

OUR SECOND-CLASS IRONCLADS.

THE ironclad navies of the chief maritime Powers may be said to be composed of four types or classes of vessels—viz., the first class, or line-of-battle ships; the second class, or cruising armour-clads; the third class, or obsolete and insufficiently protected vessels; and the fourth class, or coast defenders. We purpose in this article to deal only with the second class, or cruising ironclads. It is of course a matter of some difficulty to define exactly the limits of the above four classes of armoured vessels, but it is generally understood that a modern line-of-battle ship must be protected by at least 10in. of armour, and carry an armament of not less than 10in. calibre. Experience has shown that 10in. iron armour affords considerable protection against even the 30·5 centimetre, thirty-five calibre long, Krupp breech-loading gun, if struck at an angle, although a direct shot from this gun will perforate 19in. of iron, or about 13in. of Wilson's compound armour.

The second class, or cruising ironclad, is usually recruited from the worn-out portion of the line-of-battle fleet—in so far, at least, as the British Navy is concerned; whilst the French and German Governments have continuously built vessels for this special purpose, ranging, in the case of the French Navy, from the *Belliqueuse*, with 5½in. armour, launched in 1865, to the *Duguesclin*, with 9½in. Wilson's compound armour, launched in 1883; and in the German Navy, from the *Hansa*, with 6in. armour, launched in 1872, to the *Oldenburg*, with 12in. Wilson's compound armour, launched in 1884. In justice to our own Admiralty we must, however, observe that the question of cruising ironclads has not been entirely neglected, for within the last seventeen years eleven such vessels, including the *Vanguard*, have been launched, but of this number only two, viz., the *Impérieuse* and *Warspite*, are protected by modern armour. It is a remarkable fact that we have five iron-built armour-clad cruisers, sister ships, designed by Sir E. J. Reed, which are at the present moment practically of no more use than so many unarmoured corvettes. We refer to the vessels of the *Swiftsure* type, an ironclad of 6910 tons, 4910-horse power, with a speed of 12 knots. Her principal armament consists of ten 9in. muzzle-loading guns, and she is protected by 8in. iron armour. The *Triumph* a sister ship of the *Swiftsure*, has been provided with breech-loading guns of modern design, whereby her power of offence has been considerably augmented, and were she provided with steel-faced armour also, she would be an efficient armoured cruiser for some years to come. Supposing the 8in. iron armour of the *Triumph* were replaced by compound plates, the fighting power of the vessel would be increased at least 25 per cent., thus transforming her quickly, and at a comparatively small cost, into a vessel suitable for modern warfare.

This subject seems not undeserving of the attention of the Admiralty, the more so as several foreign Governments have already put the same into practice. Germany and Holland have each re-armoured several of their ironclads with compound plates, and the Chilean ship of war, *Blanco Encalada*, recently arrived in the Tyne, is to undergo the same process, to be followed shortly by the *Almirante Cochrane*, another ironclad belonging to the same Power. If our old ironclads, launched some twenty years since, are destined to serve as flagships of squadrons much longer, it will certainly be advisable to increase their offensive and defensive powers to the utmost practicable limit, as, armed and armoured as they are at present, they are war-ships for peaceful times only.

The proceedings of the Evolutionary Squadron cannot have failed to convey to the general reader the conviction that England is by no means so badly off for first-class ships of war as is generally supposed. Thirteen large vessels assembled in Portland Harbour. Some of these vessels are very "large" indeed, but the fighting power of a vessel is not regulated by her size. In fleet-actions it has always, from the time of the sailing-ship-of-the-line to the present period, been considered an essential condition towards securing a successful issue of the combat to place vessels of similar steering qualities, size, speed, and armament together in batches or squadrons, so that the necessary manœuvres may be carried out with some degree of uniformity. The following is a list of the vessels comprising the Squadron of Evolution, together with a few particulars of the respective ships, which make further comment unnecessary:—

1. *Minotaur* (flagship) . . . Length, 400ft.; 5½in. armour; speed, 14 knots.
2. *Agincourt* . . . . . " 400ft.; 5½in. " " " 14 "
3. *Hercules* . . . . . " 325ft.; 9in. " " " 13 "
4. *Shannon* . . . . . " 260ft.; 9in. " " " 12 "
5. *Iron Duke* . . . . . " 280ft.; 8in. " " " 12 "
6. *Sultan* . . . . . " 325ft.; 9in. " " " 14 "

The above are either broadside or casemate ships.

7. *Devastation* . . . . . Length, 280ft.; 14in. armour; speed, 13 knots.
8. *Ajax* . . . . . " 278ft.; 16in. " " " 13 "
9. *Hotspur* . . . . . " 235ft.; 11in. " " " 13 "

The above are turret ships.

10. *Lord Warden* . . . . . Length, 275ft.; 5½in. armour; speed, 12 knots.
11. *Repulse* . . . . . " 250ft.; 6in. " " " 11 "

The above are converted wooden line-of-battle ships.

12. *Polyphemus* . . . . . Experimental unarmed vessel; speed, 18 knots.
13. *Hoeda* . . . . . Purchased merchant steamer; " 15 "

Of the above vessels, only two, viz., the *Ajax* and *Hotspur*, are plated with compound armour.

LOWER THAMES VALLEY MAIN SEWERAGE.

By HENRY ROBINSON, M. Inst. C.E.

THE Bill for the dissolution of the Thames Valley Drainage Board having passed Parliament, and the many questions concerned in the sewerage of the several places represented by the Board having been thrashed out, some account of the subject will be found of interest.

The Board at its formation had to decide on the adoption of a system of main sewerage and of sewage disposal for the districts of East and West Molesey, Esher, Thames Ditton, Hampton, Kingston, Surbiton, Long Ditton, Kingston (Rural), New Malden, Hook, Hampton Wick, Teddington, Ham, Petersham, Richmond, Kew, Mortlake, Barnes, Heston, and Isleworth, which places had a population, according to the census of 1881, of 117,000. A condition was decided upon at the outset to the effect that all the main sewers should be made large enough to serve for

three times that population—or 351,000—and that the sewage disposal works should be sufficient for 30 per cent. more than the then population—or for 152,100—and that the volume of sewage to be provided for should be based on a contribution of 250 gallons per house per day.

Probably no Board could have been placed in a position of greater difficulty than this was by reason of the unsatisfactory state of technical knowledge and the wide divergence of opinion on the subject of sewage disposal which existed at the time the joint Board was called upon to deal with the sewage of the large district over which it had jurisdiction. The difficulties which the Board encountered were not so much with respect to sewerage of the district, but were mainly as to the method to be adopted for the disposal of the sewage; and the eight years during which the Board has been in existence have seen a great advance in practical knowledge of matters which previously had been approached from the point of view of prejudice and ignorance, both which have been lessened by the light that has been thrown on the subject in the course of that period.

The Board appear to have acted upon the assumption that in a multitude of counsellors wisdom was to be found, as they invited schemes from a number of engineers—myself among the number—and in the result many were submitted which were based on the alternatives of (a) purification of the sewage on land; (b) total diversion of the sewage from the district to a point seaward without treatment; (c) chemical precipitation. In the great majority of schemes—I believe in the whole of them with the exception of my own—the concentration of the sewage of the whole district at one point was recommended. Since 1878, when these schemes were submitted, the Board have unsuccessfully promoted several schemes which were all based on concentrating the sewage at one point. They tried them in the following order: (1) Purification on land by broad irrigation; (2) total diversion; (3) chemical treatment without filtration of the effluent. At the time when the Board was constituted, and the advice of engineers was sought, there was on record an important expression of opinion by the late Colonel Cox, R.E., one of the inspectors of the Local Government Board, who had occasion to hold several inquiries as to the disposal of the sewage of the Thames Valley. He said, when considering the sixteen districts between Hampton and the western boundary of the Metropolitan District, "I think these places might with advantage be grouped, say, in five or six groups for works and management."

When I investigated the matter I came to the conclusion that it would be better to arrange the various districts constituting the Joint Board into a series of groups, according to their physical conditions, and to lay out several systems of sewerage and of sewage disposal for these groups, in preference to having one large system of sewerage and of sewage disposal for the whole district. I also recommended that the method of disposing of the sewage of each group should be by chemical precipitation, with subsequent filtration of the effluent through a small area of land, although I held then, as I hold now, that the disposal of sewage by irrigation on land is the best system, where suitable land can be obtained at reasonable rates. When the Board in 1878 had to decide what plan to adopt, they regarded chemical precipitation as a system not deserving attention; and the prejudice which existed against it then was not altogether groundless, owing to the exaggerated claims which were advanced in favour of it. Precipitationists were, in fact, as sanguine as irrigationists that sewage was a commodity out of which wealth could be extracted, instead of fluid refuse to be made harmless, and to be got rid of at the least cost to the community. Precipitation works were then generally carried on so as to be a nuisance, either owing to the chemicals which were employed not being deodorants, or in consequence of offensive deposits of sludge being allowed to accumulate. My experience at that time—and it has been abundantly confirmed since—convinced me that sewage precipitation works, if properly designed and efficient chemicals employed, would be quite free from the objections which had been previously held to exist.

