great Southern and Western Railway (Additional Powers), Great Southern and Western Railway (Tullow Extension), Great Western Railway (No. 1), Great Western Railway (No. 2), Halifax High Level and North and South Junction Railways, Hendon Railway, Henley-in-Arden and Great Western Junction Railway, Highland Railway (New Lines), Highland Railway (Northern Lines Amalgamation), Hull, Barnsley, and West Riding Junction Railway and Docks, Kilsyth and Bonnybridge Railway, Kingston, Fratton, and Southsea Tramways (Extension), Lancashire and Yorkshire and London and North-Western Railway Companies (Preston and Wyre Railway), Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway, Lea Bridge, Leyton, and Walthamstow Tramways (Extensions), Leominster and Bromyard Railway, Lincoln and Skegness Railway, Liverpool, Southport, and Preston Junction Railway, London and South-Western and Metropolitan District Railway Companies, London and South-Western Railway, London, Brighton, and South Coast Railway, London Central Electric Railway, London Chatham, and Dover Railway (Further Powers), London, Chatham, and Dover Railway (Shortlands and Nunhead), London Eastern Tramways, Avonmouth and South Wales Junction Railway; London, Reigate, and Brighton Railway, London Southern Tramways (Extension), London Street Tramways, London, Tilbury, and Southend Railway, London Tramways, Manchester, Bury, and Rochdale Tramways (Extensions), Manchester, Middleton, Rochdale, and District Tramways, Manchester, Sheffield, and Lincolnshire Railway (Additional Powers), Manchester, Sheffield, and Lincolnshire Railway (Chester to Connah's Quay), Mersey Railway, Metropolitan and London, Tilbury, and Southend Railways, Metropolitan Board of Works (District Railway Ventilators), Metropolitan District Railway, Metropolitan Outer Circle Railway, Metropolitan Railway (Park Railway and Parliament-street Improvement), Metropolitan Railway (Various Powers), Midland Railway, Milford Docks Junction Railway, North-Eastern Railway, North London Tramways, North Metropolitan Tramways, Oxted and Groombridge Railway, Paisley and District Tramways, Peckham and East Dulwich Tramways, Plymouth, Devonport, and District Tramways, Rhondda and Bristol Channel Railway, Ruthin and Cerrig-y-Druiddion Railway, Scarborough and East Riding Railway, Scarborough and Whitby Railway, Severn Bridge and Forest of Dean Central Railway, Skipton and North-Eastern Junction Railway, South-Eastern and Channel Tunnel Railways, South-Eastern Railway (Various Powers), South-East Metropolitan Railway, Stockton Carr Railway, Strathpey, Strathdon, and Deside Junction Railway, Sutton and Willoughby Railway, Swindon and Cheltenham (Extension) Railway, Swindon, Marlborough, and Andover and Swindon and Cheltenham (Extension) Railway Companies Amalgamation, Swindon, Marlborough, and Andover Railway, Taff Vale Railway, Tooting, Balham, and Brixton Railway, Totnes, Paignton, and Torquay Direct Railway, Triferig Valley Railway, Upwell, Outwell, and Wisbech Railway (Abandonment), Lisk and Towry Railway, Uxbridge and Rickmansworth Railway, Walton-on-the-Hill, Banstead, and Caterham Junction Railway, Watford, Edgware, and London Railway, West Lancashire Railway (Capital and Extensions), West Metropolitan Tramways (Extensions), Whitechurch, Nantwich, and Cheshire Junction Railways, Wirral Railway, Wisbech Dock and Railways.

On Thursday the Examiner sat to dispose of a few Bills which, for various reasons, had been postponed. The Tooting, Balham, and Brixton Railway Bill was one of these matters. The object of the Bill is to put the district through which it is to run in more direct communication with the Chatham and Dover Railway, and accordingly powers are taken to construct a line from the Chatham Company's railway at Brixton to Tooting, via Balham and Tooting Bec Common. For about half its

length the line will run almost parallel with the Brixton-road and Streatham Hill. The cost of carrying out the project is estimated by the promoters' engineers at £349,787, which will be covered by the £400,000 which is to be raised in the usual way. Certain owners of property who complained of an infringement of the Standing Orders succeeded in establishing their allegations, Standing Orders not being complied with. The case will in due course go before the Standing Orders Committee.

COLCHESTER WATER TOWER.

