

INTERNATIONAL INVENTIONS EXHIBITION.

As our readers are aware, this Exhibition is to be opened to the public on the 4th inst. by H.R.H. the Prince of Wales. Considerable alterations and extensions have been made to the buildings since last year, many of the low and narrow erections which were generally very inconvenient and ill-lighted having been swept away and replaced by wider and loftier structures. Notably we may mention the addition of North and South Courts to the South Gallery, which has not only given much extra space, but has greatly improved the internal appearance of this portion of the Exhibition. What was known as the "Healtheries" as the Western Annexe has also been entirely rebuilt on a much larger scale, and opened on one side to the West Gallery.

The Inventions Exhibition consists of two divisions. The first comprises inventions, which include apparatus, appliances, processes, and products invented or brought into use since 1862, the general aim being to bring before the public the progress which has been made during the

and air engines, &c.; means of utilising natural forces; and means of transmitting power.

Group V—Railway Plant: comprising rolling stock (excepting locomotives); fixed and other appliances; brakes (hand and automatic); tramways; atmospheric railways; portable railways, &c.

Group VI—Common Road Carriages, &c.: comprising carriages for common roads; bicycles and tricycles; saddlery and harness; farriery.

Group VII—Naval Architecture: comprising ship and boat building; ships' fittings; marine propulsion (including steering).

Group VIII—Aeronautics: comprising balloons; aeronautic apparatus.

Group IX—Manufacture of Textile Fabrics.

Group X—Machine Tools and Machinery: comprising metal-working machines; wood-working machinery; stone-working machinery.

Group XI—Hydraulic Machines, Presses, Machines for Raising Heavy Weights, Weighing, &c.: comprising pumps; hand, steam, rotary, centrifugal; fire engines; cranes

Group XVI—Fuel, Furnaces, &c.: comprising manufacture of fuel; furnaces for manufacturing purposes; stoves for coal, for gas, for oil, &c.

Group XVII—Food, Cookery, and Stimulants: comprising machinery for treating grain and flour; manufacturing articles of food, &c.

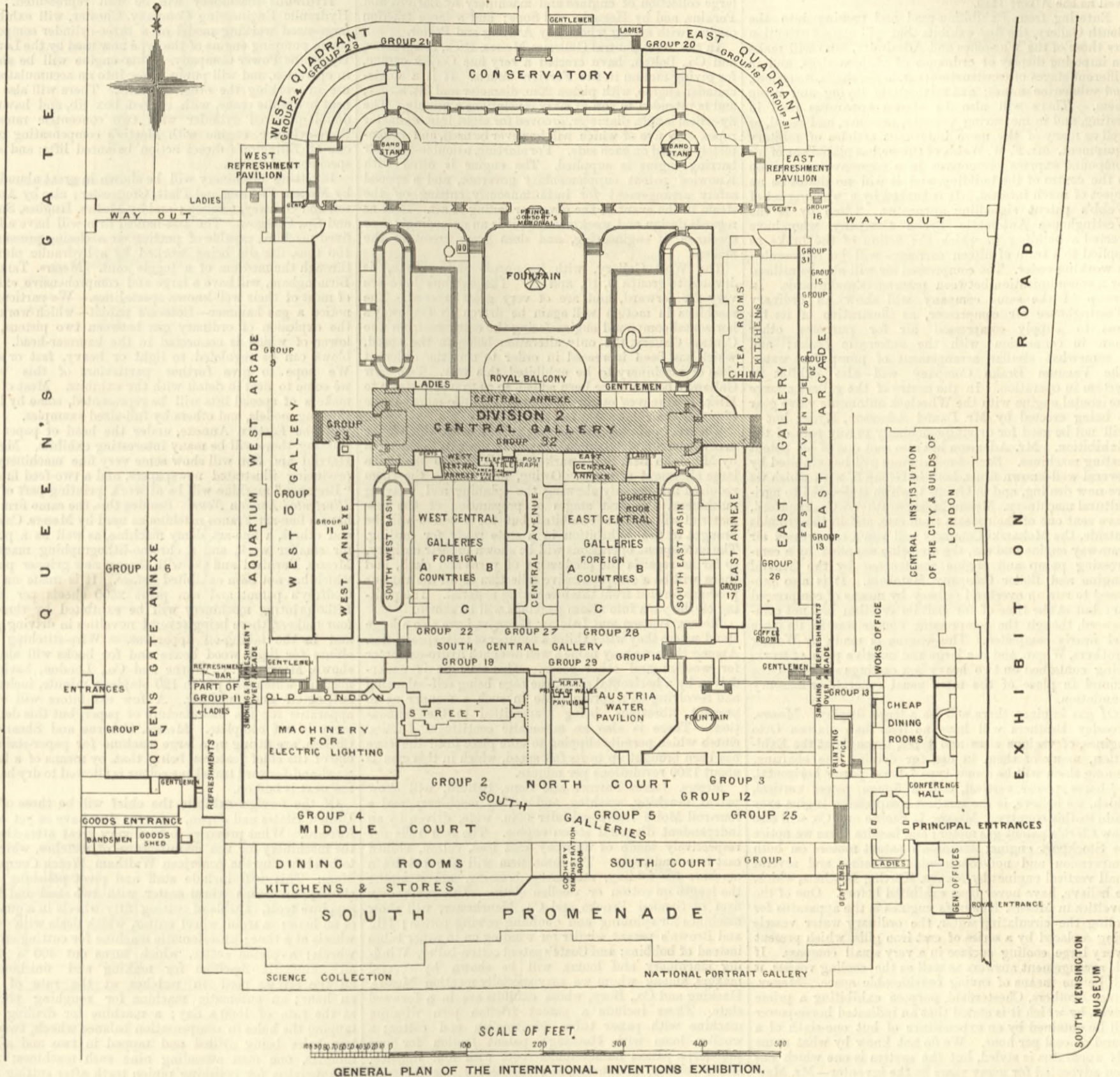
Group XVIII—Clothing: comprising fabrics; articles of clothing; machinery and apparatus; cleaning clothing; dress fastenings, &c.

Group XIX—Jewellery: comprising jewellery and personal ornaments.

Group XX—Leather, &c.: comprising manufacture of leather; treatment and application of leather—exclusive of saddlery and of boots and shoes—artificial leather, &c.

Group XXI—India-rubber and Gutta-percha, &c.: comprising machinery for treating india-rubber and gutta-percha, &c.

Group XXII—Furniture and Accessories—Fancy Goods: comprising furniture and upholstery; floor coverings and wall coverings (other than paperhangings); artistic and ornamental metal work; trunks; portmanteaus, &c.;



last quarter of a century in applying the discoveries of science to the purposes of daily life. The second is entirely devoted to musical instruments, and machinery, apparatus and appliances connected with their use, or bearing upon the science and art of music.

Division I, to which we shall confine ourselves, is subdivided into thirty-one groups, containing 165 classes, which are disposed throughout the buildings in the manner shown in the accompanying plan:—

Group I—Agriculture, Horticulture, and Arboriculture: comprising field implements; barn and farmyard implements; dairy and poultry farm appliances; agricultural construction; cattle food; horticultural apparatus; arboriculture.

Group II—Mining and Metallurgy: comprising machinery and appliances used in mines and quarries; production and manufacture of iron and steel; forging and foundry work, &c.

Group III—Engineering Construction and Architecture: comprising roads; railways and tramways; bridges and viaducts, &c.

Group IV—Prime Movers, and Means of Distributing their Power: comprising steam engines and boilers; gas

and other lifting apparatus; hydraulic and other presses; weighing machines.

Group XII—Elements of Machines: comprising mechanical movements; separate parts of machines.

Group XIII—Electricity: comprising generators, conductors; testing and measuring apparatus; telegraphic and telephonic apparatus; electric lighting apparatus; electro-metallurgy and electro-chemistry; distribution and utilisation of power; electric signalling; lightning conductors; electro-medical apparatus; electrolytic methods for extracting and purifying metals; electro-thermic apparatus.

Group XIV—Apparatus, Processes, and Appliances connected with Applied Chemistry and Physics: comprising inorganic products, and means used in obtaining them; organic and synthetical products, and means used in obtaining them; apparatus and appliances for compressing and liquefying gases, and applications thereof.

Group XV—Gas and other Illuminants: comprising coal gas, water gas, oil gas, carburetted air, &c.; tests and photometrical apparatus; burners; and means of utilising and applying gas; mineral and other oils; candles, &c.; lamps for oil and spirits; holders for candles, &c.

basket work; brushes; umbrellas, parasols, and walking sticks.

Group XXIII—Pottery and Glass: comprising kilns and furnaces; bricks, tiles, earthenware, &c.; porcelain, majolica, and artistic pottery; crown, sheet, and plate glass, &c.; bottles, table glass, toughened glass, &c.

Group XXIV—Cutlery, Ironmongery, &c.: comprising cutlery and tools; surgical instruments and appliances; files and rasps; hardware; screws, nails, &c.

Group XXV—Fire-arms, Military Weapons and Equipment Explosives: comprising ordnance; fuses and detonators; guns, rifles, and pistols; swords, bayonets, and sappers' tools, &c.; gunpowder and ammunition; torpedoes, tele-meters, and military equipment.

Group XXVI—Paper, Printing, Bookbinding, Stationery, &c.: comprising machines and processes for the manufacture of paper, paste-board, and papier-mâché; machines, &c., for cutting, folding, and ornamenting paper; paper hangings; letterpress and other printing; book-binding, manufacture of portfolios, &c., applications of papier-mâché; artists' implements and materials; writing materials and appliances.

Group XXVII—Clocks, Watches, and other Time-keepers: comprising clocks; time signals, &c.; watches and chronometers; tools, &c.

Group XXVIII—Philosophical Instruments and Apparatus: comprising optical; astronomical; physical; electrical; chemical; mathematical; meteorological; geographical; nautical; weighing and measuring; biological.

Group XXIX—Photography: comprising processes and their results; apparatus (excluding lenses); application of photography to various purposes; typography, ceramics, relief-moulds, &c.

Group XXX—Educational Apparatus: comprising models and apparatus.

Group XXXI—Toys, Sports, &c.: comprising toys, games, and exercises; field sports; scenic and dramatic effects.

In addition to the foregoing, the plan also shows the space allotted to foreign exhibitors, the name of the country being given in each case.

Division II. comprises three groups of sixteen classes, and occupies those portions shown with dark shading, as well as the Albert Hall.