This opinion was founded on two considerations which had only then been clearly established. One was that by using certain combinations of chemicals, satisfactory purification of sewage could be effected without any nuisance and with a minimum amount of sludge; the other was that the sludge could be converted into a portable form by pressing it in an appliance just then perfected.

I was engaged on behalf of various interests in opposing all the attempts of the Board, and in every case I adhered to my original opinion in favour of grouping the district, dealing with the sewage by chemical treatment, with subsequent filtration of the effluent through a small area of land. When at last in 1884 the Board resorted to chemical precipitation, their scheme was for concentrating the sewage at Mortlake, and treating it there by chemicals without filtration of the effluent. I then, in conjunction with Mr. E. Pritchard, M. Inst. C.E., was engaged in opposing it, one ground of opposition being that a series of groups was the best solution of the difficulty. The groups we recommended were settled from a general knowledge of the district, and without consultation with the representatives of the several localities—who were then mostly supporting the Board of which they formed a part—but it is possible that the arrangement of the groups may be susceptible of modification. Works of sewerage and of sewage disposal for these groups were matured, and suitable sites were selected at which the sewage could be disposed of economically and efficiently by chemical precipitation with subsequent filtration of effluent through a small area of land or artificial filter. The subdivision of the whole district into groups is still in my judgment the right solution of the difficulty of disposing of the sewage of the lower Thames Valley. The views which I have held from the first in favour of grouping were confirmed by the decision of the Committee of the House of Commons which threw out the Bill last year, as will be seen by the following extracts from the special report of that Committee.

"The Joint Board during its existence has sought but

failed to obtain power for various schemes for the total diversion of the sewage, or for its treatment by irrigation at some one place, and the present scheme is another attempt to treat it at one place by chemical precipitation according to the best methods which recent experience suggests."

"Your Committee are of opinion that these improved methods do not demand the treatment of the sewage at one spot, and that the continuance of the Joint Board is not only unnecessary, but operates as a hindrance to the several authorities successfully purifying the sewage of their respective districts."

"Your Committee therefore recommend that the district be subdivided; that Heston and Isleworth form one district; that Richmond and the Richmond Union Sanitary Authority be combined as another district; and that the southern portion be formed into one or more groups for the treatment and disposal of the sewage."

"Your Committee are satisfied that each of these districts will be able to treat its sewage more speedily and with greater efficiency and economy than the Joint Board; and they recommend that the necessary facilities be given them for their separation from the Joint Board, and for the formation of such new groups as we have suggested. Your committee believe that in these cases the process of filtering the chemically purified effluent through earth ought, if possible, to be adopted, which was not provided for in the scheme under their consideration. Your Committee are satisfied also that the oxidising power of the Thames water on the purified effluent will be most effective when such effluent is delivered at several points in the river. The disposal of the compressed sludge for agricultural purposes will be more easy if it is produced at several sewage works. Much stress was laid by various witnesses on the necessity of the sewage being carried off as rapidly as possible so as to reach the purifying works in a fresh condition. This condition points to the desirableness of short systems of sewers and of the treatment of the sewage by the same authority that produces it. If each sanitary authority was responsible for the purification of its own sewage, the difficult question of the limitation of the quantity of sewage per house per day to be delivered to the purification authority would be avoided. On the other hand, it is desirable, not unnecessarily, to multiply the number of purification works; and your Committee consider that the satisfactory solution of the problem will not be reached until the whole system of drains from the dwelling-house to the Thames in each district is under the control of the same authority."

One objection which has been invariably urged against grouping is that it involves several positions and difficulties, instead of only one, which would be the case where the whole of the sewage is concentrated at one point; but this I consider to be an unsound view to take in this case. Although people are prepared to admit the reasonableness of submitting to some inconvenience in order to enable the district in which they live, and that of their immediate neighbours, to be preserved in a healthy state, they resist any attempt to make their neighbourhood the receptacle for the sewage of a vast district. The limitation of the evil to the sewage of a small area which naturally drains to a point where simple and inexpensive works are possible would cause any opposition to be disposed of more readily than where it is directed against a scheme which is bad as regards finance, sentiment, and engineering.

An illustration of this is afforded by the fact that several areas in the Lower Thames Valley which were not included in the joint district have successfully dealt with their own sewage difficulties during the existence of this Board. Even two of its own constituents—Heston and Isleworth—have matured a sewage scheme for themselves, in spite of prophecies to the contrary, as a noble duke having large interest in the district was thought to be certain to oppose any scheme involving the sewage being disposed of anywhere in it. I had to advise in the matter, and having pointed out a site to which the minimum of objections would apply, it was adopted, and the threatened opposition disappeared, it being recognised that some such works were for the public good, and the least objectionable site was selected. I believe the same would be the case with the other groups. Opposition would not succeed if it was shown that the schemes were well considered. Too much stress, I think, has been laid on the necessity for obtaining the consent of the owners of a site previous to a scheme involving its acquisition being proceeded with. This practice would, if it became a recognised principle, be a serious drawback to carrying out sewage disposal works on the best engineering lines, as the most undesirable sites from an engineering point of view would often be adopted, and permanent and heavy expenses would be imposed on a district simply because opposition—which could not have succeeded—was threatened to the selection of a better site.

In the Lower Thames Valley the advantages which are experienced in some cases from forming a combination of large areas with an outfall common to the whole do not exist, as there is a want of that identity of interests which is essential to a permanent and harmonious co-operation of districts. The want of this has from the first caused the Board to have opposition within itself. The incidence of taxation having been to some extent inequitable has added to the grounds for dissatisfaction. The configuration of the districts does not admit of an economical arrangement of sewerage and outfall works. Heavier pumping is necessary where the sewage of this district is concentrated at one point than where it is subdivided into several outfalls. This would have been felt to be a heavy and unequally distributed burthen, inasmuch as parts, such as Richmond and Kingston, have an existing system of sewers which are admittedly leaky, and the limit of 250 gallons per house per day, if rigidly enforced, would have involved considerable works of sewerage or else a liability to penalties for discharging the excess into the Thames. I have ascertained that the cost of sewers and of pumping is much less in grouping than in concentration, and have found that a series of grouping schemes with chemical precipitation can be carried out for a first cost of about £100,000 less than for the best concentration scheme; and, further, that they can be worked for about

£40000 a year less. During the last ten years chemical precipitation of sewage has been advanced from the untrustworthy position which it then occupied, and has been placed on a sound basis. The illusions which surrounded it, and the prejudices which existed against it, have disappeared before the practical results which have been obtained. It is now acknowledged by those familiar with the subject that if proper chemicals are employed no nuisance arises at precipitation works, and that the cause of nuisance arose when the precipitated sludge was allowed to collect, as it used to do at nearly all such works, but which is obviated by the system of pressing the sludge and converting it into a portable form, which is now the accepted method of dealing with it. By this means it is reduced in bulk and made available for agricultural purposes. Many interesting experiments have lately been made by eminent chemists which tend to show that the present sludge from efficient chemical systems has an agricultural value which will ensure its ready disposal on land by farmers. The distribution of the sludge for utilisation on land is more readily effected where there are several centres of distribution in the Thames Valley, as the Committee stated in their Report. A portable sludge from a chemical precipitation works, which retains the chief manurial ingredients in the sewage with the minimum of enfeebling chemicals, is now recognised as a manure worth putting on land, and this will ensure the disposal of the sludge with a prospect of some financial return from it, especially in view of the large number of market gardens in the Thames Valley.

As regards the chemicals that should be employed, I consider that there are several systems which effect deodorisation and precipitation of sewage and give good results. I prefer my own process, which employs a protosulphate of iron (copperas) in addition to crude sulphate of alumina and lime. The method of working this process was described by Dr. Tidy last year to the Committee of the House of Commons, which had before it the Mortlake scheme of the Lower Thames Valley Board. The following is a brief summary of his description:—After screening the sewage, to remove large substances, milk of lime is added. This forms carbonate of lime, which acts as a weighting material for the matters in suspension, thus aiding their deposition. Part of the lime also combines with some of the organic matter in solution, forming an insoluble compound. The sewage is now slightly alkaline, and the organic matter in it is reduced by about 50 per cent. After an interval of a couple of minutes—during which the particles aggregate together—crude sulphate of alumina and protosulphate of iron in a dissolved state are added together to it. The addition of the iron has certain advantages which he described as being due to its being a very powerful precipitating agent, and also a disinfectant. The alumina and iron oxide are set free by the alkalinity of the sewage due to the lime, and these combine with a further portion of the organic matter in solution, increasing the suspended matter in the fluid which is deposited as sludge, containing all the chemicals, except, perhaps, a trace of sulphate of lime, which, being slightly soluble, passes off in the effluent. The chemicals, if mixed in proper proportions, were described as producing the finest effluent which is practicable, having no sewage odour. Although a good effluent can be obtained from an efficient precipitating process, I consider it desirable to provide a small area of land or an artificial filter of burnt clay or other material—where the land is clayey and unsuited for filtration—to pass the effluent through, although this is not absolutely required except as a safeguard, or where the highest standard of purity is required. The experience which has been gained during the last few years shows that where porous land is not available for the purification of sewage water, either as sewage proper or as effluent from chemical precipitation works, a clayey soil can be converted into an artificial filter, which can oxidise enormous volumes of sewage polluted water. The oxidation of sewage matter in the soil is now known to be due not only to the atmospheric air, but also to the action of minute organisms of the bacteria family. Where artificial filters are made by burning clay into ballast, the top 9in. or so of the filter should be formed of natural soil, as this is necessary for the development of those organisms which form so important a part in the work of oxidation.