THE drawings we give on page 130 and our supplement are those of a brick and stone water tower, and cast iron tank, lately erected in Colchester, for the Corporation, who in 1881 purchased the water works from a company. One of the first things found necessary was the sinking and boring of a new well into the chalk formation, a description of which appeared in THE ENGINEER of January 27th, 1882. The tower and tank just completed is another and principal step in the direction of a constant and full supply. The engine power is somewhat small, and while the water had to be forced immediately into the town mains at a high pressure, the jar and strain on them was very great, leading naturally to the necessity of frequent repairs, and sometimes to actual breakdown of the pumping machinery. The desirability of a high service reservoir thus became apparent; and the Town Council instructed their engineer, Mr. Clegg, to prepare plans and specifications of the work. It was at first thought practicable to construct a covered service reservoir of brick or concrete, on a hill adjoining the town; but on going into the matter carefully, it was seen beyond a doubt, that the elevation of the ground was quite inadequate to overcome the friction in the mains leading to the town, a distance of some two miles, and still have head sufficient to command the upper parts of the town. In consequence of the impossibility of constructing a reservoir of the usual kind, plans and estimates were prepared for the tower and tank now illustrated. The tower is constructed of the red bricks of the neighbourhood, dressed with red Corshill stone, which is rich in colour and an admirable weathering stone. The girders supporting the floor of the cast iron tank are bedded on templates of Bramley fall, and a gran to kerb 2ft. wide is carried round the outer edges of the tower immediately under the sides of the tank. Access is to be had to the tank by means of a spiral cast iron staircase, built up in 9in. lengths on a centre core, the outer ends of the treads resting on York stone corbels, built into the brickwork, as the work proceeded, the steps being left free; in this manner any settlement that might have taken place would have left them free to move, and prevented fracture. On a level with the crown of the arches connecting the pier is a concrete floor; on this level is the valve of the bypass, by opening which the water is able to pass round from the rising to the delivery mains without going into the tank, and the town can be supplied by this means at a sufficient pressure during the cleansing and repairs of the inside of the tank. The tank is built up of cast iron plates, varying in thickness from 3/4in. to 1/2in., all breaking joint and bolted together as indicated by the drawings. The caulking spaces are carefully filled in and caulked with sal-ammoniac, sulphur, and iron borings. The sides of the tank are stayed by 1 1/2in. wrought iron ties running right across from side to side, and supported at intervals by uprights, formed of 3in. gas tubing with cast iron caps screwed on to them and recessed to receive the stays. On the outer side of the tank, and at the end of each stay, is a circular cast iron washer plate as shown on the drawing, and the cast iron gussets which are built up in three pieces against the inner sides of the tank plates take the immediate pull of the stays when tightened, and keep the sides of the work true and square. The circular plates in the centre carry the staircase, which from the top of the tank to the lantern on roof is self supporting. The reservoir when at overflow level holds in round figures 230,000 gallons.

The works were opened by the Mayor and Corporation, on Thursday, September 27th, 1883, and Sir Robert Rawlinson, C.B., C.E., who gave his advice to the engineer throughout the entire work, was present and assisted at the ceremony; and his words, "I am assured that the work stands there without a crack and without a flaw," are ample testimony to the way in which the work was executed by the contractors, they being, for the tower, Messrs. H. Everett and Son, of Colchester, and for the tank, main laying, &c., Mr. A. G. Mumford, of the Culver-street Ironworks, in the same town.

TENDERS.

FULHAM-ROAD WORKHOUSE.—FIRE-ESCAPE STAIRCASE.

FOR the erection of fire-escape staircase at the Fulham-road Workhouse, for the Guardians of the Poor of the St. George's Union. Mr. H. Saxon Snell, architect.

Table with 2 columns: Name and Price (£ s. d.).

SOUTHALL SCHOOLS.—FIRE-ESCAPE STAIRCASE.

FOR the erection of fire-escape staircase at Southall Schools, for the Guardians of the Poor of the parish of St. Marylebone. Messrs. H. Saxon Snell and Son, architects.

Table with 2 columns: Name and Price (£ s. d.).

ST. LUKE'S WORKHOUSE.—CISTERN, &c.

FOR the erection of cast iron cisterns and supports, and for various alterations of the water pipes and adapting them to the new artesian well at City-road Workhouse, for the Guardians of the Poor of the Holborn Union. Messrs. H. Saxon Snell and Son, architects.

Table with 2 columns: Name and Price (£ s. d.).

FULHAM-ROAD WORKHOUSE.—IRON BRIDGE.

FOR the erection of an iron bridge between men's and women's dormitories of the Fulham-road Workhouse, for the Guardians of the Poor of the St. George's Union. Mr. H. Saxon Snell, architect.

Table with 2 columns: Name and Price (£ s. d.).

IRON AND STEEL WORKS, RESCHITZA, HUNGARY.