Entering from Exhibition-road and passing into the South Gallery, the first exhibits that will attract attention are those of the War-office and Admiralty, who will make an imposing display of ordnance of various sizes, and in different stages of construction; carriages, shells, torpedoes, and submarine mines; and methods of laying and firing them. There will also be shown apparatus used in testing, and in measuring velocity, pressure, and recoil, as well as many of the more important articles of military equipment. Mr. F. W. Webb, of Crewe, has placed one of his compound express locomotives in a commanding position in the centre of the building, and it will no doubt be an object of much interest. It is backed by a working set of Webb's patent signalling apparatus. Close by is the Westinghouse Automatic Brake Company, who have erected a building in which the action of the brake as applied to a train of fifteen carriages will be represented in working order. The compressed air will also be utilised for a communication between passengers and guards. In Group 11 the same company will show an ordinary Westinghouse air compressor, as illustrative of its fitness to supply compressed air for purposes other than in connection with the automatic brake; and a somewhat similar arrangement of pump for water. The Vacuum Brake Company will also exhibit its system in operation. In the centre of the gallery a large horizontal engine with the Wheelock automatic valve gear is being erected by Mr. Daniel Adamson, Hyde; but it will not be used for driving machinery in any part of the Exhibition. Mr. Adamson has also sent one of his patent testing machines. Semi-fixed engines will be exhibited by several well-known firms, both in Group 5, with which we are now dealing, and in Group 1, which is devoted to agricultural machinery. Messrs. Merryweather & Co., Deptford, have sent one of their steam tram-cars, and in the grounds outside, the Mekarski Company will run a compressed air tramway engine and car, the air being supplied by a compressing pump and engine constructed by the General Engine and Boiler Company, Hatcham. It is also proposed to run an overhead railway by means of compressed air; but at the time of our visit its erection had not commenced, though the compressing engine was in its place and nearly completed. This engine is made by Walker Brothers, Wigan, and is a large and massive piece of work, being contained on two heavy box castings sunk into the ground in place of the more usual concrete or masonry foundation.

Of gas engines there will be a large display. Messrs. Crossley Brothers will have no less than sixteen Otto engines, of various sizes and types, throughout the Exhibition, many of them in use for driving the shafting. Among them will be a new-type 7-horse power horizontal, a $\frac{3}{4}$ -horse power vertical, and a 5-horse power vertical, which, we believe, is the smallest compression engine ever made in this country. Messrs. L. Sterne and Co. will also show Clerk's patent gas motor; and besides these we notice the Stockport engine; Atkinson's patent motors on both compression and non-compression systems; and several small vertical engines by Messrs. Körting Brothers, which, we believe, have never been exhibited before. One of the novelties in Messrs. Körting's engines is the apparatus for cooling the circulating water, the ordinary water vessels being replaced by a series of cast iron gills, which present a very large cooling surface in a very small compass. If this arrangement answers as well as the cooling vessels, it will be the means of saving considerable space. Messrs. Oliver Brothers, Chesterfield, purpose exhibiting a prime mover, by which it is stated that an indicated horse-power will be obtained by an expenditure of but one-sixth of a pound of coal per hour. We do not know by what name this apparatus is styled, but the system is one which has been advocated for many years by the inventor—Mr. Marchant—and consists in returning a large portion of the used and expanded steam, back to the boiler without condensation, by means of pumps, so as to avoid the loss due to the rejection of the heat of vaporisation! We understand that careful trials are to be made with this machine, and we shall therefore defer criticism until the tests are made. We believe the working steam pressure is to be 500 lb. per square inch, and that the boiler which supplies it will weigh about 27 tons, the anticipated brake power of the motor being from 80 to 90 horses.

The mining section is situated in a new building, known as the North Court of the South Gallery. A good deal of the machinery will be shown in motion, and for this purpose Messrs. Galloway and Sons, Manchester, have erected one of their superposed compound engines with 14 in. and 24 in. cylinders by 3 ft. stroke. This engine has a fly-wheel, 15 ft. diameter, grooved for eight 1½ in. diameter ropes, with hand barring gear, and will run at seventy-two revolutions per minute. Three Galloway boilers, alongside, will supply steam for this engine, as well as for working such of the exhibits as have their own steam engines. Hauling engines will be exhibited by the Uskside Engine Company, Newport, Mon.: Messrs. Robey and Co., who will

show Richardson's patent mining engine; and others. In addition to a horizontal engine with Parnell's valve gear, Messrs. Hathorn and Co., Charing-cross, will have a large air compressor, running at about 100 revolutions per minute, and supplying air compressed to 150 lb. per square inch for working a number of rock drills. Messrs. Joshua Buckton and Co. have sent a very fine testing machine, capable of exerting a pull of 50 tons. This is one of Wicksteed's patent machines, and it is provided with an indicator for registering the elongations. Messrs. Jordan, Son, and Commans have had a large space allotted, and will show a number of their specialities, such as stone crushers and disintegrators, jiggling machinery for copper ore, concentrating apparatus for gold mining, and stamps.

Of agricultural machinery, which is to be found in the South Court of the South Gallery, we do not propose to say much at present, for the simple reason that most of it was so carefully covered up at the time of our visit that it was impossible to make more than a very partial examination. We noticed, however, a portable engine and some very fine specimens of work by Messrs. Richard Garrett and Sons, Leiston; a large collection of engines and machinery by Barford and Perkins, and by Hornsby and Sons; and a large traction engine, with spring wheels, by Aveling and Porter.

In the West Central Galleries Messrs. Hick, Hargreaves, and Co., Bolton, have erected a very fine Corliss engine, for giving motion in the Foreign Courts. It is a single-cylinder engine, with piston 20 in. diameter and 3 ft. stroke, and is intended to run at sixty revolutions a minute. The fly-wheel is 20 ft. diameter, grooved for eight 1½ in. diameter ropes, only five of which will however be used, and is completely plated on each side. For starting, a double-cylinder barring engine is supplied. The engine is fitted with Knowles' patent supplementary governor, and a special safety arrangement for instantaneously cutting off the steam in the event of the governor failing to act. Both as regards design and workmanship, it is an exceedingly fine specimen of engineering, and does great credit to the makers.

The West Gallery, with its arcade and annexe, is devoted to groups 9, 10, and 11. The exhibits here are very far forward, and are of very great interest. The machines in motion will again be driven by Galloway's horizontal compound engine facing the entrance from the Central Gallery, the only alteration being in the speed, which has been increased in order to suit the different class of machinery to be exhibited this year. Two new Galloway boilers have been added, so as to supply steam to Hick, Hargreaves' engine, and to give a little more reserve of power than there was last year.

The art of spinning and weaving pure asbestos, which for so many years completely puzzled manufacturers, is to be shown by Mr. John Bell, Southwark-street, S.E., who has had a large allotment of space. Owing, however, to the room required for properly showing the spinning and weaving machinery, the first stages of preparation of the raw material will not be exhibited, but the asbestos will be brought to the Exhibition in a state ready for carding. The subsequent operations will be shown in their entirety, so far as regards the production of yarns and cloth, and there will be a comprehensive collection of all the various products formed from this interesting material. The plaiting of the yarn into steam packings will be shown.

Messrs. Watson and Laidlaw, Glasgow, have also a large stand where they will exhibit a number of their specialities. Among them we may name a well designed hydro-extractor for woollen and other goods. This machine is under-driven by a horizontal strap, the cage being self-balancing and revolving on a spring plate in such a manner as to prevent vibrations being transmitted to the foundations. There is also an automatic centrifugal friction clutch which permits slipping to take place until the cage has been brought up to its full speed, which in this case is about 1200 revolutions per minute.

Messrs. James Farmer and Sons, Salford, will show patent bleaching, washing, and drying machinery, and a four-roll Moiré lustre calender 50 in. wide, driven by an independent diagonal steam engine. The four rolls are respectively made of ordinary cast iron, cotton, chilled cast iron, and paper. The same firm will also exhibit a machine for folding, measuring, creasing, and stamping the length on cotton or woollen cloths. The well-known firm of Samuel Brooks and Co., Manchester, will show machines for spinning and doubling sewing cotton; Hill and Brown's patent winder for winding on to paper tubes instead of bobbins; and Coate's patent cotton-baller. Winding machinery and looms, will be shown by several makers, among whom we may specially mention Messrs. Hacking and Co., Bury, whose exhibits are in a forward state. These include a patent friction pirn winding machine with paper tubes for woollen and cotton; a woollen loom with Hacking's patent motion for four shuttles; a patent handkerchief loom with four shuttles; and a folding, measuring, and registering machine with patent grip and adjusting motion. Messrs. George Hodgson and Co., Bradford, will also have some well-finished machinery, including an improved apparatus for shedding motion, and drop boxes for the weaving of fancy cloths. A very good show will be made by Messrs. Mather and Platt, Oldham, who have sent scouring, bleaching, and dyeing machinery, as well as other apparatus and appliances, which we shall describe more fully at a later date. A hand-loom will be shown in operation by Messrs. Howell and James, making the table linen to be used by Messrs. Spiers and Pond in the various refreshment rooms throughout the Exhibition. Messrs. Walter T. Glover and Co., Manchester, will show seven machines of different sizes for making cords and ropes. These, though not, strictly speaking, textile machines, are of an analogous nature, seeing that the object is the production of cord or spindle banding as well as some kinds of thread.

Passing on to the section devoted to machine tools, there will be noticed a novel appliance by Messrs. Harpers and Co., Aberdeen, for cutting key seats on pulleys. This is an exceedingly simple and, we believe, efficient machine, capable of cutting as many as sixty key seats of small size in an hour, while the seat in an 8 ft. diameter pulley can

be completely finished off in about twenty-five minutes. Another advantage is that there is no frame to limit the size of the wheel that can be dealt with.

Several excellent specimens of wood-working machinery will be shown by Messrs. S. Worssam and Co., Chelsea, and Messrs. John Watts and Co., Bristol. The former will have a new general joiner; a self-acting saw with both roller and rope feed; and a band saw for cutting ships' timbers to any angle; while the latter will exhibit a powerful double band saw with self-acting roller feed.

Messrs. Hulse and Co., Manchester, promise a large collection of engineers' tools, including a box radial drilling machine; a planer with broad traverse; a profiling machine for vertical and horizontal milling; and a horizontal double-headed slot drill. Several ingenious and novel machines will be shown by Messrs. Sales, Pollard, and Co., Farringdon-road, for making cigars and cigarettes, and for folding tobacco up into packages, at the rate of twenty-two per minute. This latter machine is the invention of Mr. Lloyd, a member of the firm, and has taken much time and money to perfect.

Hydraulic machinery will be well represented. The Hydraulic Engineering Company, Chester, will exhibit a large-sized working model of a three-cylinder compound steam pumping engine of the type now used by the London Hydraulic Power Company. This engine will be shown in operation, and will pump water into an accumulator for use in working the other exhibits. There will also be a neat hydraulic crane, with curved box jib, and having a double-powered cylinder with two concentric rams; a three-cylinder engine with Hastie's compensating gear; one of Ellington's direct action balanced lifts; and some specimens of valves.