I believe that in some cases in the Thames Valley, where chemical treatment has been previously considered unavoidable, it will be obviated altogether by the conversion of a small area of land into an artificial filter of sufficient power to effect the purification of the sewage it is called upon to deal with. The natural action of oxidation by the air and by the organisms referred to would then be relied on in lieu of the artificial action of chemicals.

The discharge of the effluent from grouping schemes at several points into the river Thames would—as stated in the report of the Parliamentary Committee—enable the oxidising action of the river to be more capable of being exercised, and every trace of organic matter more readily removed in a short run of the river than would be the case if the whole volume of effluent was discharged at one spot, as the minute organisms and plants in the river—which are instrumental in destroying organic impurity—would be more free to act in the former case than in the latter. Where filtration of the effluent through land is resorted to, as I recommend, there would be no such pollution to require the oxidising action of the river to be called into play at all.

By the Act of Parliament for dissolving the Lower Thames Valley Main Sewerage Board, it is provided that any two or more sanitary authorities mentioned in a schedule which is appended to the Act—these being the Sanitary Authorities forming the existing Board—may within twelve months after the passing of the Act form a united district. This enables the constituent authorities after their dissolution to rearrange their districts into groups. It is also provided that no penalties shall be incurred by the several Sanitary Authorities lately composing the Joint Board with reference to the pollution of the

river Thames, for a period of two years from the passing of the Act dissolving them. During this time the several districts ought to be able to mature their plans, and be in a fair way to carry out works on the lines I have referred to, which appear to be those most likely to ensure success.

#### EAST SCOTTISH HARBOURS.

ONE feature of the Home Rule movement has been the claim that Scottish convicts should be employed in Scotland. The advantages which such places as Portland, Chatham, Haulbowline, &c., have derived from penal works have suggested that North British interests might be promoted by corresponding means. The loss of life on the north-east coast in 1881 and the Fishery Exhibitions drew attention to the necessity for refuge; and this point has been strenuously insisted on by the Edinburgh press. The Convict Employment Committee of 1882 reported that "in May, 1882, there were in English convict prisons 771 male convicts who had been sentenced in Scotland," but added that this number was "probably in excess of what may be expected in future years if the present decrease in sentences of penal servitude should continue." In the same report, the opinion is expressed that a harbour of refuge at Peterhead is "the most likely project for benefitting the shipping and fishing interests of the country at large, and at the same time profitably employing convicts."

This report was received with some dissent by the port authorities of Aberdeen, and as Scrabster, Wick, Fraserburgh, Stonehaven, Arbroath, &c., were each anxious to put forward its respective claims, the Convict Employment Committee deputed a sub-committee to hear and consider locally the various proposals. The position and character of the officers thus chosen insured the impartial consideration of the points at issue; but the inquiry was saddled with the condition that there was to be a "National Harbour of Refuge," which the sub-committee took to mean one with depth sufficient for the heaviest draught ships of war.

The importance of this point will be realised when it is considered how greatly the cost of breakwaters increases with the depth of water they stand in. At Peterhead the beach shelves steeply, and the pier-heads as finally proposed by Messrs. Stevenson are in eight or nine fathoms of water, the line of enclosure extending approximately from Keith Inch to Salthouse Head. The estimate for forming about 200 acres of harbour is £526,579; but the sub-committee prudently recommended the addition of 100-ton blocks to protect the seaward face of the breakwater; and as a convict establishment and fortifications, besides other permanent expenses, will also be necessary, one may perhaps assume the total outlay contemplated at about three-quarters of a million. Comparing this with the Report of the Royal Commission on Harbours of Refuge in 1859, we find therein the following paragraph.

"We recommend the enclosure of the South Bay (Peterhead) at a cost not exceeding £300,000; and considering the proportion which the shipping trading to the port will bear to those of the passing trade which will resort to it for refuge purposes, we are of opinion that the amounts of national and local benefit conferred will be fairly represented in the proportion of  $\frac{1}{3}$  and  $\frac{2}{3}$  respectively. We therefore submit that a grant of £100,000 be made in aid of the proposed harbour, to be met by a sum of £200,000 raised in the locality, and to be applied to the same purpose."

The principle of making national expenditure contingent upon a local contribution seems sound, and, if acted on, would meet the objection which has sometimes been made, that State aid chills local effort. The apportionment of the outlay is, however, an after question. In the first instance it is of consequence to ascertain carefully what the full total is likely to be. It is understood that the late Government consulted Sir John Coode on the subject, and that the necessary data are being got for his further report and estimate. When these have been furnished it is to be hoped that they, as well as the estimates of the prison and military authorities, will be made public, so that, before this extensive scheme is entered upon, it may be fully considered, and its capabilities and cost compared with alternatives. The Bay of Peterhead facing to the south-east is open to the heaviest seas from that quarter, and the precedents which Wick and Aberdeen afford—especially the former, where about £150,000 have been spent fruitlessly—are not encouraging, when it is considered that the top of Messrs. Stevenson's proposed breakwater stands only about 8ft. or 10ft. above high-water spring tides, differing in this respect from most of those which have been placed in even less exposed situations.

The Convict Sub-Committee appended to its Report a tabulated wreck-record from July 1st, 1871, to June 30th, 1883, which merits careful examination, and gives the following results:—Total recorded loss of life, 517 lives; deduct (as irrelevant)—In ships from the westward, which never reached the North Sea, 24; total, 493. Deduct—Wrecked on Shetlands and Orkneys, 93; wrecked from Dunnet Head to Buchan Ness, 70; total lost between Buchan Ness and Fife Ness, 330.

Of these 330 deaths to the south of Buchan Ness, about 287 seem due to winds ranging from east to south; so that more than  $\frac{3}{4}$  of the recorded loss of life has been of this character. Taking the annual averages and excluding fractions, we get:—Shetland and Orkneys, 8 lives lost; Dunnet Head to Buchan Ness, 6; Buchan Ness to Fife Ness, 27. Total annual average, 41.

In spite then of the numerous petitions that have been signed these figures seem to prove that however much the saliency of Peterhead may recommend it as a fishery-station, or as a strategic base for observing the Skager Rack, its claims to large national outlay can hardly be advanced on the score of humanity. A vessel which can weather Keith Inch on an east or south-east wind is pretty sure of reaching the Moray Firth, while two-thirds of the loss of life is well to the south of Peterhead Bay. Shelter for comparatively small craft, perhaps at Invernetty, is, however, no doubt required.

Since the Royal Commission of 1859, steamers have largely superseded sailing vessels; but the crowding of the Channel increases, thus inducing skippers to prefer the North-about route to America. Few, however, of the ships which appear in the Sub-Committee's wreck tables were of the Atlantic-crossing type. The average tonnage of the "passing vessels" lost between Buchan Ness and Fife Ness is about 195 tons. They were chiefly plying to and from Northumbrian and Scottish ports—the former preponderating. Whatever may have been their ports of departure and destination—and these range from Bergen to Gibraltar, including much Baltic trade—they were driven to the north-westward, embayed in the recess of East Scotland, and either beached to save life, or driven ashore without that alternative.

This aspect of the case seems to have weighed with Mr. Majoribanks' Committee of 1884, when they recommended that a technical Commission should examine the coast from Aberdeen to the Firth of Tay, to determine the exact site at which refuge works could best be carried out. The late Government refused to appoint such a special Commission; but the point deserves the fullest investigation. It seems, however, to be narrowed within comparatively small limits, since both Stonehaven and Arbroath are very open, and the latter faces to the south-east. The sands at the mouth of the Tay extend five or six miles to seaward.