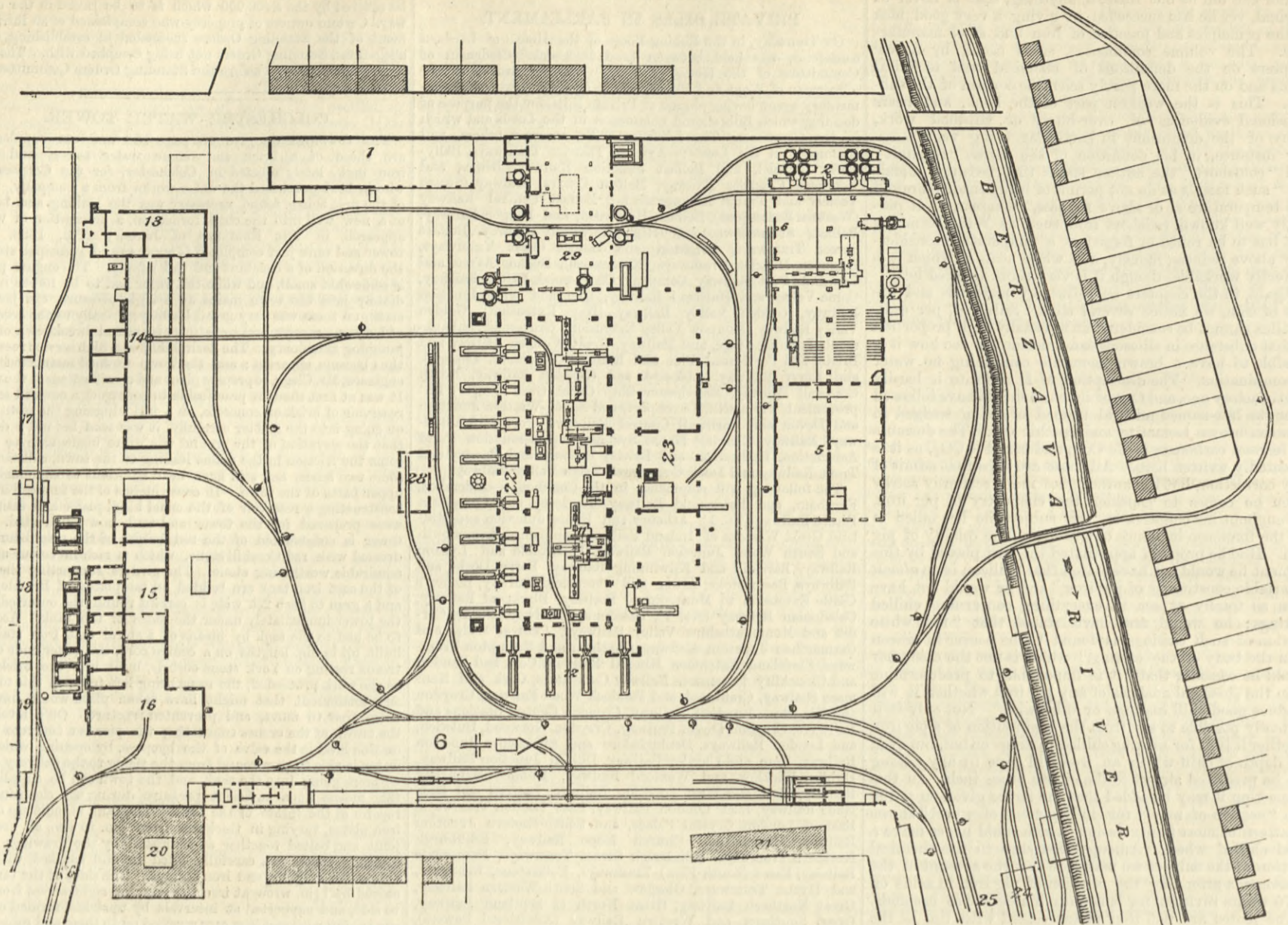


Fig. 9.—GROUND PLAN OF PUDDLING FURNACES, STEAM HAMMERS, ROLLING MILL, FIRE-BRICK WORKS, AND REPAIR SHOPS.

- | | | | | | |
|--|--------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Boiler shop. | 5. Rail finishing shops. | 10. Merchant mill. | 14. Repair shop. | 20 and 21. Workmen's barracks. | 25. Railway station. |
| 2. Heating furnaces for rail mill. | 6. Testing machines. | 11. Blooming trains. | 15. Fire-brick works. | 22. Tubular boilers. | 27. Shearing machines. |
| 3. 700-H.P. high-speed engine for saw. | 7. Universal mill. | 12. Puddling furnaces and boilers. | 16. Roll foundry. | 23. Finishing machines. | 29. 17-ton steam hammer. |
| 4. Saw. [driving 3-high rail mill.] | 8. Plate mill. | 13. Smithy. | 17, 18, 19, and 26. Stores. | 24. Locomotive running shed. | |

IRON AND STEEL WORKS, RESCHITZA, HUNGARY.

No. IV.

Rolling mill.—It is the misfortune rather than the fault of the Reschitza Works, owing to their having grown up gradually round a nucleus, that the rolling mill, a ground plan of which is given at Fig. 9, above, is not contiguous to the steel works. The ingots, after being allowed to cool, are brought by small locomotives and then heated in furnaces provided with hydraulic press, rack, chain, and pulley for withdrawing them. The mill serves indifferently for steel and iron; but whereas 28,000 tons of Bessemer and Martin steel are turned out yearly, only 7000 tons of finished iron are now produced. The latter is supplied by three double and five single puddling furnaces, all worked by hand. The former treat four charges of 600 kilogs.—12 cwt.—each every twelve hours, with 10 per cent. of loss; and the latter five charges of 300 kilogs.—6 cwt. in the same time, with a loss of only 9½ per cent. The waste heat from each double furnace, and each pair of single furnaces, fires a horizontal steam boiler, 11 m. long, by 1.42 m. diameter—36ft. by 4ft. 8in. All the puddling furnaces, and nearly all the heating furnaces, have stepped grates, for admitting a large quantity of atmospheric air, and so permitting of the consumption of inferior coal. Frequently the whole charge of the puddling furnace is worked in a single ball, shingled under a 3-ton steam hammer, for making the covers of plate piles. First-class plates are rolled from a pile consisting of covers and mill bars; while the piles for second-class plates consist of covers and old rails or other scrap. There is a special furnace for heating old rails, in order to be flattened into the covers of rail and other piles, which are prepared with more than ordinary care, and bound with stout wire.