Riveting machinery will be shown in great abundance by Messrs. Fielding and Platt, Gloucester; also by Anderson and Gallwey, Chelsea; and by Messrs. Hughes, Smith, and Co., Glasgow. The last-named firm will have a large fixed machine, capable of putting on a closing pressure of 100 tons, the die being worked by a hydraulic plunger through the medium of a toggle joint. Messrs. Tangyes, Birmingham, will have a large and comprehensive exhibit of most of their well-known specialities. We particularly notice a gas hammer—Robson's patent—which works by the explosion of ordinary gas between two pistons, the lower of which is connected to the hammer-head. The blows can be regulated to light or heavy, fast or slow. We hope to give further particulars of this when we come to deal in detail with the exhibits. Most of the makers of special lifts will be represented, some by large working models, and others by full-sized examples.

In the Eastern Annexe, under the head of paper and printing, there will be many interesting exhibits. Messrs. Harrild and Son will show some very fine machinery for producing illustrated newspapers, and a two-feed fine-art "Bremner" machine will be at work printing part of the *Illustrated London News*. Besides this, the same firm will have a fine-art Franco machine as used by Messrs. Cassells and others, a fine-art demy machine, as well as a platen for smaller work, and a chromo-lithographing machine. Messrs. Furnival and Co. will show a new gripper platen which has not been exhibited before. It is made on Mr. Godfrey's patent, and can print 2500 sheets per hour. Litho-printing machinery will be exhibited by three or four makers, there being several novelties in driving gear and in the taking-off apparatus. Wire-stitching machines for light wood boxes and for books will also be shown, Messrs. W. C. Horne and Co., London, having a machine which will put in 120 staples a minute, including cutting-off and finishing. A few exhibitors will show apparatus for the manufacture of paper, but this department is not complete. Messrs. Osborne and Shearman, Chelsea, are fitting up a large machine for paper-staining, one of the chief features being that by means of a backward-and-forward travel one colour is allowed to dry before the next is laid on.

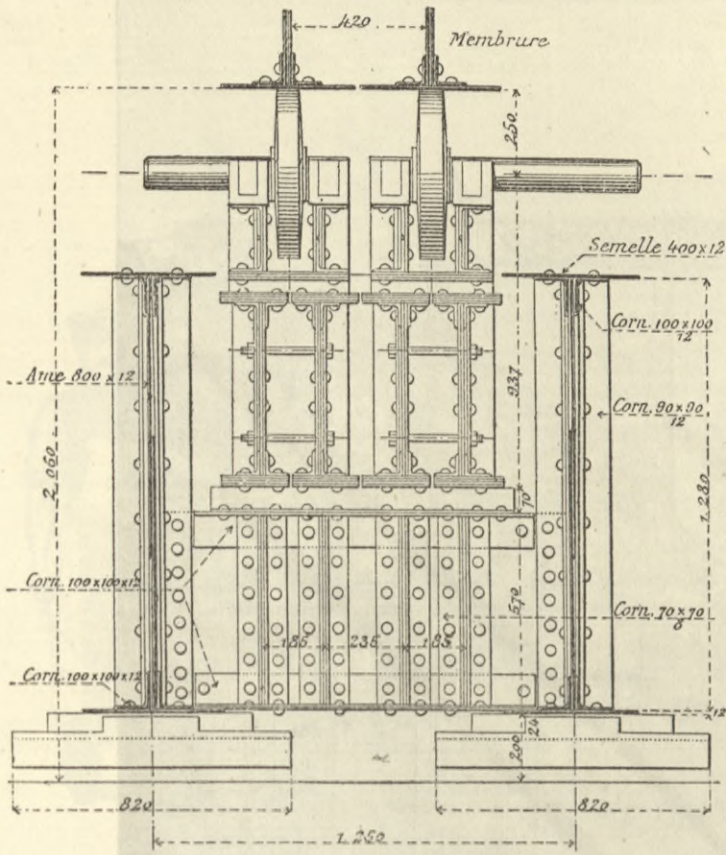
Of the foreign exhibits, the chief will be those of the United States and Japan, but very few have as yet come forward. What promises to be a very great attraction is the machinery for the manufacture of watches, which is to be shown by the American Waltham Watch Company, Mass. This will include staff and pivot polishing machinery; an escape wheel cutter with two steel and four sapphire tools, capable of cutting fifty wheels in a quarter of an hour; a train wheel cutter, which deals with forty wheels at a time; an automatic machine for cutting crown wheels; a pinion cutter, which turns out 400 a day; an automatic machine for making and finishing-off all the screws used in watches at the rate of 400 an hour; an automatic machine for roughing pinions at the rate of 1500 a day; a machine for drilling and tapping the holes in compensation balance wheels, twenty-two holes being drilled and tapped in two and a-half minutes, one man attending nine such machines; and an apparatus for polishing pinion teeth after cutting and hardening. All these machines are of the most perfect description, both as regards accuracy and completeness. They are entirely automatic in action, each machine performing its several operations one after the other, without any attention from the attendant until the supply of raw materials is exhausted. All turned work is gauged to $\frac{1}{1000}$ part of a centimetre by means of a little machine which by multiplying gear enables the slightest inaccuracy to be detected. So perfect, indeed, is this measuring apparatus that the diameter of an ordinary human hair causes a movement of the indicator of nearly $\frac{1}{10}$ in. Models of works, and machines for testing balances and for weighing out the pieces instead of counting them, together with a show case containing over 2000 gold and silver watches, will complete what is sure to be one of the most sought after stands in the Exhibition.

Owing to the state of chaos which necessarily prevails throughout an exhibition during the eight or ten days preceding the opening, the foregoing can only be taken as an imperfect outline of what is to be seen at the Inventories. As in former years, we purpose publishing a series of descriptive articles embracing the principal novelties and features of interest.

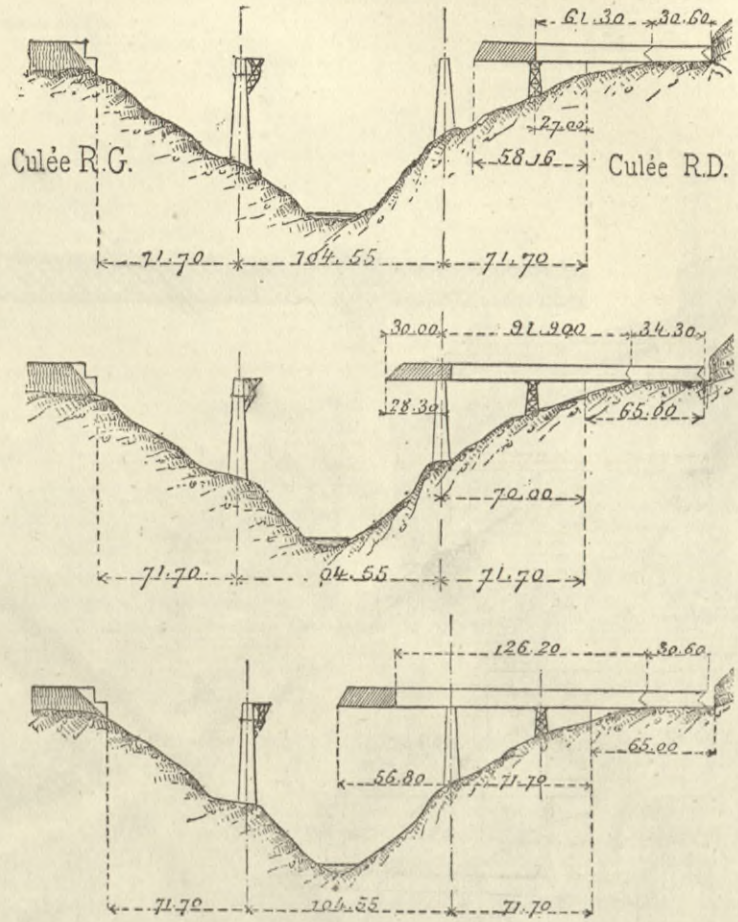
THE LA TARDERES VIADUCT, MONTLUCON AND EYGURANDE RAILWAY.

(For description see page 332.)

Fig. 7



Figs. 11, 12, & 13



Figs. 8

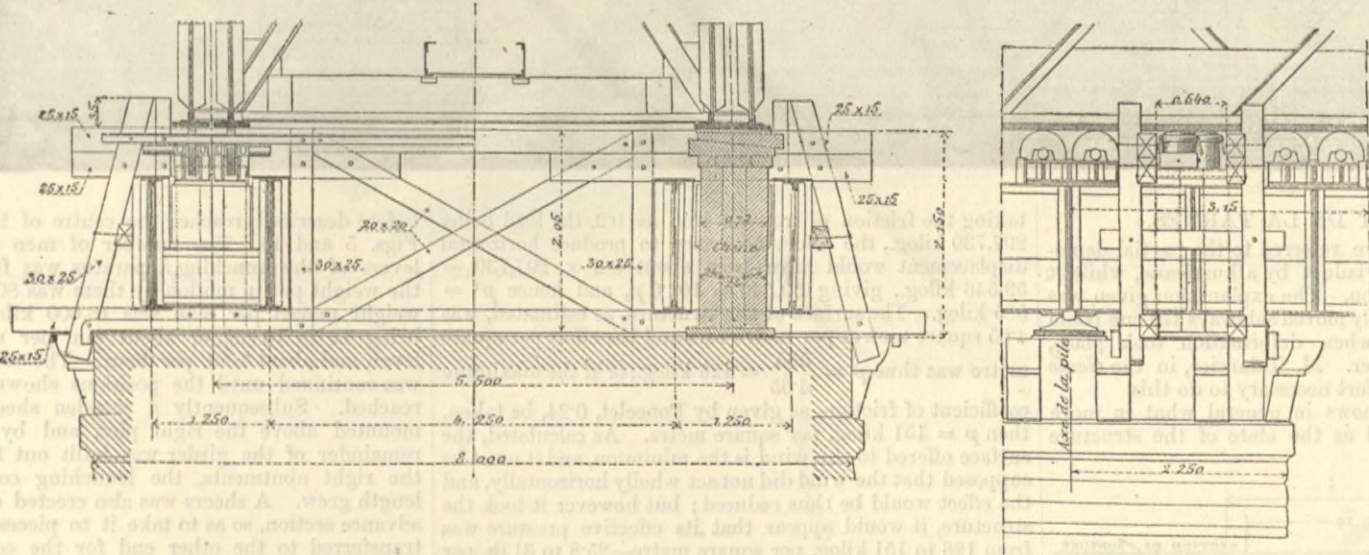
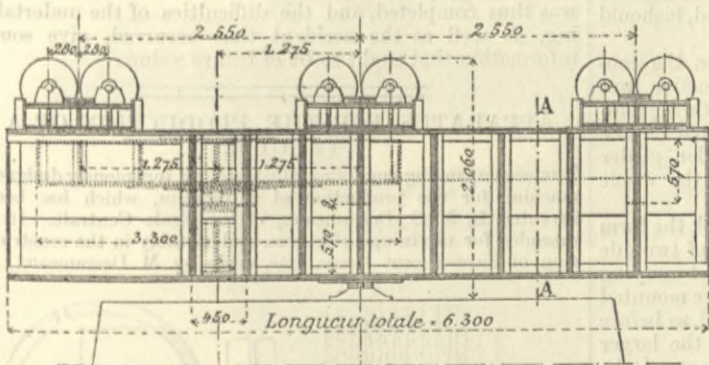
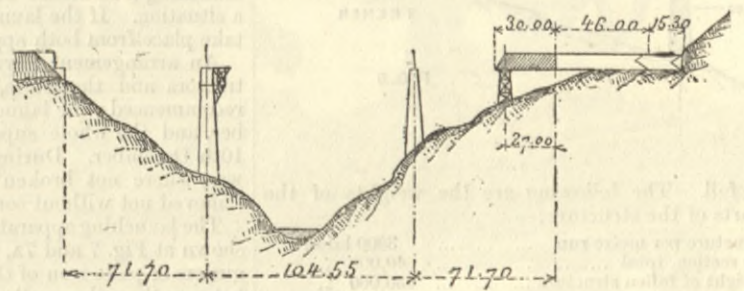