The Convict Sub-Committee has spoken of the "natural advantages" of Lunan Bay, which is well protected from south-east winds by the high cliffs of Red Head; and as the beach there does not shelve so steeply as at Peterhead, a harbour for ordinary ships could probably be made there at considerably less cost. It is doubtless a great advantage to have good natural shelter from the wind which is most fatal on that coast; and even if it veered to the eastward, the shipping would then have such protection as an artificial breakwater could afford. The only port possessing the advantage of an inner harbour as a refuge from weather and from enemy is Montrose. Its drawback is the shallowness of the entrance, there being only about 6ft. at low-water spring tides; but this may be curable. Provost Napier, when examined before the Royal Commission of 1859, stated that, with a grant of £60,000, £70,000, or £80,000, ample accommodation could be provided for half a dozen second-class vessels, and that, if it were necessary, they could have "a harbour studded with men-of-war." Other witnesses corroborate these statements as to a future Scottish Portsmouth, which seem worthy of careful consideration. This Portsmouth has no Isle of Wight to protect it, but northern breakwaters on the Annat Bank have from time to time been proposed, and might be carried out, so as to avoid the mistakes that were made in the nearly parallel case of Aberdeen.

Attention has lately been directed to the defence of the Tay and Forth, the Pendjeh incident having reminded us that Russia is the only European Power with whom we have been at war during the last seventy years. It is also recalled that, in 1781, a French cruiser fired into Arbroath on being refused a demand for £30,000. The guardship usually lies at Queensferry, thirty-five miles inside the Isle of May, and it has even been suggested that an active enemy might turn the Inchkeith guns upon Leith.

A swift British cruiser, stationed at Montrose or Lunan, would be ready to dispute the line of retreat with any enemy that should venture up the Forth or Tay estuaries. If Montrose is rather farther from the mouth of the Baltic than Peterhead, it is sixty miles nearer to our chief naval and military centres, to coal-fields, and to the large fish-consuming towns, communicating with them both by the North British and Caledonian Railways. If there is less work for convicts to do, rendering their housing proportionally more expensive, the chance of selling it profitably is greater in a more thickly peopled district. Land would also naturally rise in value on the completion of such works.

More recent than the Convict Reports which have been quoted above is the decision as to Government loans at low rates to harbour authorities. It will naturally induce Aberdeen and other commercial ports to undertake improvements, leaving the State free to address itself to the more national question of protecting British shipping. England has national works at Woolwich, Chatham, Sheerness, Dover, Portsmouth, Portland, and Plymouth; Wales, at Pembroke and Holyhead; Ireland, at Donaghadee, Ardglass, Howth, Kingstown, and Cork Harbour; while all that has hitherto been done for Scotland is the abandoned harbour of Portpatrick—a precedent which hardly encourages sea works at exposed salients of our coast. Few, therefore, are likely to dissent from the principle that offenders against Scottish law should be employed to promote Scottish interests, though difference of opinion may well exist as to the best site for their labours.

CHESTERFIELD AND DERBYSHIRE INSTITUTE OF MINING, CIVIL, AND MECHANICAL ENGINEERS.—The Annual General Meeting was held on Thursday, 25th June, in the Guildhall, Derby, Mr. John Jackson, M. Inst. C.E., vice-president, in the chair. Three new members, elected by ballot, were announced. The Council's report, and financial statements, showed the number of continuing members 263. The Society having almost from its commencement in 1871 included nearly all the chief mining engineers and colliery managers in the Midland Mines Inspection District of Derby, Notts, Leicester, and Warwick, it was decided to amend the title to be in future "Chesterfield and Midland Counties Institution of Engineers." An adjourned discussion took place "On Colliery Explosions." A paper by Mr. A. H. Stokes, H.M. Inspector of Mines, was followed by a very animated discussion, adjourned, "On Colliery Winding Ropes and their Attachment to the Cage," by Mr. P. M. Chester. The new papers, taken as read, were "The Kaiping Coal Mines, China," by Mr. James Stevens, Kaiping; "Description of a Firedamp Indicator," by Mr. A. H. Maurice, Cardiff. The new Council, elected by ballot, are, president, Lord Edward Cavendish, M.P.; vice-president, Messrs. Alfred Barnes, M.P., H. A. Allport, C. Binns, E. Bromley, J. W. Fearn, J. Jackson, G. Lewis, W. Oliver. Councillors: Messrs. T. D. Croutace, E. Eastwood, H. Fisher, G. Hewitt, W. D. Holford, G. Howe, J. Humble, H. Lewis, J. A. Longden, M. H. Mills; treasurer, E. Bromley; secretary, W. F. Howard. The members afterwards dined together at St. James's Hotel; Thomas Evans, Esq., H.M. Inspector of Mines, in the chair. The excursion meeting is proposed to be arranged to take place in September.





SINKING THE CYLINDERS OF THE TAY BRIDGE BY PONTOONS.\*

By Mr. ANDREW S. BIGGART.

ONE of the most common forms of foundations now adopted on which to build the superstructure of a modern bridge is the cylinder. But, as the foundations are often in positions difficult to get at, and when there, to remain at, owing to causes such as the rise and fall of the tide, rapidity of the current, storms, &c., a difficult problem in connection with the building is often, How are the cylinders to be sunk? One of the easiest, and at the same time most sure, methods now in vogue is to build a wooden stage around the place where each cylinder is to be sunk, and from this as a working platform lower, dig out, concrete, and carry them up to the desired height. Some cylinders are of sufficient capacity to float themselves with perfect safety to their respective positions, as well as be made to carry all the sinking apparatus and platform necessary to regulate their descent into their final resting place. Or again, if we drop to the smallest form of cylinder, we would instance the screw and the hollow pile, the former of which is sent home by the simple, though sometimes difficult, process of screwing into the ground, while the latter is driven. While work can and is being done every day by methods similar to these, it is readily understood that much is done, especially if a stage has been constructed, which requires to be undone with a consequent loss of time and money. To use the old method of staging for such a work as the New Tay Viaduct would have required almost a forest of timber for this alone, and, owing to the great depth of water, the work would have been both tedious and expensive.

Before proceeding to sketch the novel method which has, however, been adopted, let us look at the primary conditions which must necessarily be fulfilled by whatever form of platform is used—(1) There must be a working platform, on which can be placed cranes and other machinery; (2) the platform must be high enough to permit of work being conducted from and upon it at all states of the tide; (3) it should also be capable of being removed speedily from one position to another. These primary conditions, enhanced by many other advantages, are practically realised in the pontoons designed by Mr. Arrol, and now used successfully by him in sinking the cylinders of the New Tay Viaduct. The pontoons used, of which there are four, are all made up of tanks, for the sake of convenience, which are rigidly fastened together in the form of a rectangle, and they vary in size from 56ft. by 36ft. 6in. by 6ft. deep, as in the smallest, to 81ft. by 66ft. by 7ft. deep, as in that of the largest. We propose to confine our description to one of these, as all are the same in principle, varying only in some of the details.

Fig. 1.

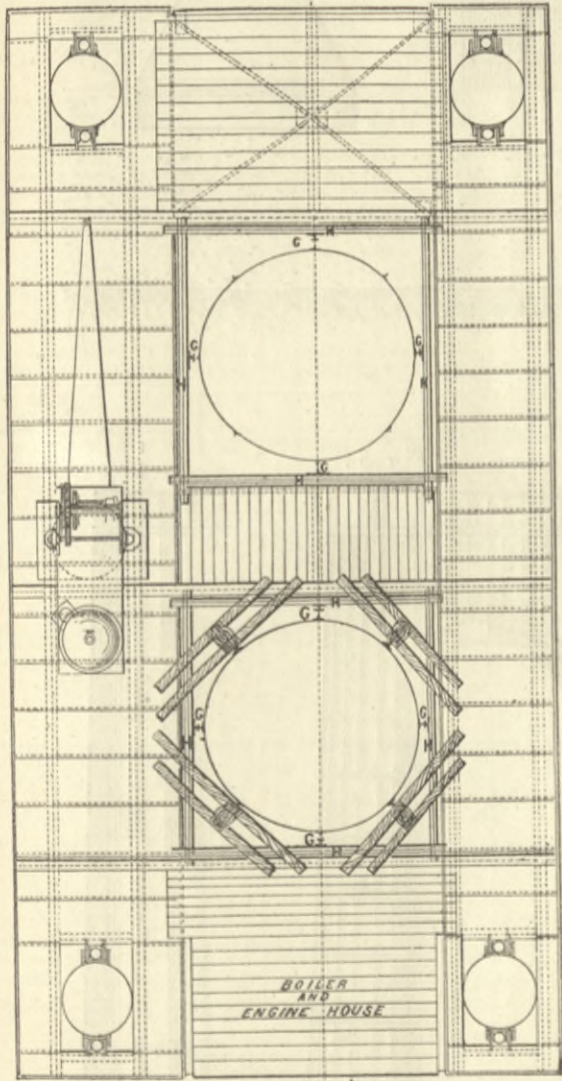
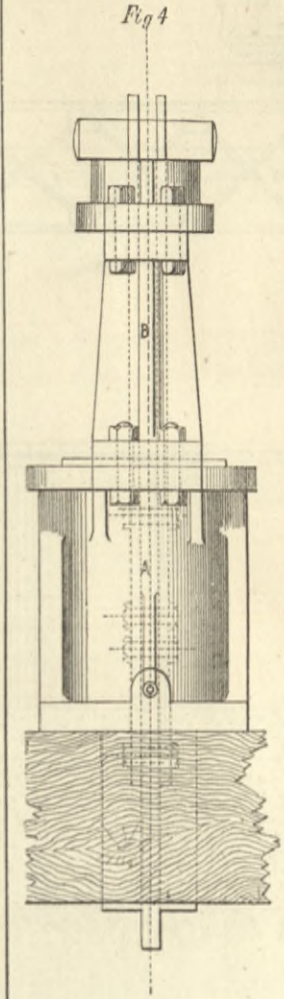