There are in this department seven steam hammers, varying from 6 to 17 tons, the two largest of which are of the type shown at Fig. 10, supplied by the Märkische Maschinenbau Anstalt,

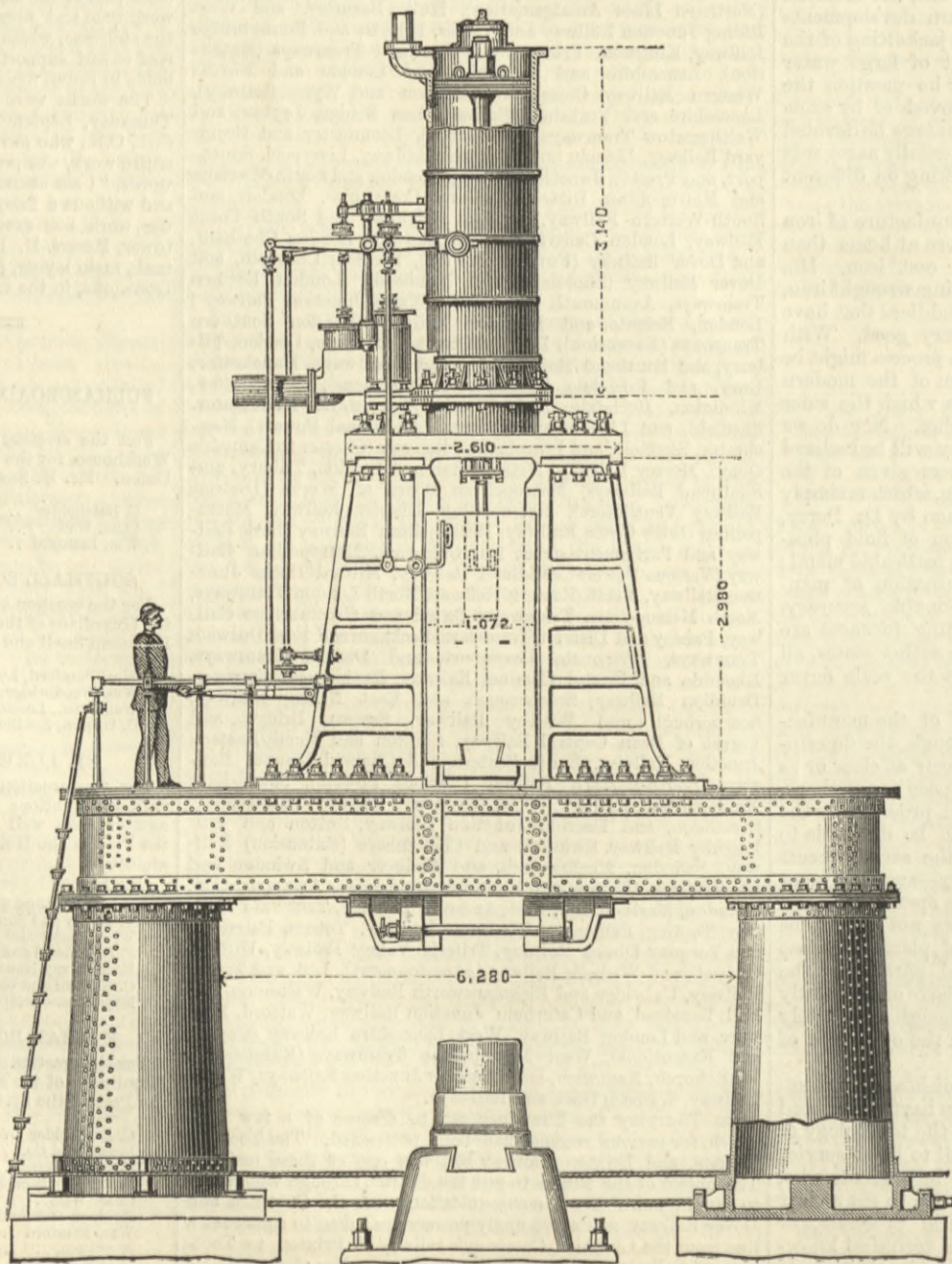


Fig. 10.—17-TON STEAM HAMMER.

of Wetter-on-the-Ruhr. The nearly cylindrical uprights and the cross-beam are composed of wrought iron plates. In the case of the 17-ton hammer—29 on the plan—the fall is 2½ m. = 8ft. 3in., while the weight of the anvil block, cast at the works, is 185 tons. The clear width between uprights is 6.28 m. or 20ft. 7in. The hammer is single-acting, and hand-worked by means of double-beat valves. The diameter of cylinder is 1.1 m., or 3ft. 8in.