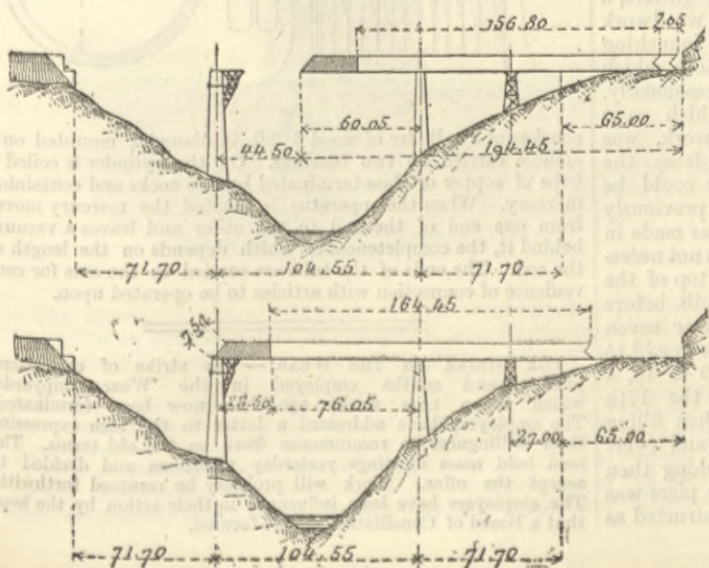
Fig. 7a



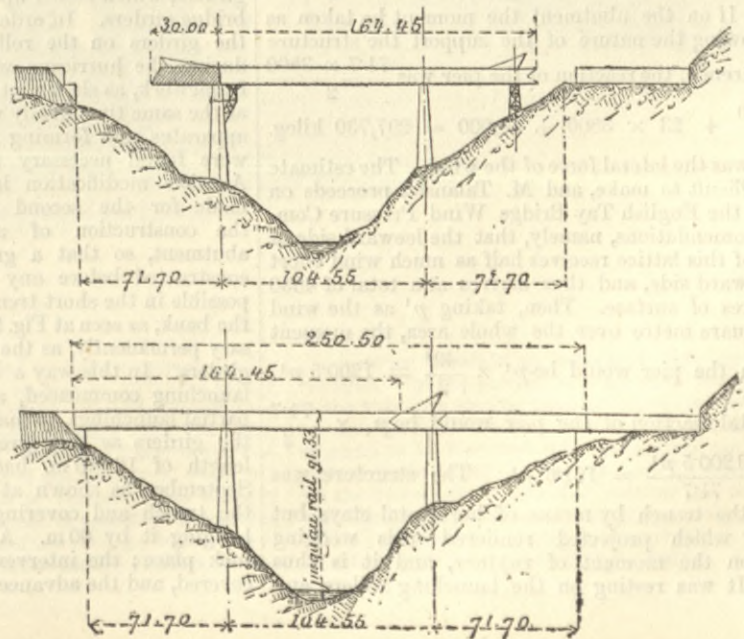
Figs. 9 & 10



Figs. 14 & 15



Figs. 17 & 18



THE LA TARDES VIADUCT, MONTLUCON AND EYGURANDE RAILWAY.



THE VIADUCT DE LA TARDES.

In our last impression we referred to the partial demolition of a portion of this viaduct by a hurricane, while it was in course of construction. The explanation given was that the girder was gradually moved sideways till one boom slipped off the rollers, when deformation took place, and the fall of the girder. M. Talansier, in the *Genie Civil*, thus estimates the effort necessary to do this.

The diagram Fig. 6 shows in general what in more detail has been described as the state of the structure

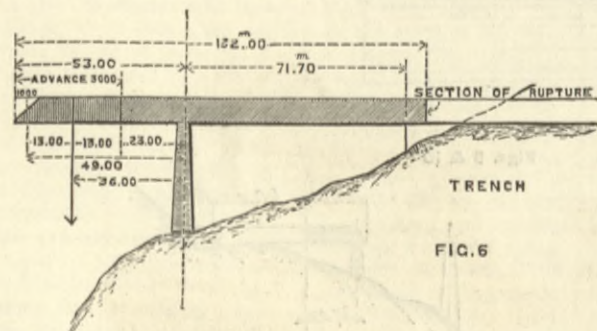


FIG. 6

before the fall. The following are the weights of the different parts of the structure:—

Superstructure per metre run	3800 kilos.
Advance section, total	40,000 "
Total weight of fallen structure	430,000 "

The moment of the effort exerted on the pier by the overhanging part was $3800 \times \frac{23^4}{2} \times 40,000 \times 36 = 2,445,100$. If on the abutment the moment be taken as *nil*, not knowing the nature of the support the structure had in the trench, the reaction of the pier was $\frac{71.7 \times 3800}{2}$

$$+ \frac{2,445,100}{71.7} + 23 \times 3800 + 40,000 = 297,730 \text{ kilog.}$$

Beside this was the lateral force of the wind. The estimate of this is difficult to make, and M. Talansier proceeds on the basis of the English Tay Bridge Wind Pressure Committee recommendations, namely, that the leeward side of the bridge of this lattice receives half as much wind effort as the windward side, and thus arrives at a total of 4650 square metres of surface. Then, taking p^1 as the wind effort per square metre over the whole area, the moment produced on the pier would be $p^1 \times \frac{49^3}{2} = 1200.5 p^1$.

The horizontal reaction of the pier would be $p_1 \times \frac{71.7}{2} + p^1 49 + \frac{1200.5 p^1}{71.7} = 101.6 p^1$. The structure was wedged in the trench by means of horizontal stays, but the length which projected rendered this wedging ineffective on the moment of rupture, and it is thus neglected. It was resting on the launching rollers, and

taking the friction of iron on iron as 0.2, the load being 297,730 kilog., the effort necessary to produce horizontal displacement would have been about $0.2 \times 297,730 = 59,546$ kilog., giving $59,546 = 101.6 p$, and hence $p^1 = 585$ kilog. The surface of the structure, as estimated, was 4.65 square metres per metre run, and the effort per square metre was thus $p = \frac{585}{4.65} = 126$ kilog., or if the maximum

coefficient of friction, as given by Poncelet, 0.24, be taken, then $p = 151$ kilog. per square metre. As calculated, the surface offered to the wind is the minimum, and it must be supposed that the wind did not act wholly horizontally, and the effect would be thus reduced; but however it took the structure, it would appear that its effective pressure was from 126 to 151 kilog. per square metre—25.8 to 31 lb. per square foot. It may be easily conceived that this pressure obtained, and the result shows the dangers attending the launching a structure with so much overhang in so exposed a situation. If the launching method be adopted, it should take place from both approaches.

An arrangement having been made between the contractors and the State, the work of reconstruction was recommenced; the launching commenced on 17th September, and the whole superstructure was completed on the 10th December. During the same time the fallen girder was, where not broken up, cut to pieces, and the whole removed not without some difficulty.

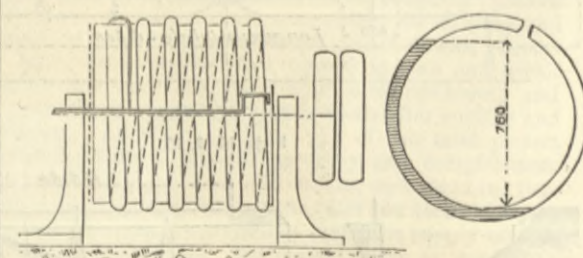
The launching apparatus was modified, and took the form shown at Fig. 7 and 7A, page 331, and consisted of two side girders of plate iron of the dimensions shown, and carrying between them the smaller girders, upon which were mounted the six pairs of rollers, the whole being pivotted, as before described, and on steel bearers, in the centre of the larger girders, which rested upon the permanent supports of the bridge girders. In order to prevent the side movement of the girders on the rollers, like that which took place during the hurricane which wrecked the first girders, a framework, as shown at Fig. 8, was built, this woodwork at the same time firmly uniting the two sets of launching apparatus, and forming a rest for hydraulic jacks, which were found necessary to ease the girders occasionally. Another modification in the arrangements which were made for the second construction of the work, was the construction of a timber pier 27 m. from the abutment, so that a greater length of girder could be constructed before any launching, than was previously possible in the short trench or cutting which was made in the bank, as seen at Fig. 9, &c. This cutting was not necessary permanently, as the railway runs upon the top of the girders. In this way a length of 65 m. was built before launching commenced, as seen at Fig. 9. After seven partial launchings, to make room in the trench to add to the girders as they grew, as seen in Figs. 10 to 15, a length of 164.45 m. had been completed on the 17th September, as shown at Fig. 14, the girders then filling the trench and covering the right bank pier and overhanging it by 60 m. A more extensive launching then took place; the intervening space between the piers was covered, and the advance part of the girder, constructed as

before described, reached the centre of the left pier—see Figs. 5 and 15. The number of men employed at the levers of the launching apparatus was forty-nine, and as the weight put in motion by them was 800,000 kilogs., the weight moved per man was 16,000 kilogs., the advance being 12 to 13 cm., or about $\frac{1}{2}$ in. per movement of the lever, and about 10 in. per hour. The work of launching was continued until the positions shown at Fig. 17 was reached. Subsequently a wooden sheer-leg crane was mounted above the right pier, and by this means the remainder of the girder was built out from that pier to the right abutments, the launching continuing as the length grew. A sheers was also erected on the temporary advance section, so as to take it to pieces, the parts being transferred to the other end for the completion of the girder, the final launchings being represented by the dimensions given in Fig. 18.