Fig. 1 presents a plan of No. 2 pontoon. You will observe there are two main tanks running the whole length of the platform, connected together by one small tank, and several main cross girders, the full depth of the tanks, as well as top and bottom outer cross girders. In both of the main tanks there are two rectangular openings, one at each end. Through these the legs are passed which are used for raising and lowering the platform. To the tanks are fixed at these openings steel plates for carrying the hydraulic cylinders required to perform this action. Equally from the centre, and at the distance of 26ft., centre to centre, the large cylinders are lowered, one at a time, through the centre openings in the platform, and this, too, by special hydraulic machinery, being guided in their descent by the vertical guides G, which in their turn are attached to the cross girders H H fixed at the top and bottom of the tanks. The cross girders are only temporarily fastened, so that in the event of the platform being raised somewhat out of position they can be shifted, and with them the guides, thus making it practicable with almost a minimum of labour to lower the cylinders in their true position, even although the pontoon has been pitched slightly out of place. On one of the main tanks there is fixed a crane which is used for lifting material on to the platform, and also for excavating by means of mechanical diggers the sand and earth within the cylinders. In the small connecting tank is placed a boiler and engine, used for driving the hydraulic pumps, working windlass, &c., as may be required. Other machinery and gear, such as portable boiler and engine, centrifugal pumps, capstans, bollards, fairleads, workshops for the men, all find a place on this sometimes floating

\* Paper read before the Institution of Engineers and Shipbuilders in Scotland, 28th April.

staging, at other times stationary and high out of the water.

Before this description can be of much practical value it will be necessary to describe more in detail the principal parts of the pontoon, and the mode by which it is wrought. The method of raising and lowering the platform is shown by Fig. 3. A is one of the legs, which is 5ft. in diameter, and of a conical shape at the bottom, to prevent the ground on which it rests being scoured from underneath. On it is fixed four heavy steel plates B B, two on each side, about 16in. apart, having holes C C passing through them, spaced about 6in. apart. Sliding within these two plates, but fixed to the platform, are other two D D, having holes the same size and pitch as in the outside plates, and carrying between them a hydraulic cylinder E, provided with a piston P, piston rod R, and crosshead I. The action is as follows:—Suppose the piston P to be at the top of the cylinder, through the crosshead I and outer plates B B a steel pin is passed; when water is admitted, the cylinder E is forced up, because the outer plates B B on which the pin rests are fixed to the leg A, which in its turn bears on the ground. The plates D D are thus lifted, and with them the platform. When the cylinder has been raised about 6in., the holes through the inner plates D D and outer plates B B are in line. Into one of these is now passed another steel pin. If the water in the cylinder E is allowed to go free, the platform will now hang on the pin just inserted, and allow the first to be withdrawn. The piston is now forced to the top of the cylinder, and the first pin being again inserted, all is ready for another lift. From this you can readily perceive the only limit to the height to which the platform may be raised is the length of the leg and its accompanying plates. In lowering the platform this action is simply reversed. Both cylinders at each leg are wrought at the same time, and, if convenient, the others at the remaining corners of the platform. The large foundation cylinders, two of which are in each pier, are lowered into position by the hydraulic apparatus shown by Figs. 1, 3, and 4. Each of these cylinders, including an inside brick ring, which must be built before being lowered into position, weighs about 50 tons, varying less or more according to the depth to which it is to be sunk. The hydraulic cylinders and links for lowering these foundation cylinders are shown by Fig. 2. Figs. 1 and 3 show the manner in which these are wrought. C is the cylinder to be lowered; A the hydraulic lowering cylinder; P the piston and hollow trunk through which is passed the steel links L, these being single and double every alternate length, and through all are cotter holes about 10in. apart. B is a bow, fixed on to and over the hydraulic cylinder A; through it the links are also passed, they being in short lengths, and attached to one another by means of bolts. At the bottom of the cylinder C these links are firmly fixed to a plate, which, in its turn, is securely bolted to the cylinder. The action in lowering is as follows:—Suppose the combined piston and trunk P is almost raised to the top of its stroke, by admitting water through a cock at Q, a cotter is able to be inserted through the hole H. Upon water being again admitted, the links are raised, and with them the cylinder C, thus relieving the top cotter—presently resting on the bow—which is then withdrawn and inserted in the first hole higher up. The water being now allowed to escape, the piston P and links L, with the large cylinder C attached, descend till the top cotter again rests on the bow B. The lower cotter is then free to be withdrawn and inserted in the first hole higher up, and this done we are ready to begin a new stroke, and so continuing the cylinder C is gradually lowered till it reaches the river bed. Four of these hydraulic cylinders are employed in lowering one foundation cylinder. The water for all the hydraulic machinery is obtained from the pumps already mentioned. The diggers used are of various types, but principally consist of those with hinged automatic doors, which are open when the digger is dropped into the ground, and closed by links in the act of withdrawal. These are used principally in excavating the sand and other soft materials, others having hydraulic cylinders for opening and closing strong toothed doors, in order to tear and bring away the softer rocks and hard clays, have been used, but to no extent. In some cases a centrifugal pump has been utilised to great advantage for taking out the silty sand within the cylinders. The main suction pipe has two inlets, to each of which is attached a flexible rubber pipe. While the nozzle of the one inlet is being held to the sand by a diver, the other is loose and sucking in clean water. By using this precaution the pump seldom gets choked, and with some kinds of deposit this method is found to give excellent results.



After this preliminary description you will readily follow the mode of working the pontoon during the sinking of a pier. The first thing necessary to be done is to float out the pontoon as nearly as possible to its true position, immediately over where the cylinders are to be sunk. It is taken to its place by means of the crane already on it, acting as a windlass, the ropes and chains being fastened to buoys and the piers of the old bridge. Placed in position, it is only the work of a few minutes to drive away the temporary supports on which the legs are resting—the pins at this time being all removed—when they gradually sink to the bottom. The hydraulic apparatus used in raising the platform—already described and shown in Figs. 4—is now brought into requisition, and made to lift it to the desired height. This is generally attained when the bottom of the pontoon is about 2ft. under high water level. The best, and occasionally the only time the pontoon can be brought into position, before being raised, is at high tide. It is the best because the platform is about as high as it requires to be, and occasionally it is the only time, on account of the depth of water required to float it in. Anchors and chains are now called into requisition to assist the legs in keeping the platform steady, which, by the way, is found to be remarkably so, even in the roughest weather. When standing on the platform, during a high wind, and carefully watching the movement at high tide, when the waves are dashing against it, the oscillation is found to be very slight, even with both these adverse circumstances to its steadiness in play. All done we have a fixed platform, above the influence of the tide, and at the same time in the best attainable position relative to the pier at which work is about to be commenced. Upon the platform is also placed all the necessary apparatus for the lowering, sinking, and building of the cylinders, material, of course, excepted. The cylinders are now built over one of the central openings of the platform, being brought in complete rings, for convenience in handling, as part of the fixing together has to be done while they are thus being built in position. As section after section of iron is added—within—on the inner side, is built a

ring of brick in cement, thereby increasing the weight, which assists during the process of digging to sink the cylinder and also keep it in form, as well as fulfilling the primary object of its being there, namely, to insure the safety of the structure in the event of the iron being corroded away. While the rings are in course of being added, all at the same time is lowered by the hydraulic apparatus already described till the cylinder reaches the river bed. The digger is now set to work and gradually excavates the material from within the cylinder, and thereby makes a way for it to settle down into the ground, and this is continued until it reaches its proper depth. Although apparently easy and simple on paper, the difficulties in the way preventing the desired end being attained are sometimes enormous; for example, you may come on a bed of boulders—this is found in many piers, being the protecting rubble of the old bridge piers—or even one large one, say one quarter within and the remainder outside of the cylinder, or get into clay so hard that the digger can barely cut into it, and yet so leaky as to make it impossible to pump the cylinder dry. Or there may be difficulties, the causes of which, if known, could be as easily counteracted and overcome as was the case when the sand sanded within the cylinder during the ebbing of the tide, on account of the water being higher within than without; the digger in these circumstances brought up only a small quantity at a time, nothing to be compared to what was done when the water was kept a little lower within than without. This is easily accomplished by the artificial means of pumping, the effect of which is to cause a little water to be constantly leaking through the sand into the cylinder, thereby keeping it loose, and consequently making it easy to be dug into. At other times the diggers are completely useless for excavating the material within the cylinders; a good alternative—if at all possible—in a case of this kind, is to force the cylinder down by piling on weights, till it becomes practicable to pump it dry, after which it can be dug out by hand. Before this has been accomplished, in some cases it has been necessary to add as much as 400 tons of artificial loading to some of the 15ft. diameter cylinders. If the cylinder cannot be made water-tight, then in a case of this kind resort has to be had to divers.