Besides the tire mill, which will be referred to below, there are eight roll trains, the gear of which has mitre-shaped teeth, so as to work smoothly and avoid breakage as far as possible. Taking these trains in the upward direction, from the bottom of the plan, Fig. 9, the first is the blooming train, and the second a similar train used for rolling the mill bars for piling, and also small rails, &c. Each of these trains is driven by a 45-horse power beam engine. Next comes the small merchant mill, marked 10 on the plan. In this are also rolled the special bars with projections, for being afterwards cut into lengths to form the dogs for fastening down flange rails. No. 8 is the plate, and No. 9 the sheet mill, the two driven by a 100-horse power horizontal engine. About 1500 tons of plates up to 2 m. = 6ft. 6in. wide, and weighing a ton after shearing, are turned out yearly, and are as highly esteemed as those of the far-famed Styrian iron. Mild steel plates, capable of being pressed into form, are also produced. No. 7 is the universal mill, in which wide flat bars for bridge and girder work are rolled to the amount of about 1500 tons annually. A bar may be rolled in this mill up to 70 cm. = 2ft. 3½in., wide, and from 1 cm. to 13 cm.—½in. to 5in.—thick. This mill, and that adjoining, which was formerly used for rails, but now produces large merchant iron and H bars, are driven by a 200-horse power horizontal engine with 40-ton fly-wheel.

Steel rails are now rolled in the new three-high mill—marked 3 on plan—erected in a separate building between the forge and the river, and capable of producing 300 rails in twelve

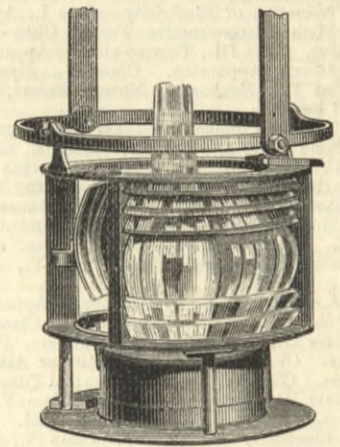
hours. The engine has a single horizontal cylinder of 1.1 m. = 3ft. 7in. diameter and 1.57 m. = 5ft. 2in. stroke, and makes from 60 to 70 revolutions a minute with steam of 52 lb. pressure. The steam is supplied by eight vertical boilers, 11.4 m. high by 1.6 m. in diameter—37ft. 5in. by 5ft. 3in.—four of which are fired by the waste heat of the furnaces—marked 2 on the plan—for heating the ingots. The peculiarity of these boilers is that the flames or gases, which circulate freely outside them, are in direct contact with the plates of the upper portion or steam space, though at this height they have already given up a large portion of their heat. The engine is provided with the Kamp arrangement of double valve gear, but has neither expansion nor condensation.

tire by hydraulic pressure of 200 atmospheres. These two rolls and two others, set in and out by screws, for guiding the tire and keeping it round, are all that appear above the floor. Special ingots of a conical shape, 56 cm. = 22in. high, and 31 cm. = 1ft. in diameter at the base, are reduced, under the 17-ton steam hammer, to discs 14 cm. = 5½in. thick, with a hole in the middle, and are then, at the same heat, hammered on the beak of a 6-ton hammer. They are then re-heated and rolled off in a single heat in the mill, which is capable of producing forty in twelve hours. The tire mill is served by a large furnace in close proximity, which is also used to anneal steel plates and axles. It is shown, with dimensions in millimetres, by Figs. 11, 12, and 13, below. It is

melted in six reverberatory furnaces instead of cupolas, the castings being found more homogeneous; and these furnaces also serve to calcine the refractory earth for making fire-bricks, &c., in the department adjoining. The silica bricks for lining furnaces are made with a very pure quartz, obtained from Budirisk in Austria, which is burnt by wood in heaps, covered with earth, to render it friable. It is then crushed in a Blake stone-breaker, further reduced by rolls, screened, and then ground by edge-runners with a certain proportion of old fire-brick. This powder is mixed with 2 per cent. of lime and sufficient water to render it plastic, when the clay is moulded by hand into the desired form. The various articles are then subjected to hydraulic pressure of 1500 lb. per square inch, excepting Bessemer tuyeres, stoppers and sockets, and such like small articles which are only subjected to a pressure of 225 lb. per square inch. They are dried in stoves and afterwards burnt in rectangular furnaces.

IMPROVED SHIPS' LIGHTS.

WE have recently had an opportunity of inspecting at the works of Mr. Peter Brotherhood, Lambeth, a set of ship lights constructed according to some improvements introduced by Messrs. Chance Bros. and Co., of Birmingham. The set consisted of port and starboard lights showing over angles of 112½ deg., a masthead light of 225 deg., and an all-round anchor or riding light. All these lights are truly dioptric, formed not of moulded or pressed glass, but of pure optical glass accurately curved, ground, and polished, having a focal distance of 125 millimetres, or 4.92in., and comprising a cylindrical belt with five lens-rings—six pieces in all, the height being about 6.5in. When the side lights are used without shelter the glass is framed in gun-metal, and mounted in a cylindrical lantern of copper and gun-metal about 27in. high and 12in. in diameter, with a domed top. Messrs. Chance have, however, introduced a method of mounting the lenses of side lights in an open gimbal framing without



the lantern top, and placing them in small iron turrets on the ship, having suitable plate-glass windows and a trimming stage for service. The beam is thus always directed in a horizontal plane, and the steady maintenance and easy management of the light secured. We have illustrated in the accompanying engraving this form of side light.