This large piece of viaduct construction and launching was thus completed, and the difficulties of the undertaking, as well as the accident that occurred, give some information that ought to be of future value.

APPARATUS FOR THE PRODUCTION OF A VACUUM.

The accompanying engraving illustrates an ingeniously designed machine for the production of a vacuum, which has been invented by M. G. Desrumeaux, of the Ecole Centrale. It is intended for use in manufactures, and notably in the construction of incandescent lamps. As made by M. Desrumeaux, it



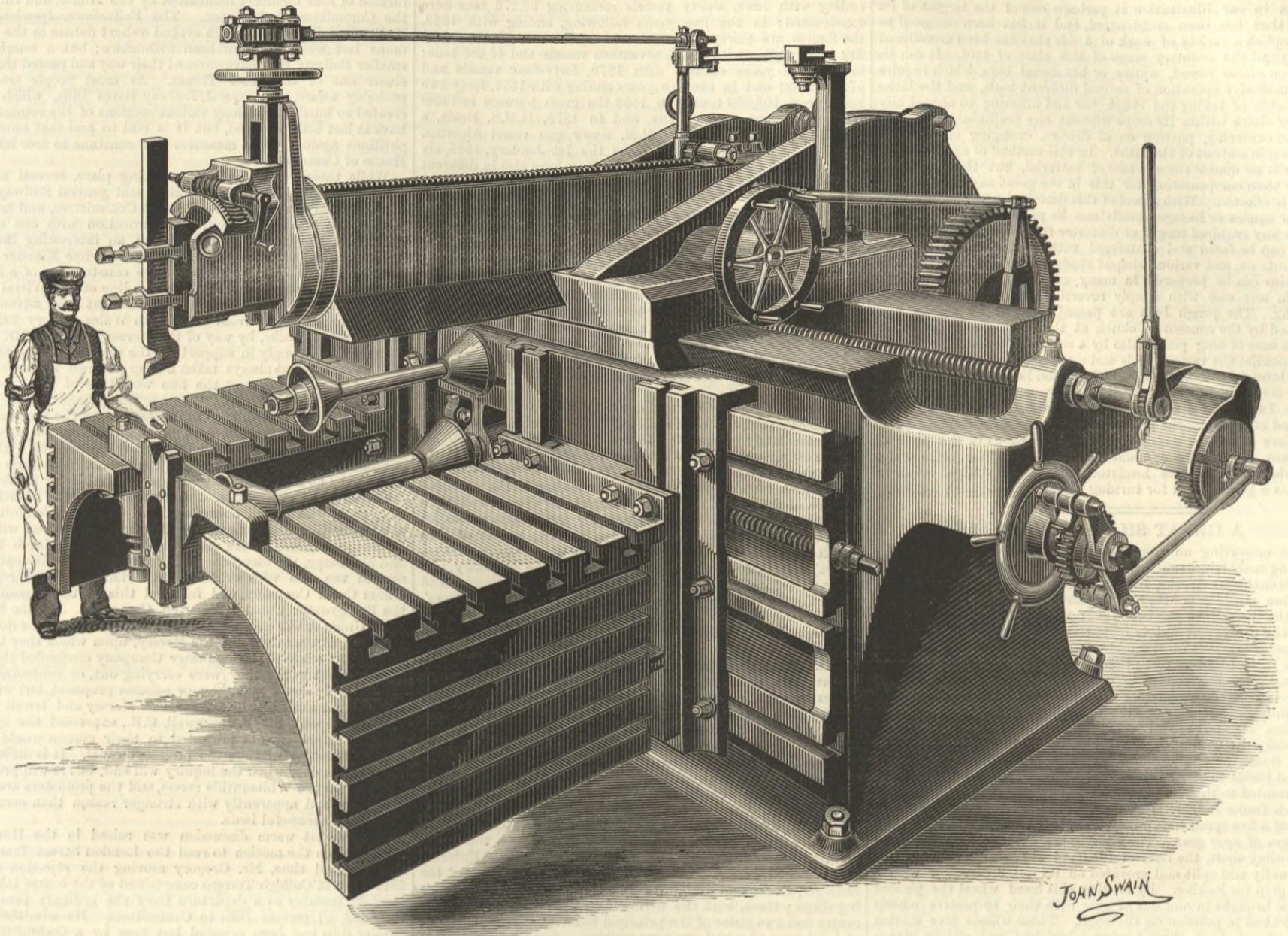
consists of a cylinder of wood 3.28 ft. in diameter mounted on a spindle carried on two bearings. On the cylinder is coiled a tube of copper or glass terminated by two cocks and containing mercury. When the apparatus is rotated the mercury moves from one end of the coil to the other and leaves a vacuum behind it, the completeness of which depends on the length of the coil. The ends of the tube are carried to the axis for convenience of connection with articles to be operated upon.

THE STRIKE ON THE WEAR. — The strike of carpenters, joiners, and smiths employed in the Wear shipyards, which began nine weeks ago, has now been terminated. The employers have addressed a letter to the men expressing their willingness to recommence work on the old terms. The men held mass meetings yesterday afternoon and decided to accept the offer. Work will probably be resumed forthwith. The employers have been influenced in their action by the hope that a Board of Conciliation will be formed.

HEAVY SHAPING MACHINE.

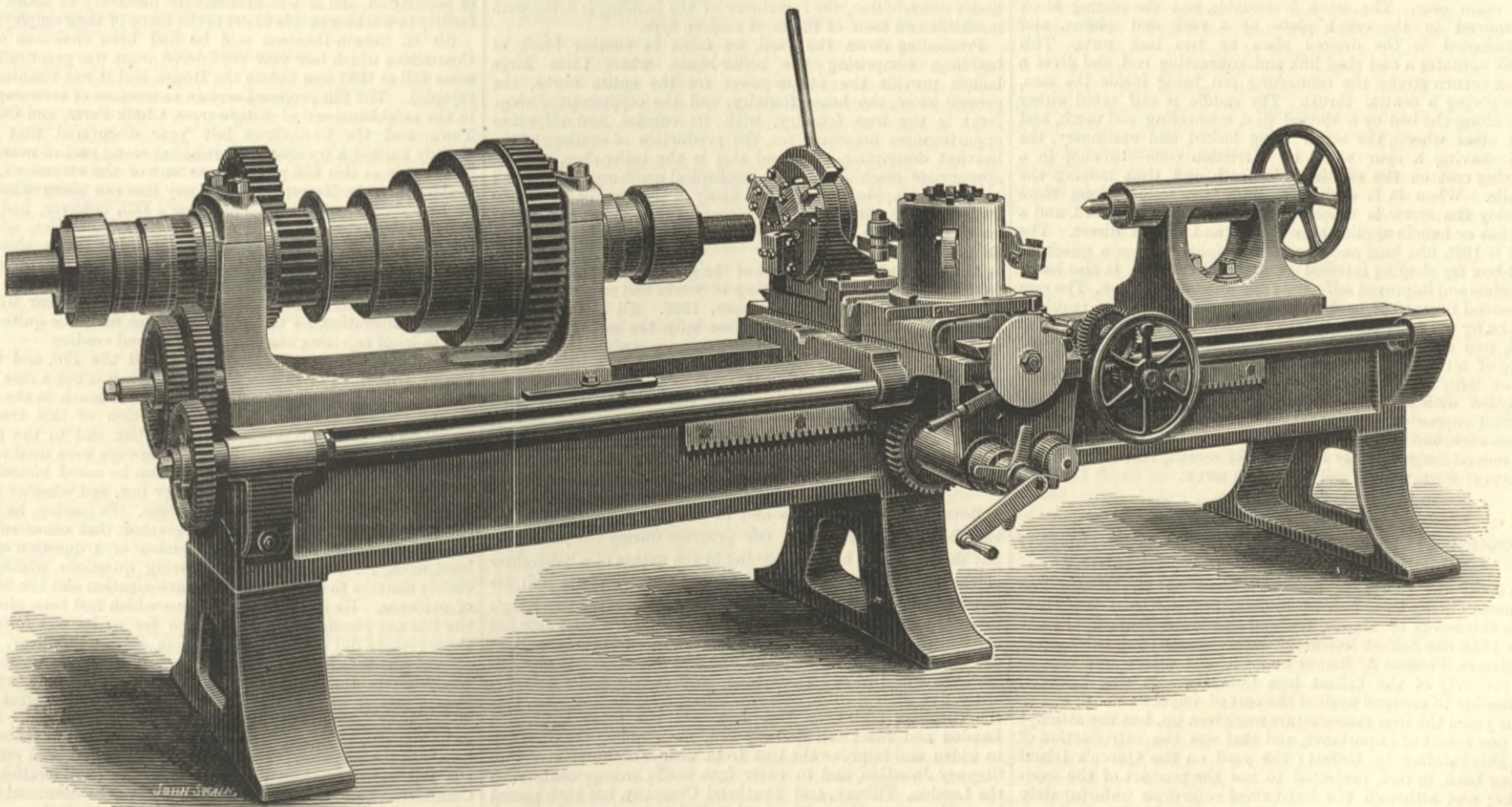
MESSRS. ARCHDALE AND CO., BIRMINGHAM, ENGINEERS.

(For description see page 334.)



HOLLOW SPINDLE CAPSTAN LATHE.

MESSRS. JAMES SPENCER AND CO., MANCHESTER, ENGINEERS.



The illustration above represents a lathe constructed by Messrs. James Spencer and Co., of Hollinwood, near Manchester, and specially designed for turning all kinds of studs, crank pins, and screws out of the solid bar. In its main features it is what is familiarly known as a hollow spindle capstan rest lathe, and has a 12in. centre, is double geared, and is provided with a large-sized spindle of compressed steel, having a hole right through it, 4½in. diameter, to admit bars of iron or steel up to 4in. diameter. The spindle has a cone chuck at each end for gripping the bars securely whilst under operation with the various tools.