When a cylinder has reached the desired depth, and provided the bottom is satisfactory, filling in with concrete is commenced, and continued till it reaches the top of the ironwork. The material for making the concrete—gravel and cement—is in most cases lowered from the old viaduct, which is only 60ft. to the eastward, and runs parallel with the new, except a short piece at the ends. The gravel is emptied out of the trucks into a shoot resting on the pontoon platform, and is there mixed and afterwards thrown or lowered into the cylinders, as the case may require. The second cylinder having been placed in position in a similar manner to the first, the platform is now lowered and at high tide is floated away over the top of the now sunk cylinders, the tops of which are only visible at extreme low water, thus leading the uninitiated to suppose little has been done because little is seen. Cast iron weights are now built on girders above the cylinders for the purpose of testing the sufficiency of the foundation. Sufficient weight is laid on to cause a pressure of five tons per square foot on the whole area under the cylinders. If they sink at all, these weights are allowed to remain until all indications of such are stopped, after which they are transferred on to the next set by means of a wire cable or barge. It is here worthy of notice that the test load placed on the piers is 33 1/3 per cent. in excess of the weight that would be brought, although the two lines were fully loaded with trains. On the removal of the weights, temporary caissons are fixed to the permanent cylinders by bolts and pumped dry. The remaining blue brick, outer shell, concrete, and stone work above low-water is then executed. Twenty feet down into this are built the holding-down bolts, sixteen in number, in each pier, all 2 1/2 in. diameter. The caissons are removed, and afterwards the connecting piece between the cylinders and the remainder of the pier is built up to and underpinned beneath the iron base on which the wrought iron superstructure rests. Progress is thus going on at several piers at one and the same time:—(1) The pontoon, lowering, digging, and concreting; (2) testing the value of the foundations; (3) building under high-water within the temporary caissons; (4) finishing remainder of pier to underside of ironwork. This, again, is but the starting point from which the iron superstructure, as shown in Fig. 5, begins to rise—in stages also—to be followed by the placing of the girders and flooring, on which, finally, the track is laid.

Although the advantages gained by using pontoons such as those described are apparent to all, it is at the same time evident they could not be used to advantage, except on works of some magnitude, where, for instance, there are a goodly number of piers to be put down, and also difficulties to be overcome, for grapping which they are peculiarly suited. The new Tay Viaduct furnishes such work and difficulties. The pontoons on the Dundee side sunk and concreted one complete pier—of two cylinders, 10ft. diameter each—per week, for nearly two months on end, the greatest difficulty to contend with being the shallowness of the water in which it had to work. The depth to which each of these cylinders is sunk varies from about 16ft. to 26ft. under the bed of the river.

Such is a very brief résumé of the foundation work, and the mode by which it is being accomplished at this viaduct at the present time. Time alone will tell, when the results are balanced, if the decision was altogether wise which fixed on this novel method of carrying out a vast undertaking.

TENDERS.

LEICESTER SEWAGE WORKS.

FOR supplying and fixing a wrought iron hurdle fence 72 yards long, with one wrought iron single field gate, for the Leicester sewage works. Quantities by Mr. J. Gordon, C.E., borough surveyor.

Table with 3 columns: Contractor Name, Quantity, and Price in £ s. d.

For the pulling down of the present boundary and cross wall, and the building of a new boundary and retaining wall, at the Leicester sewage works. Quantities by the borough surveyor, Mr. J. Gordon, C.E.

Table with 3 columns: Contractor Name, Quantity, and Price in £ s. d.

SUTTON-IN-ASHFIELD, NOTTS, WATERWORKS.

Mr. George Hodson, C.E., Loughborough, and Mr. Herbert Walker, C.E., Nottingham, joint engineers.

Table with 3 columns: Contractor Name, Quantity, and Price in £ s. d.

CRICLIETH.—EXTENSION OF MAIN SEWERS.

Mr. Thomas Roberts, Assoc. M. Inst. C.E., engineer.

Table with 4 columns: Contractor Name, Railway Station, Manchester House, and Total. Columns contain names, station names, and prices in £ s. d.

SINKING THE CAISSONS OF THE TAY BRIDGE PIERS.

(For description see page 25.)

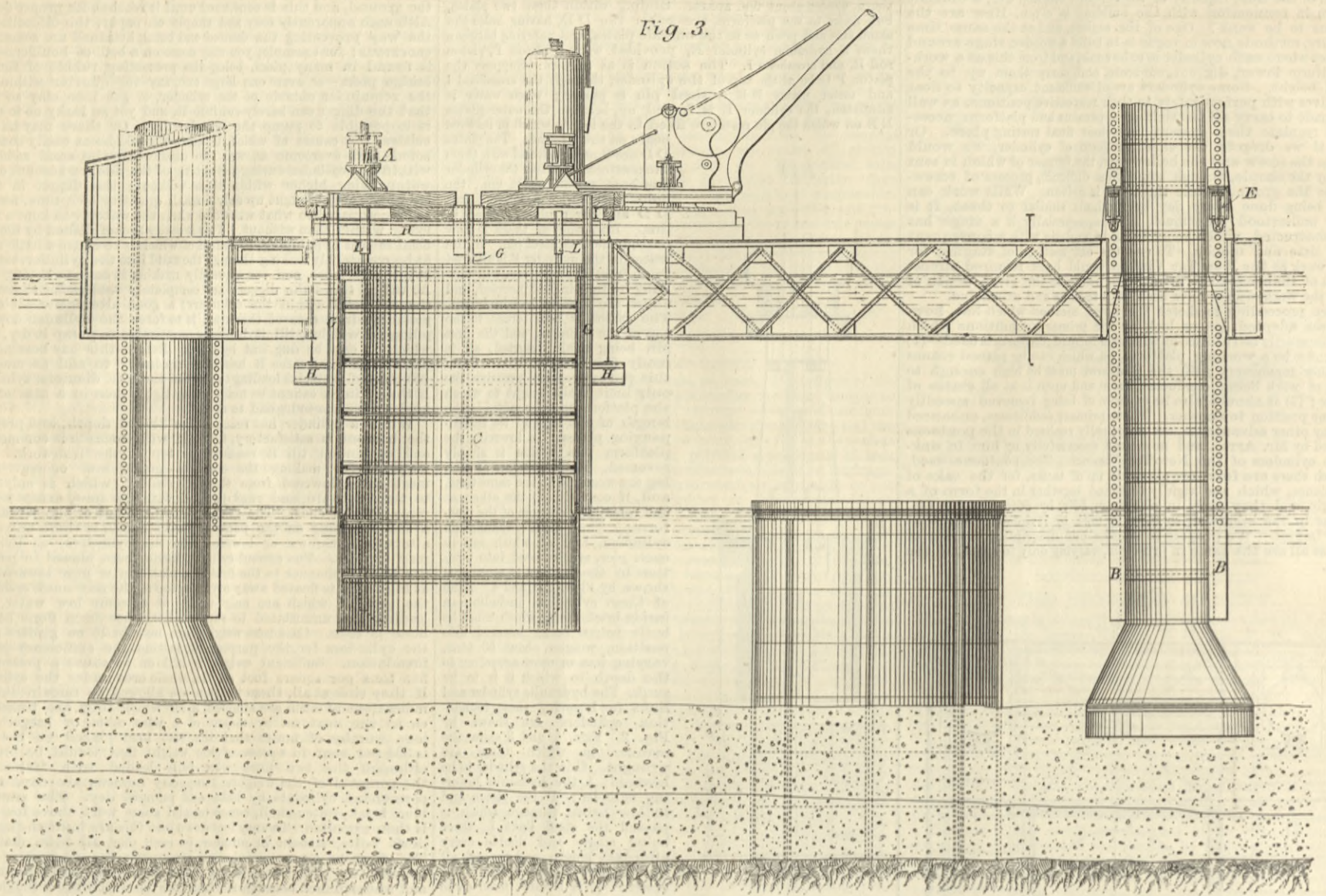
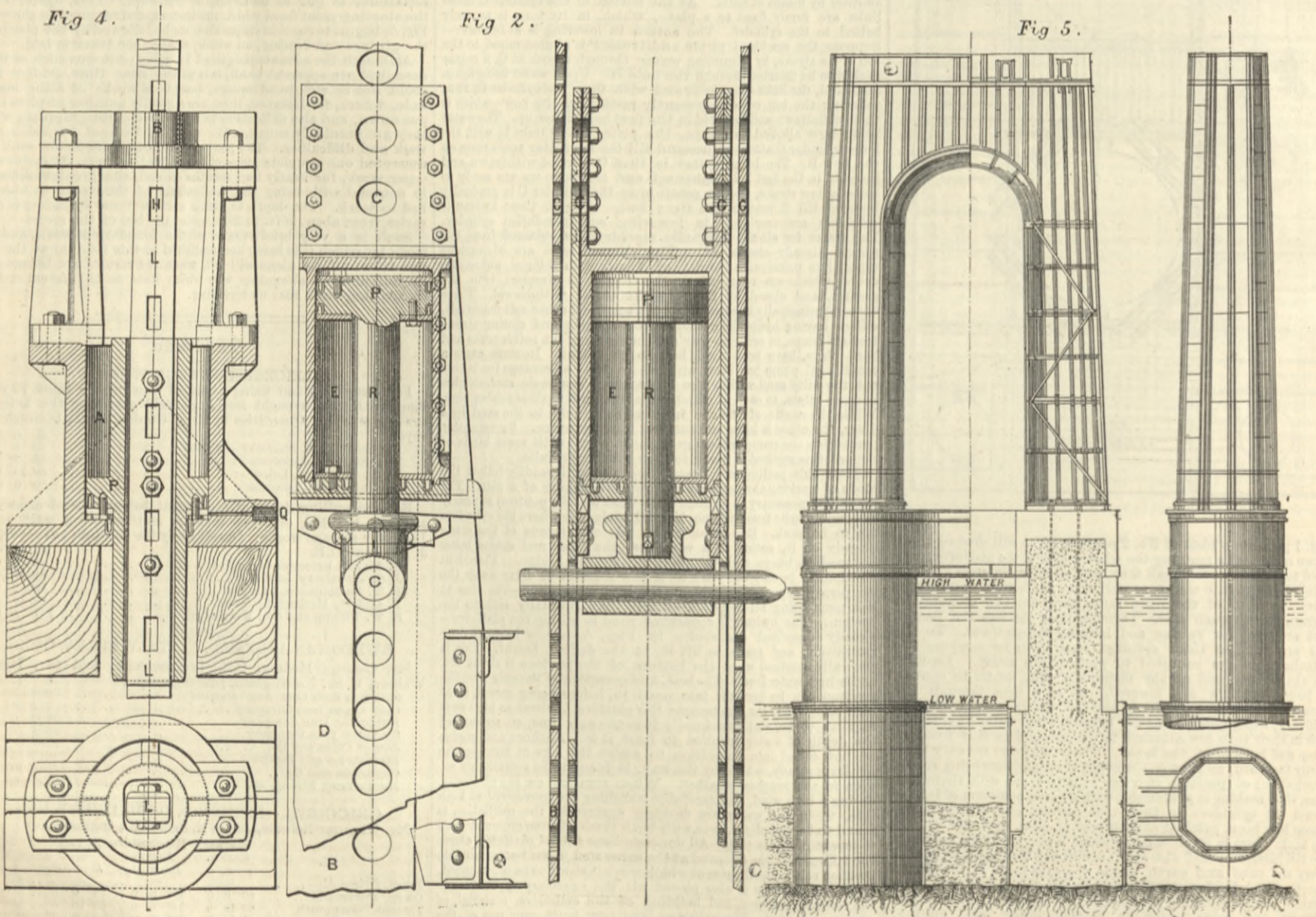