The lights may, of course, be used with any illuminant. Those which we saw in use, with the exception of the anchor light, were lit with Swan incandescent lamps of 100-candles each. It is a little difficult to say with certainty whether a lamp of this kind or power would be the best under all circumstances at sea. On the night of our inspection they were shown across the Thames, and the weather was clear. The lights were very bright indeed. In our opinion they were too bright, and might, with lamps of the above power, be embarrassing at sea should the vessels bearing them come fairly close to one another. This, however, is a matter capable of easy adjustment, and in no way affects the design and fitting of the lights, which are excellent.

EXHIBITION OF METEOROLOGICAL INSTRUMENTS.—The Council of the Royal Meteorological Society have arranged to hold at 25, Great George-street, S.W., by permission of the President and Council of the Institution of Civil Engineers, on the evening of March 19th next, an Exhibition of Thermometers. The Exhibition Committee invite co-operation, as they are anxious to obtain as large a collection as possible of such instruments. The committee will be glad to show any new meteorological apparatus invented or first constructed since last March, as well as photographs and drawing possessing meteorological interest.

ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING.—The fifth lecture of a series on "Electrical Engineering," by Mr. John C. Fell, was delivered in the reading-room of the Society of Engineers, 6, Westminster-chambers, on Monday last, Mr. Jabez Church, past president, in the chair. The lecturer again took up the subject of circuit arrangements, and the optional methods for the disposal of lamps for electric lighting, either in series or in parallel arc. A large number of the best known arc lamps, such as the Siemens, the Brush, the Joel, the Wordermann, and the Brockie, dating back as far as 1846, were illustrated by diagrams and explained. The different methods by which the respective feeds are controlled was fully gone into, and the value of controlling the feed by the varying resistance of shunt currents was pointed out. The relative advantages of the arc and semi-incandescent lamps were compared, and the peculiarities of their structure detailed. In conclusion, Mr. Fell enlarged upon the absolute necessity for commercial success of a lamp being so constructed that it would not go out or flicker.

THE INTERNATIONAL RAIL MANUFACTURERS' CONVENTION FOR THE REGULATION OF PRICES.—With reference to this convention, the *Rheinisch Westphalische Zeitung* says:—"Such an arrangement between the larger English, Belgian, and German railmakers appears to be a *fait accompli*. It has been agreed that in quoting prices for export these works shall not compete against each other, but according to a fixed arrangement distribute the quantities amongst themselves, compensating those who do not obtain orders by some means or other. The difference in freight from the different shipping ports cannot offer a serious obstacle to such an international agreement and its duration, as the prices given in the various tenders are always calculated on a basis price at works. At all events such a measure, which long ago has proved of practical value in Germany, will put an end to the internecine competition for foreign orders and cannot fail to exercise an important influence on the course of prices, and thus create a favourable change in the position of the industrial establishments of the Rhenish and Westphalian works. The larger ones engaged in the rail trade are mostly concerned, such as Krupp, Bochum, Dortmund Union, Rhenish Steel Works, &c., and of these the two first have hitherto played the most important part in the export trade."