The bed is 10ft. 6in. long, supported by three standards, and is made extra strong, with a bottom so cast as to form a trough for collecting the oil or soap water which is used for keeping the tools cool. On the bed is an ordinary carriage which has a self-acting motion worked by a shaft, along the front of the bed, driven by gearing at the back end of the headstock, which can be varied to give different speeds of traverse as in ordinary lathes. The self-acting motion is put in operation by screwing up the cross handle nut in front of the carriage, which acts on a pair of friction cones, and this cross handle obviates the use

of a spanner, which is an important item where quick work is required. On the carriage is a specially constructed slide rest in the form of a circular head having square holes in its circumference to hold five tools of various shapes suited for the work required to be done, and this circular disc can be revolved on a central pin to bring the various tools in position for cutting. On the lower part of the head notches are cut corresponding with the proper positions of the various tools, and a hand lever, with a suitable catch to drop in the notches, is arranged so as to be readily put in or out as may be desired. On the carriage is

found that he had spent an infinite amount of trouble in inventing over again some things which had been in use for a long time, and other things which had been tried and found useless. Hundreds of inventors still continue to follow in Dr. Cartwright's steps. The race of perpetual motionists still flourishes vigorously, notwithstanding the spread of technical education; but this is not to be wondered at, since there will always be a very large number of half-educated persons who know just enough to go wrong. Some of the patents for elements of machines would seem to have been taken from some of the "tables of mechanical motions" which have been published from time to time. Many a man has gone wrong on the subject of ventilation, but perhaps more have come to grief about preventing collisions at sea and raising sunken ships. Not a few of these contrivances undoubtedly display ingenuity, and have probably cost their authors considerable pains, labour, and expense. In many cases, however, they are neither new nor useful, and are unfitted to meet the conditions of practical work. If it were possible to obtain from inventors a candid account of their experiences, we fear that the record would be largely filled with regrets that they had failed to benefit themselves or anybody else.

It cannot be too often insisted upon that many highly ingenious and meritorious inventions fail because they are ill-timed. In some cases the world is not ready for them, whilst in others the mechanical difficulties which stand in the way are too great to be overcome, except at such cost as to render their successful commercial working impossible. An invention may be completely successful when carried out with all the care demanded by an experiment in the physical laboratory, but may fail in practice. In the next generation some commonplace inventor may devise a simple mechanical method of facilitating the production of a detail, and success follows. These considerations may sometimes assist in weakening the cry of want of novelty so often brought against a successful invention. Several instances of this will doubtless suggest themselves to visitors who have some knowledge of the history of invention. The comparative ease with which rigid accuracy of workmanship is now secured makes all the difference between failure and success.

Although the period embraced by the Exhibition is not sufficiently wide to include the rise of what may be called the self-acting system, it will, nevertheless, contain many important developments. The machine for making wire cards furnishes a very well-known instance of this class of machine, in which a number of distinct operations follow each other at certain fixed times determined by a series of cams, or their equivalents, on a main driving shaft. Such is the general principle, but the details are varied. It is, perhaps, not generally known that the first machine of this kind was constructed nearly a century ago by Ralph Heaton, of Birmingham, for making button shanks from wire. Another tendency may also be noted here—that is, the gradual substitution of a continuous rotary motion for an alternating motion, thus avoiding the loss of time in the back-stroke. The introduction of circular saw in the early part of this century was a great step in this direction. The same object is also secured, though in a somewhat different manner, by the band saw, which was patented by William Newberry as far back as 1808. We may also instance the very large use which is now made of milling cutters as a substitute for the file. Notwithstanding the number of efforts which have been made during the last seventy years, the rotary steam engine has not superseded the reciprocating form of machine.

Such are a few of the thoughts which will no doubt occur to many of those who visit the Exhibition, and there will be found depicted on the walls of the entrance hall a series of contrasts, showing the state of the arts at various periods. For instance, the Rocket locomotive is contrasted with an engine of the most approved modern type, the spinning wheel is shown side by side with the self-acting mule, and so on.

COAL AND COKE EXPORTS.

It can scarcely have escaped notice that there has been of late a continuance of an old change in the source of the bulk of our coal exports. That change is in the more rapid growth of the exports of coals from Cardiff than from Newcastle. Taking last month, for example, Newcastle-on-Tyne exported 318,475 tons of coals—a decrease of about 26,000 tons from the quantity for the corresponding month of the past year. In the same month the exports of Cardiff were 675,239 tons—an increase of about 50,000 tons on the quantity for the corresponding month. This is an example that is frequent, if the returns of the two ports be compared. If the coastwise shipments of the two places be added to the exports proper above given, the position is rather altered, for the coastwise shipments from Newcastle are often three times those of Cardiff; but, as a whole, the Welsh port is gaining on the Tyne port, and it is curious to notice the reason. Moreover, if we speak of the coastwise shipments being larger from the Tyne, we must remember that that is in part because the supplies for London sent thence are sent by sea, whilst from Wales there is a larger quantity sent by rail than by sea. On the whole the Welsh port's shipments are advancing so rapidly on those of the Tyne port that it is probable that this year they will exceed them. In a measure this is due to the fact that a larger part of the coal exported is sent to ports to which Wales is nearer than the north country, but it is also in part due to the fact that an increased preference has of late shown itself for Welsh coal. That demand is partly new, but it is also in a degree due to substitution of Welsh for Newcastle coal. The fact is one that is very noticeable, though there have been other explanations and reasons assigned that have had some weight. But to the general public the neck-and-neck race that has of late been run by the two greatest coal shipping ports being likely to terminate in early victory for Cardiff, is a fact that will come as a surprise, for these trade statistics are not very generally followed up. It may be added, also, that in some other of the ports—Newport and Sunderland, for instance—there is also a trial of trade speed that has its interest, and that may be glanced at when the year is a little more advanced, but the general tendency is in favour of Wales, and to the disadvantage of the northern ports.

BRITISH AND FOREIGN VESSELS.

RETURNING to a subject we discussed a short time ago in THE ENGINEER, the question of the relative proportion of British and

foreign vessels employed in the export coal trade, we find figures of interest in recent statistics. Thus for Newcastle during the month of March there were 249 cargoes in British vessels and 135 in foreign vessels, numbers which show an increase in the proportion of the home vessels as compared with those of a year ago. From Sunderland 83 British and 41 foreign vessels took export cargoes of coal; from Blyth, 14 British and 21 foreign vessels; from West Hartlepool, 23 British and 35 foreign vessels; from Cardiff 273 British and 143 foreign vessels; and from Borrowstowness and its dependent ports, 7 British and 39 foreign vessels took coal cargoes for foreign ports. On the whole these figures show that there was a larger number of the cargoes out of the total carried in our own vessels. It may be that this is due to the difference in the season, for a large portion of the foreign vessels seem those taking back coal cargoes to their own countries, whence they have brought timber, &c. Possibly, however, the preponderance of the steamships in our mercantile navy, and the fact that that type of vessel is now entering largely into the timber trade, may also be amongst the causes of the change, as far as it is evident. With the vast mercantile fleet that we have, we should be able to carry the coal cargoes hence in a greater degree than even the improved figures we give above show to be the case. But there is one point about the large carriage of coal by foreign vessels which is well worth notice, and that is the fact that much of the coal is sent in vessels of comparatively small capacity. For instance, from the Tyne to Dronheim there were ten cargoes of coal and coke sent in the month under review, eight in foreign vessels, and the remaining two in British. The average cargo was about 400 tons. To Nykjøbing the average cargo was less, as well as to Randers and other places, and to these foreign vessels were chiefly sent, in some cases exclusively. It is, therefore, probable that it best suits the merchants, and possibly the ports, in some countries to have their cargoes small. As our sailing vessels are dying out, and as we build few small steamers, it is possible that this is one of the chief reasons for what seems the preference for foreign vessels, and it would be overcome by the building of cheaply-working small-tonnage steamers fit for the requirements of the coal trade.

"COCOA" GUNPOWDER.

A GAINSBOROUGH man has managed to elicit from the War Department an explicit statement in regard to the "German contracts for gunpowder," about which so much has been heard a month or two ago. Mr. Rowland Winn, M.P., made a speech on this subject which displeased the Gainsborough gentleman, who was so exercised in his mind about it that he wrote to the Marquis of Hartington. His lordship states the facts succinctly thus:—"It happens that the German gunpowder makers have discovered a process of making a powder which gives high velocities in heavy guns with low pressures. Nearly every European Power—the Russians, the Spanish, the Dutch, the Italians—have ordered this powder, known as 'Cocoa,' from the Germans, who are fully employed upon it." The Marquis adds that the Germans have comparatively trifling orders from the English Government, "as we are making it at our own works in Waltham Abbey in large quantities, and have acquired the right to manufacture it by our contractors in England." "Moreover," he says, "a factory is now being fitted with the most approved machinery to produce it, and it is not anticipated that more orders need be given to Germany." Lord Hartington adds that this gunpowder, "though it is the best for the biggest guns, is not the only one suitable, whilst it is the only one the Germans are now making for us." This is a satisfactory statement and explodes the powder bogey pretty effectually. Pity the India-office could not make a similar explanation of its alleged rushing about the Continent to place orders for rails with foreign firms. That charge has been frequently urged against them, and it has not yet been officially cleared off, so far as we have seen.

TORQUAY WATERWORKS.

TORQUAY may now boast of one of the finest water supplies possessed by any town in England—or perhaps in the world—when referred for comparison to the storage capacity per head of population. The construction of a large new reservoir, filter beds, and connected works, has been carried out to meet the increasing requirements of the town. They are situate at Kenwick, near Christow, Devon, and are in close proximity to their existing reservoir at Totford. The first sod was cut some two years since, but upon account of the fissures met with in the rock, the works have been carried out under very great engineering difficulties. The whole are now completed, and Torquay will have a most plentiful supply of water for the future, the two reservoirs having a superficial area of no less than a hundred acres, and are capable of containing 300,000,000 gallons of water when full, or a supply for 300 days for the whole of the district supplied. The engineer is Mr. H. M. Brunel, of Delahay-street, Westminster, and the works have been carried out by Mr. A. Krauss, of Bristol.

DEATH OF MR. SAMUDA.