Fig 4.

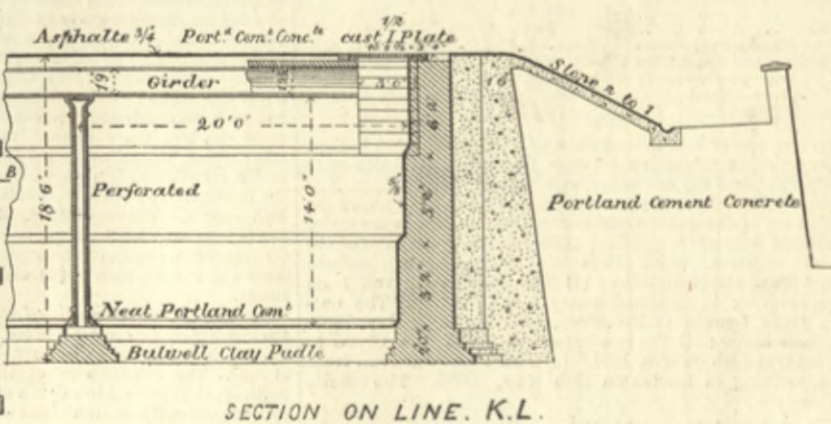
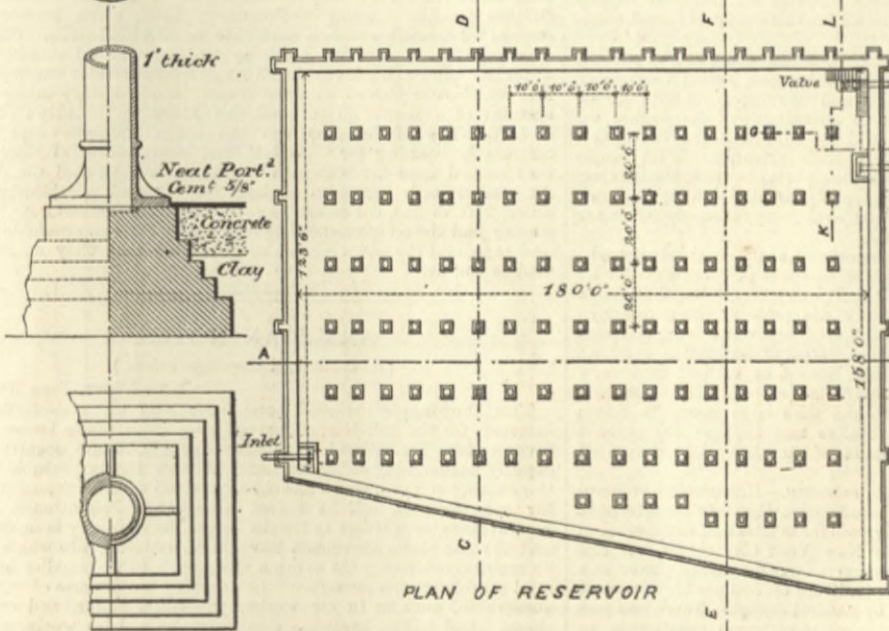
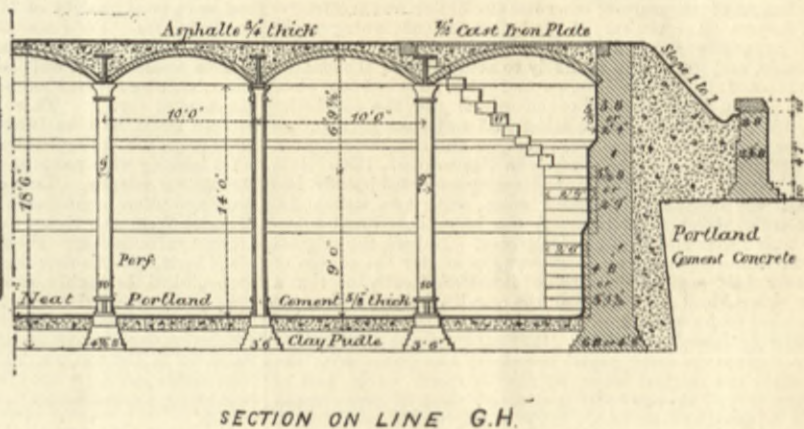
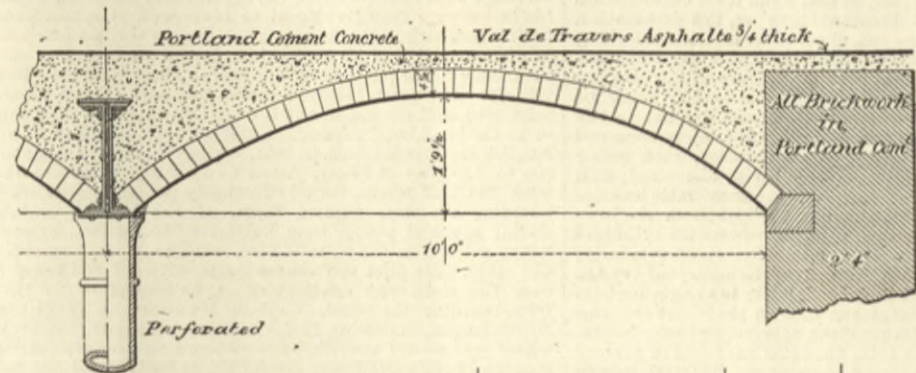
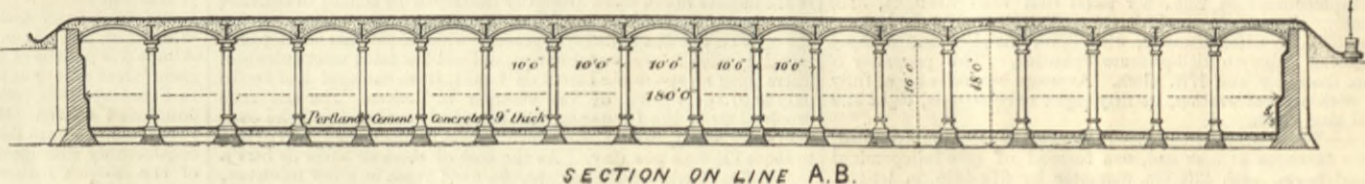
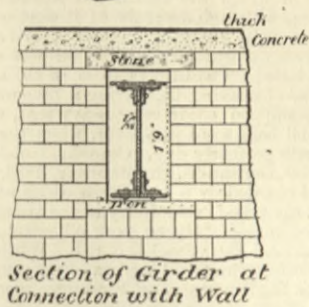
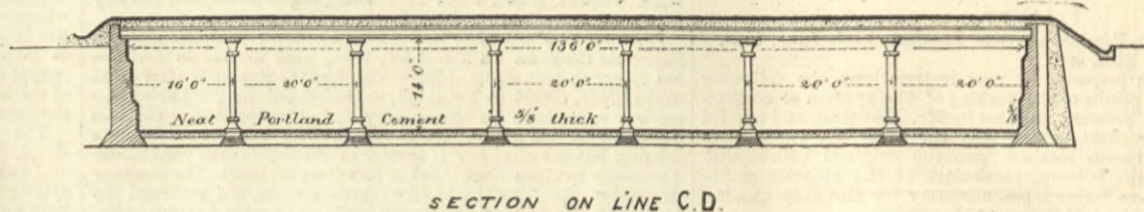
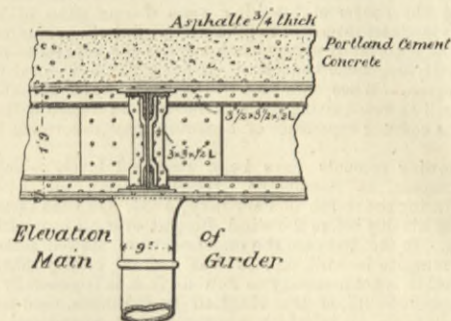
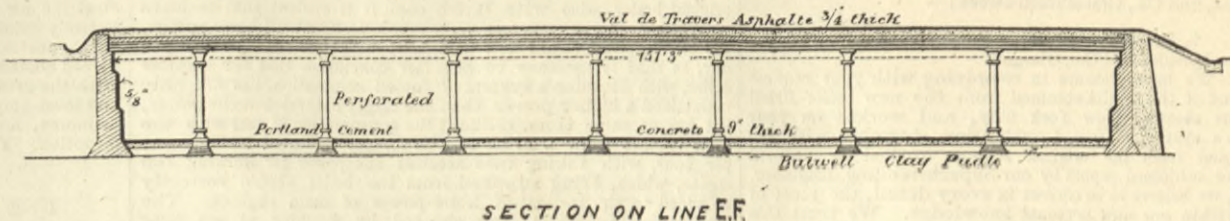
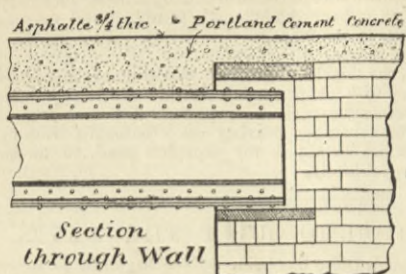
Fig 2.