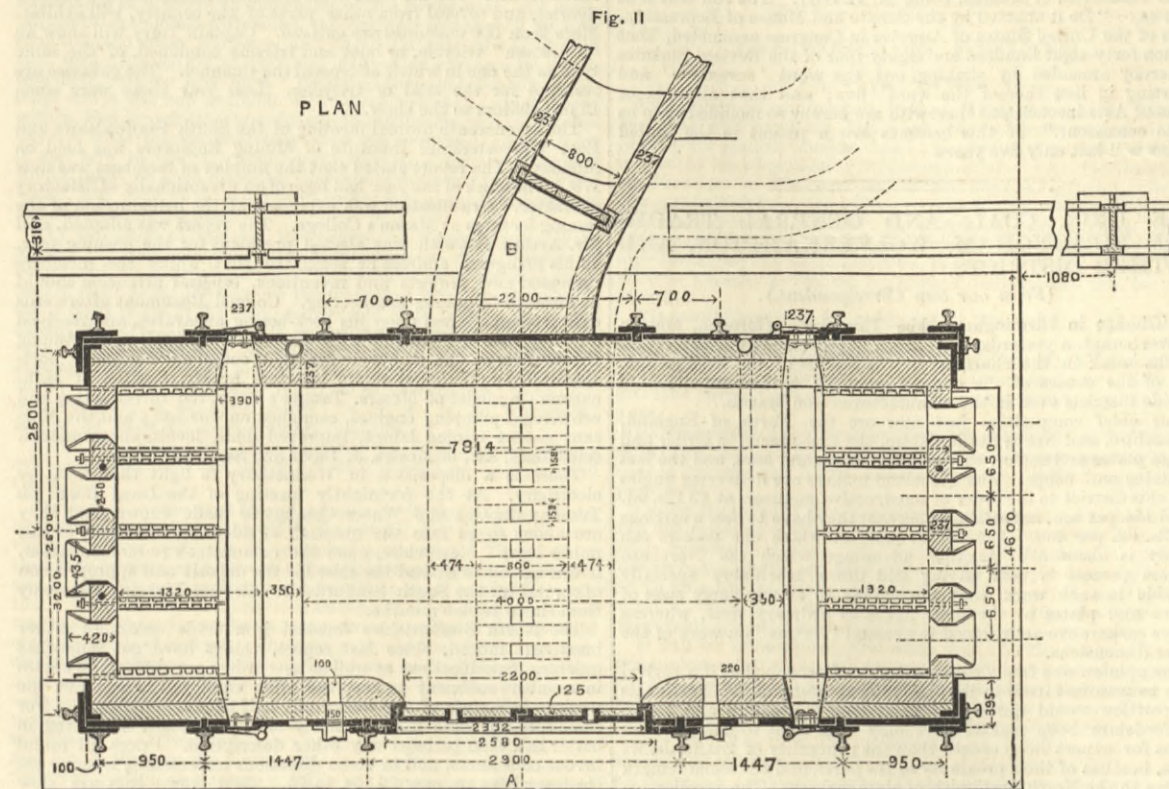
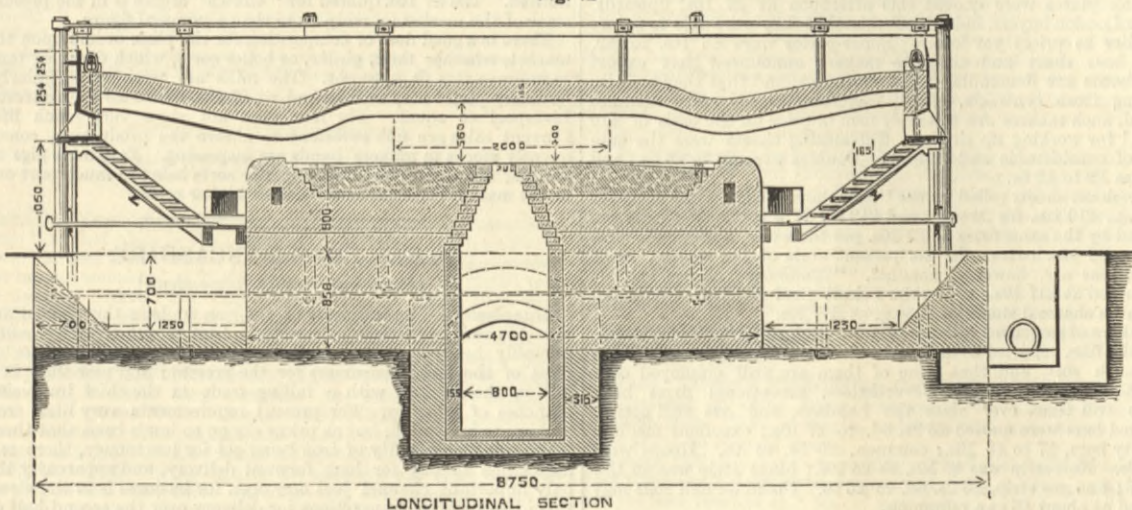


Fig. 12



A skilful driver, however, constantly regulates the stop valve according to the work; and the last passes are often made without steam, the engine being provided with a 40-ton fly-wheel. The large ingots are cogged and rolled off at one heat, and in from twenty-one to twenty-five passes, into bars over 21 m. long. The mill, 18 m. = 59ft. long, has three sets of rolls, the first of which is provided with steam lifts, one on each side, while a travelling crane permits of readily changing the rolls. The bar is fed up by live rollers to the circular saw, which, by means of rack and hand wheel, advances to meet it and cuts it into two or three lengths. The rails are passed on from the bench to the straightening presses, the double paring machines, which reduce them to dead lengths, and the drilling machines, which drill the four holes at once; these are all arranged in a direct line, so that the ingots are converted into rails, and these loaded upon railway wagons, without travelling over the same ground twice. With regard to the quality of the rails, the engineer-in-chief to one of the French railway companies, who has tested them, reported that they stand and wear well, and that the steel is better than that produced by French works. At the time of the Iron and Steel Institute visit, 6-metre and 8-metre rails were being rolled for the Hungarian State Railway, and these were followed by orders for the Siebenbürgen and other Hungarian railways, and 20,000 tons of rails for renewals and extensions of the company's own system.

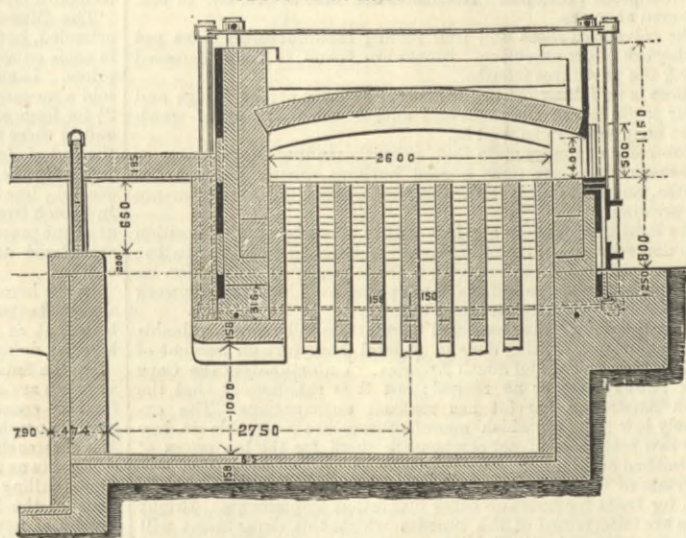
A horizontal tire-mill, by the Märkische Maschinenbau Anstalt, is contained in a prolongation of the forge, shown at the top of the plan. It is driven by a horizontal engine, with pair of cylinders, 0.63 m. diameter and 1.42 m. stroke—2ft. by 4ft. 8in.—representing at 90 revolutions 500 horse-power, erected underground, so as to leave the space all round free for working. The engines work by means of mitre gear on to a vertical shaft, carrying the female roll with a single groove. The male roll is pressed against the inside of the

fired by two stepped grates, one on either side; and the flames from each pass over half the hearth, descending together by a central passage, whence the products of combustion are led to the chimney by a horizontal flue provided with a damper.