WE announce with much regret the comparatively sudden death of Mr. Joseph D'Aguilar Samuda, formerly M.P. for the Tower Hamlets, whose name is well known, especially at the East-end of London, as a large employer of labour, and which took place on Monday last, at his residence in Gloucester-square, Hyde Park. He was the second, but only surviving, son of the late Mr. A. Samuda, an East and West India merchant, of South-street, Finsbury, by his marriage with Joy, daughter of the late Mr. H. D'Aguilar, of Enfield-chase, Middlesex. Mr. Samuda was born in 1813—and was therefore seventy-one at the time of his death—and was a Commissioner of Lieutenancy for London, a Deputy-Lieutenant for the Tower Hamlets, and a magistrate for Middlesex and Westminster. He became a civil engineer in 1832, was for many years a member of the Institute of Civil Engineers, and was for some time a vice-president of the Institute of Naval Architects, and was formerly Lieutenant-Colonel of the 1st Tower Hamlets Rifle Volunteers. Mr. Samuda was a member of the Metropolitan Board of Works from 1860 till 1865, in which year he entered Parliament in the Liberal interest as a colleague of Mr. Arthur Russell in the representation of Tavistock. He sat for that constituency down to the general election in 1868, when he was returned as one of the members for the Tower Hamlets, his name standing second on the poll, the defeated candidates being Mr. E. H. Currie, Mr. Ayrton, and Captain Maxse. He sat for the Tower Hamlets down to the last general election, when he was defeated by Mr. Ritchie. Mr. Samuda married, in 1837, Louisa, daughter of the late Mr. Samuel Ballin, of Holloway, Middlesex. The news of Mr. Samuda's death will be received with great regret, not only by his old constituents, but by a large circle of friends, and by the commercial world generally. Mr. Samuda is best known for his work as a shipbuilder; with the introduction of steam navigation he had a great deal to do; of warships he has built several; his last and most remarkable work being, perhaps, the Riachuelo.

ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING AT THE INVENTIONS EXHIBITION.

No. II.

THE modern dynamo machine must be considered as the foundation on which heavy electrical engineering is based. Formerly, when the only sources of electricity were the frictional machine, the thermo-pile or the galvanic battery, this agent could be used for light work only, as, for instance, in telegraphy, in the firing of mines, in recording and measuring velocities or intervals of time, and in various laboratory experiments. But the transmission of any considerable energy or the production of light on a commercial scale was necessarily excluded on account of the high price which had to be paid for electrical energy when generated by any of these methods. With the invention of the dynamo machine all this has been changed. We can now obtain electrical energy at a cost only slightly in excess of that entailed by the production of an equivalent amount of mechanical energy, and thus it has become commercially possible and profitable to deal with electricity on a large scale.

Before entering on a detailed description of some of the more important dynamos which will be on view at the forthcoming Exhibition, we propose to say a few words on the general principles on which these machines are founded. Our object in doing this is two-fold. In the first place, it seems desirable to lay, so to speak, a scientific foundation on which our future description of particular machines may be placed, and to obtain thus a standard for comparison between different machines; and in the second place, we think that a simple and practical explanation of the principles involved in the construction and working of dynamos will be acceptable to a large number of our readers who are interested in the subject without being professional electricians. A great deal has already been written on the subject of dynamos in books and journals specially devoted to electrical matters, and we have ourselves from time to time given articles referring to some particular point in the theory of the dynamo; but still the subject is comparatively new, and those readers who for lack of time or inclination avoid the mathematical intricacies of a special article may often obtain all they require from a simple practical description.

All dynamos are based upon Faraday's fundamental discovery that if a wire be moved in the neighbourhood of a magnet, or if a magnet be moved in the neighbourhood of a wire, a force is created which tends to make an electric current flow along that wire. Whether a current actually flows in the wire depends on the continuity of the circuit. If the ends of the moving wire are not otherwise connected, the tendency, or as it is technically termed, the electro-motive force, exists all the same, but no current can flow and no mechanical energy is required to move the wire. But if the ends of the wire be closed by an outer circuit a current will flow, and mechanical energy will be absorbed in moving the wire. This energy reappears in the shape of electrical energy, and is computed by multiplying the electro-motive force by the strength of the current. The commercial units for electrical measurements are the volt for electro-motive force, and the ampère for current, and their relation to the mechanical unit of energy is a fixed one, like that of the mechanical equivalent of a unit of heat. A current of one ampère flowing for one minute under an electro-motive force of one volt represents about 45 foot-pounds mechanical energy, and one-horse power is equivalent to 735 volt-amperes or watts, as units of electrical energy are now called. In giving these figures we neglect fractions, which is the more permissible as there still exists some uncertainty as to the exact value of the electro-mechanical equivalent, but for practical purposes we may take the figures 735 as sufficiently correct. It should be mentioned that up to a short time ago electricians used to consider 746 watts equal to one-horse power, but since Lord Rayleigh's recent determination of the ohm and the volt in absolute measure have shown that the old standard ohm was too small by about one and a-third per cent., and that the old standard volt computed from it was similarly wrong, a correction of the electro-mechanical equivalent has become necessary wherever the measurements are taken in legal volts, ampères, and ohms. This question of exact measurements is one of great importance to the practical engineer, as the correct estimation of the commercial efficiency of dynamo machines depends on it. Let us for a moment consider how a mechanical engineer, if called upon to determine the efficiency of various dynamos, would proceed. He would insert between the engine and the dynamo some kind of mechanical dynamometer, or, if such an appliance be not at hand, he would indicate the engine and determine as nearly as possible the actual mechanical horse-power put into the dynamo. Simultaneously with these observations he would measure the strength of the current sent by the dynamos into the outer circuit and the electro-motive force maintained between the terminals of the dynamo—that is, between the two ends of the outer circuit. To do this our engineer need not be an electrician, for instruments are now obtainable which indicate the number of ampères or volts just as a steam gauge indicates the pressure in a boiler. Our experimenter may be profoundly ignorant of the internal construction of the dynamos or of electrical science altogether, and yet he will be perfectly able to determine the commercial efficiency of the dynamos submitted to him if he only knows this one fact, that 735 volt-ampères represent one-horse power.

Returning now to our general problem, it will be clear that the stronger the magnet, the longer the wire actually under the influence of the magnet, and the quicker the speed of movement the greater will be the electro-motive force created. In practice the movement is always a rotary one, and the wire is arranged on a disc, or on a drum, or on a cylindrical ring. The magnets, technically termed field magnets, are placed in such position that their poles partly surround the revolving body of wire—the armature—with just sufficient clearance to allow of its free rotation. As far as these general principles are concerned all dynamos are alike; but a great difference exists in matters

LOST ENERGY.

By PROFESSOR R. H. SMITH.

No. II.

I will in conclusion consider the question of bearings, frames, and foundations. This is really the most important part of the whole subject, and, unfortunately, it is so complex that mathematical treatment, even with a much rougher approximation to accuracy than the preceding calculations pretend to, is impossible. Under this heading come all the vibrational losses that occur through wall brackets, countershaft hangers, &c. &c. During each revolution of an engine the cover at each end of the cylinder springing back a certain distance, dependent on its own rigidity as a plate and on that of its mode of connection to the bed-plate. The work done thus is probably nearly all lost; because, although the covers spring back with nearly perfect elasticity, they do not do so at a time when such recovery can help usefully in driving the engine. The same may be said of the springing of the guide bar, which is bent twice per revolution. The brasses in the crank shaft pedestal are subjected to a bearing pressure which not only varies in amount, but which—so far, at any rate, as concerns that component of it produced by the working of the engine exclusive of the constant weight of shaft, fly-wheel, &c.—changes in direction so far as to be absolutely reversed twice per revolution. The work lost in stressing and straining the brasses, pedestal, and its supports in each periodic variation of pressure equals the average force multiplied by the displacement of the surface of the brass. Now this displacement does not only, or chiefly, depend on the size and elasticity of the brasses. It depends much more on the design of the pedestal that supports them, and again, on what comes behind the pedestal to support it. The strain energy created is not put into the brasses only, but all their supports also have strain energy periodically stored up in them. For example, the opposing thrusts of the steam on the cylinder cover, and of the crank shaft on the pedestal, rack the whole base-plate, bending it convex upwards on, say, the outstroke, and downwards on the instroke, and the strain energy produced during each stroke is distributed really through almost the whole volume of metal in the whole frame. If the engine and the machine it drives be all "self-contained" in one frame, then if the whole be skilfully arranged, it is possible to prevent this conversion of energy, that might otherwise do useful work, into waste strain energy from spreading beyond the frame on which the whole is mounted. But the connection between the frame of the driving engine and of the machinery it drives is in the vast majority of cases only established through the surface of the earth and the walls of the building. In this ordinary case the waste strain energy caused by the pulsation of the effort spreads far beyond the limits of the frame proper of the machinery. In other words, the periodic displacement or "give" of the surface of the bearing depends, not only on the build of the machine, but on the manner of its setting, the character of the foundation on which it is set, and even on the nature of the surrounding portions of the ground and buildings. A wall bracket vibrates with the varying effort of the shaft it carries through an amplitude dependent in large measure upon the rigidity of the wall carrying the bracket, and the rigidity and stability of this wall depends upon its connections with the rest of the building and with the earth. A striking illustration of the truth of the far-reaching range of the strain waves of energy lost from an engine must be within the observation of many engineers; namely, the case of an engine, which appears to be more noisy in a distant overhead part of the building than in the engine-room itself. The walls in the engine-room, where they are close to their foundations, vibrate through very small amplitudes, and create little noise, but the vibratory energy being transmitted upwards to where the walls are free to sway through greater amplitudes, creates at these higher parts a louder noise. Now, all this sound represents so much waste energy lost from the engine, and it is evident that if these upper more freely vibrating parts of the walls were not there, there would be less passage, so to speak, less facility for the discharge of waste energy, and therefore less energy wasted. All these surroundings form so many conductors of waste energy away from the machinery, and the waste flow of energy will be greater or less according as the sum of conductivities or resistances offered by these various passages of escape be great or small.

It is to be observed that by far the greater portion of the energy so driven in at the bearing surfaces is lost—is hopelessly irrecoverable. It is transmitted away in slow or rapid waves. No doubt these waves are partly reflected at many different surfaces, but it is a hundred to one that they will be reflected in the wrong direction to be capable of being restored to the working energy of the engine, and even if by any remote chance a portion were reflected in a favourable direction, it is almost certain that it will not be reflected at such an exact time as to reach again the bearing surface at such a period that it will help, and not hinder, the useful work of the engine.