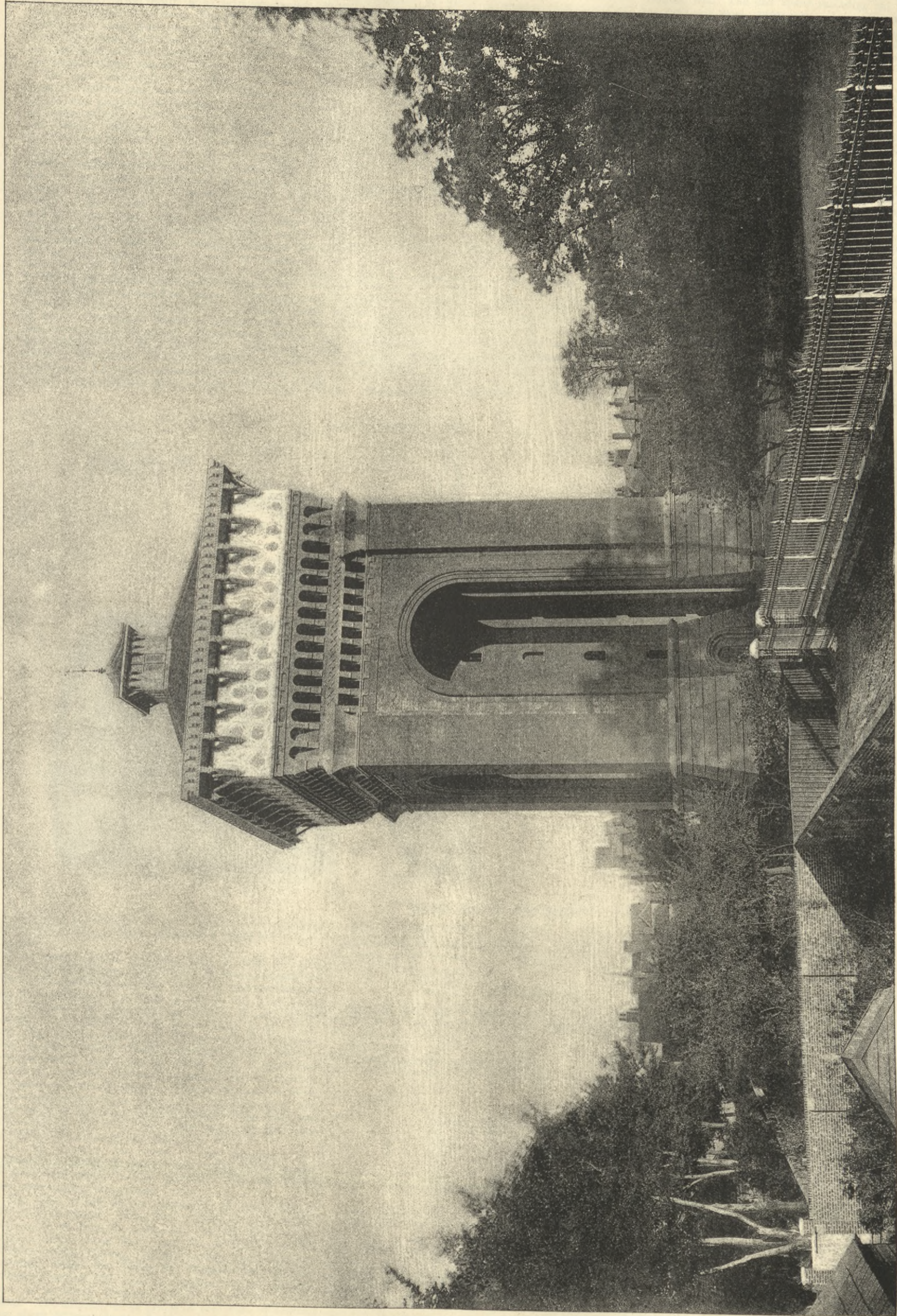
The plan of rolling mill—Fig. 9—also shows the position of the boiler shop—marked 1—the smithy—13—the

Fig. 13

SECTION BY LINE A. B



repair shop—14—the fire-brick works—15—and the roll foundry—16. The last-named department was originally the Imperial cannon foundry; and the pits formerly used for casting guns are now utilised for casting the rolling-mill rolls and steam cylinders. The moulds for the former are made in loam with a template. All the moulds are dried in ovens, no green sand being employed. Powdered charcoal is here used for coating the moulds, instead of powdered coal; and for the finer castings it is mixed with an equal quantity of plumbago. The metal is



"INK PHOTO," SPRACUE & CO., LONDON

WATER TOWER, COLCHESTER.
MR CHARLES CLEGG, M.I.C.E. ENGINEER, COLCHESTER.