If F be the whole maximum force applied to a bearing so as to compress the material of the bearing and supports, and if this be applied through a normal section S , the stress is $\frac{F}{S}$ and the ratio of compression is $\frac{F}{ES}$ where E is a modulus of elasticity. If L be the length of material compressed, the whole shortening is $\frac{FL}{ES}$, and since the average force during the compression is $\frac{1}{2}F$, if the load increase from O to F , the work spent in producing it is $\frac{F^2 L}{2ES}$. If the load on the bearing vary from F_1 to F_2 , the work so spent is $\frac{F_1^2 - F_2^2}{2E} \cdot \frac{L}{S}$. Now what we may

term the driving effort is in every machine proportional to $F_1 - F_2$, the ratio depending on the shape of the machine and the special position of the bearing referred to. Let the ratio be q , so that the average driving effort during the time in which the bearing pressure increases from

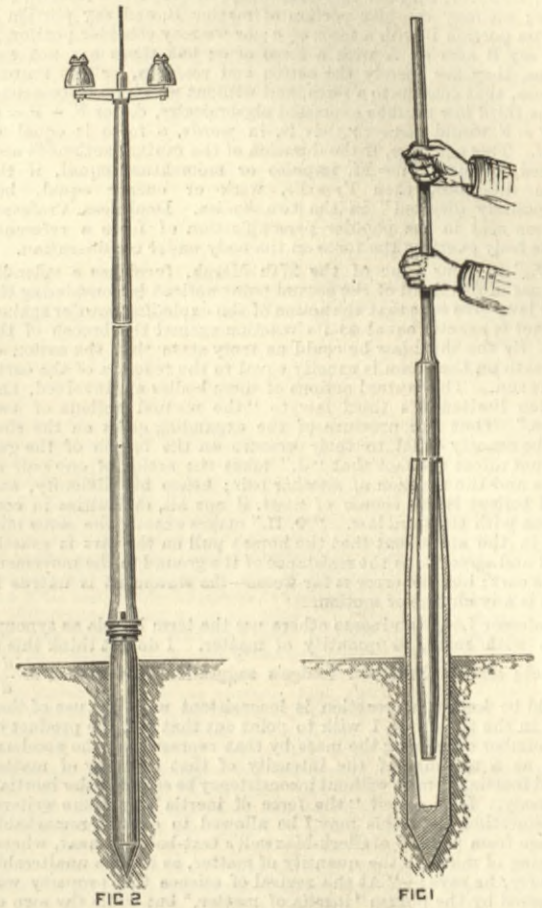
F_2 to F_1 , equals $q(F_1 - F_2)$, and let the "stroke" or distance worked through by the driving effort, in the same time be l . The whole work done during this time is $q(F_1 - F_2)l$, and the ratio of that part of it spent in compression of the material under this bearing to the whole is, therefore, $\frac{1}{Eq} \cdot \frac{F_1 + F_2}{2S} \cdot \frac{L}{l}$. This ratio increases in proportion to the average bearing pressure, and inversely as S , which may be taken to represent the average value of the section through which that bearing pressure is transmitted. It is also greater in proportion to L , the length affected by the increase of pressure. How is this length to be determined? It must be confessed that it is impossible in any practical case to calculate the exact value of the above ratio, but by considering purely hypothetical and simple conditions, we will be able to recognise the general circumstances on which it depends in actual practice and the way in which it varies. There is a limit to L dependent on the periodic speed of revolution or reciprocating motion of the machine. Suppose the plunger block mounted on the end of a very long pillar laid in the direction of the pressure. If the period during which the pressure be increased be short enough and the pillar be long enough, there will not be time to send the extra compression along the whole length of the pillar before the succeeding diminution of pressure begins. The gradually increasing compression travels along the pillar as a wave does, the speed being in wrought iron between 16,000ft. and 17,000ft. per second, and between 12,000ft. and 13,000ft. per second in cast iron. This speed is proportional to the square root of the modulus of elasticity. In my last formula the ratio $\frac{L}{l}$ will be the ratio of this speed to the linear velocity at which the driving effort works, because l is the distance through which it works in the same time that the wave advances the distance L . Thus we find $\frac{L}{l}$ proportional to $\frac{\sqrt{E}}{v}$, where v is the velocity at which the driving effort $q(F_1 - F_2)$ works. Making the necessary reductions, we find the ratio of lost to whole work done may be written $\frac{1}{q\sqrt{Em}} \cdot \frac{F_1 + F_2}{2S} \cdot \frac{1}{v}$, where m is the mass per unit volume of the material of the pillar. For wrought iron we would have $\frac{0064}{q} \cdot \frac{F_1 + F_2}{2S} \cdot \frac{1}{v}$, where the factor may vary from '006 to '007 using inches, pounds, and seconds as units. For cast iron we find $\frac{0072}{q} \cdot \frac{F_1 + F_2}{2S} \cdot \frac{1}{v}$ using the same units, and the factor varying from '007 to '008, according to quality of iron. It is hardly needful to say that these factors are of no use for the purpose of making absolute calculations in actual work, because, among other things, there is the fact that the wave of compression passes for the most part of its length through a heterogeneous mass of iron, brick, mortar, stone, and one or other kind of soil. But it is most instructive to observe that, other things being equal, the percentage of power lost in this way decreases as the velocity (v) at which the useful effort works increases, and also increases as the average stress $\left(\frac{F_1 + F_2}{2S}\right)$ on the bearing pedestal, bracket, frame, or base-plate increases.

In conclusion, let us revert for a moment to the problem of the marine engine, and consider it in the light of the explanations I have given. Here opposite racking moments are produced by the engine twice per revolution. The useful work done is the pushing of the ship through the water, the ship and the water forming together the "driven machine." The whole machinery is not "self-contained," unless we include in it the limitless ocean that surrounds the ship. The above moments tend to make the ship roll. What prevents it rolling in obedience to these moments? We cannot say that the inertia of the huge mass of the ship prevents rolling. The great mass to be moved prevents the angular velocity generated being large (and, therefore, also the amplitude of the roll being large, unless the effects of successive periodic moments be super-added, which is unlikely, as it would require a very special relation between the natural period of roll of the ship and that of revolution of the engine); but the angular momentum generated is unaffected by the mass. The greater the mass the less the angular velocity, but the product of the two remains the same, i.e., is simply proportional to the moment. Part of the effect of these varying moments is spent, no doubt, in sending transverse vibrations through the ship, which run to and fro until they are lost in heat. But there are two other chief elements of loss to consider, due to two chief resistances to the production of such rolling in the ship moving as a whole. The skin friction of the water resists rolling, and whatever roll may take place involves a waste of work done on this skin friction. Again, no roll, however small, can take place without transverse displacement of the water masses lying at both sides of the ship. These displacements are the origins of lateral waves which run outwards from the ship. Of course the water resists the displacement, and the work done in overcoming this resistance is spent in producing wave energy, which, of course, is wholly lost. I myself cannot even guess what might be the possible relative waste of power lost in these two ways; I can only throw out the suggestion that there may be found here an explanation of at least part of the great loss, as yet unaccounted for, that is proved by experiment actually to occur.

SUAKIM-BERBER MILITARY TELEGRAPH.

USUALLY in opening up a country, the telegraph precedes the railway, but for obvious military necessities the line of telegraph from Suakim to Berber can only proceed concurrently with the railway, which latter has had to wait upon the military advance. The most rapid system of constructing and maintaining such a telegraph line is the first necessity, and for this purpose the War-office has adopted Messrs. Siemens Bros.' latest form of patent telegraph pole, which is erected upon the dwarf pile

system patented by Messrs. LeGrand and Sutcliffe, of London, to which we have drawn attention on a former occasion. This patent dwarf pile is designed for the erection of many kinds of structures, among which railway signal posts may be mentioned, for which it is remarkably well adapted, but it seems to lend itself most peculiarly to the erection of telegraph poles, for which purpose nothing hitherto introduced appears in any way to approach it; and recognising its importance, Messrs. Siemens Bros. and Co. have within the last few years taken up the exclusive licence in connection with telegraphs, and have furnished them for the erection of many thousands of telegraph poles in different parts of the world. Fig. 1 of the accompanying illustration shows one form of LeGrand and Sutcliffe's patent pile, together with the rammer by which it is driven into the ground. The pile is of cast iron, and is slightly taper. The rammer is of wrought iron, and forces the pile into the ground by delivering its blow just over the point. Fig. 2 shows the pile driven into the ground with Messrs. Siemens Bros.' patent taper iron tubular pole attached to it. This is effected in a most ingeniously simple manner. The pole is slit up for a few inches from the bottom, which enables it to readily fit itself on to the taper



top of the dwarf pile, and a wrought iron ring driven over securely fastens the pole to the pile. The whole operation of erecting a pole in ordinary ground is but the work of a few minutes for two men, the time occupied in driving the pile being from two to three minutes. Thus it is found in actual practice that two men can erect more poles in a day's work than formerly occupied ten men on the old plan of digging holes and ramming in the ground; whilst it is also found that the full complement of wires can immediately be attached, as the pole is at once as firm as under the excavation system it would be after the ground has had a twelvemonth to consolidate. In addition to the very great saving in time, labour, and plant, the facility of transport is equally marked, for one camel can walk away with four 16ft. poles and piles complete, and thirty camels can thus take six miles of line. The Imperial Brazilian Telegraph lines are nearly exclusively carried on these poles, which will stand comparison with the best lines in existence. As a proof of this, on December 14th, 1884, the director of the Imperial Telegraphs carried on direct communication between South Luiz, *via* Rio de Janeiro, Montevideo, and back to Rio de Janeiro—a distance of 6045 miles. A message of thirty-three words took 5½ minutes in transmission, and during this time a severe thunderstorm was raging in the Province of Espirito Santo, and rainy weather in the south of Brazil.

NAVAL ENGINEER APPOINTMENTS.—The following appointments have been made at the Admiralty:—Edward Swinney and R. E. Smith, assistant engineer, to the Conquest; W. W. Hardwick, assistant engineer, to the Alexandra, additional, for the Orion; and Richard Phillips, assistant engineer, to the Tamar.

ENGINEERING SOCIETY, KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON.—At a general meeting held on Thursday, April 23rd, Mr. R. B. Anderson, Stud. Inst. C.E., read a paper on "Heat in its Relation to Combustion," in which he dealt with the terms used in connection with combustion, and described the instruments used in making experiments with fuel. Referring to heat units, of which several were enumerated, he advocated the use of the "gram-degree," under that name, as it involved no confusion as to the thermometric scale employed, and explained itself. At the same time he deprecated the use of the word "caloric, on account of the loose manner in which it was employed to represent the "gram-degree" and the "kilo-gram-degree." He referred to the convenience of using, as a measure of heat, the amount necessary to convert water, at normal temperature, into steam at any boiling-point, which Watt had discovered to be very nearly a constant quantity. The author next dealt with the experimental determination of calorific values, explaining by the aid of diagrams the calorimeters of Renford, Lavoisier, Dulong, Fabre and Silberman, Andrews, and Thomsen. From this he passed to the various modes of calculating these values from the chemical composition of the body, advocating the use of M. Cornut's formula—

$Q = 8080 C' + 11214 C'' + 34462 H$, where Q is the desired result, C' the amount of solid carbon, C'' that of the volatile carbon, and H the hydrogen contained in the fuel under examination, a formula generally giving very roughly approximate results. At the same time he recommended that where possible a direct calorimetric determination should be made. The author then described the methods of calculating calorific intensities, showing what an important part dissociation played respecting the temperature attainable. Tables of various data were appended, and the method of obtaining the calorific value of carbon burnt to carbonic oxide explained, as also the way in which the amount of heat necessary to gasify carbon was estimated.