Fig 5.



COVERED SERVICE RESERVOIR, NOTTINGHAM WATERWORKS.

MR. OGLE TARBOTTON, M.I.C.E., ENGINEER.



On this page we illustrate the new service reservoir, constructed under Mr. Ogle Tarbotton, and known as the Park-row Reservoir. It is finished, and was opened on the 22nd of June. The original reservoir was made in the year 1832, and was a small open one; and being shallow and exposed to the air the water was liable to continuous atmospheric and other contamination. In the summer time it was necessary to empty the reservoir and clean it out, by a large body of men, every three weeks; and in the winter periods at intervals of about six or eight weeks. These operations caused a large loss of water, and much temporary inconvenience to the district supplied from the reservoir. The old reservoir was connected directly with the supply of water from the old Trent Pumping-station; that is to say, the water supplied to the town was obtained from the river Trent, and pumped direct from the now disused station through a 15in. main. It was the first high-pressure and constant service supply in the kingdom of England constructed by Mr. Hawksley. It was also supplemented by a small supply from the springs at Scotchholme. Both these sources of supply have been discontinued since the waterworks came into the hands of the Corporation, and now the reservoir is mainly fed from the Bagthorpe wells. Water can be and is frequently run in from Bestwood and Papplewick. The new reservoir possesses some points of interest, as it is of peculiar construction. Owing to the contracted area of the land, and the imperious demands of the public for the improvement of the adjacent streets, the formation had to be somewhat different to that usually employed. Service reservoirs of this kind are generally constructed of brickwork with puddle backing, and of course the piers and arches, as in the case of the lately built high-service reservoir on Mapperley Plains, occupied a considerable area and involved corresponding expense. It is simply a large tank, without

puddle, except to a certain extent on the floor, the whole of the interior faces of the walls being lined with Portland cement plastering. The size of the reservoir is 180ft. by 141ft.; the height is 16ft.; and the shape on plan is rhomboidal. The roof is constructed of light brick arches, which are covered with Portland cement concrete, and the latter is finally coated with Val de Travers asphaltum. The arches are supported by cast iron columns and wrought iron girders, and the whole of the framing of the roof is tied together by transverse girders of wrought iron. The floor is formed of puddle and Portland cement concrete with a coating of pure cement, and the columns are hollow and made to hold the water inside, therefore the holding power of the huge tank is reduced only by the thickness of the metal of the columnar supports. The capacity of the reservoir is about 2 1/2 million gallons, and this large volume will be pumped into the reservoir every day and used for the supply of the low level zone, for the service of which the reservoir is constructed. The work has been constructed in a short space of time, Mr. Smart, Nottingham, being the contractor. The cost, including the widening of two streets known as Park-street and Ropewalk-street, will be about £12,000. The inhabitants of the large water area now supplied by the Corporation of Nottingham do not now possess a single uncovered reservoir. They are supplied with water from wells.

In a paper last session on "The Electromotive Force during diffusion in Tidal Streams" (see "Proceedings," Royal Society, No. 232, the author recorded the electrical part of this investigation. The present communication contains the concluding gravimetric experiments of the research. The effects attending the diffusion of the salt and fresh water in tidal estuaries, on parts of the same metal, of known composition and general properties, were estimated in each case for a period of one year, during which bright plates of the following metals:—viz., wrought iron—combined carbon none—"Soft" Bessemer steel (c.c. 0.15), "soft" Siemens-Martin steel (c.c. 0.17), "soft" cast steel (c.c. 0.46), "hard" Bessemer steel (c.c. 0.51), best cast metal, "No 1," (c.c. 0.39), common cast metal, "No. 2" (c.c. 0.67), were constantly exposed to conditions of galvanic action similar to those obtaining in some tidal streams. The results demonstrate that electric disintegration of the nature alluded to in this and the former paper—viz., the galvanic destructive action on parts of even the same metal, arising from difference of electrical potential during diffusion between the surface and lower waters in a tidal stream—is, on comparison with other investigations by the author, apparently of much greater extent than the loss either from simple corrosion in sea water alone, or than that which ensues from the action on each other of dissimilar metals of this group—such as wrought irons, cast metals, and steels—in galvanic connection in sea water. Compared with simple corrosion in sea water only the increase in loss varied from about 15 up to 50 per cent., according to the nature of the metals. The results of the experiments in this and the former paper indicate, therefore, that the tidal action on any vessel or metallic structure, of sea and fresh water whilst diffusing is, in the case even of the same metal thus exposed to the simultaneous action of top and bottom waters, considerably more destructive in its nature and character than the action of sea water alone. Moreover, the author has found it in some instances to exceed from about 55 to 120 per cent. the loss caused by galvanic action between dissimilar metals of the iron and steel group in circuit in sea water.

ACTION OF TIDAL STREAMS ON IRON AND STEEL.—At the meeting of the Royal Society, June 18th, a paper was read on "The action of Tidal Streams on Metals during Diffusion of Salt and Fresh Water, Experimental Research, Part II. (Gravimetric)," by Thomas Andrews, F.R.S.E., communicated by Professor G. G. Stokes, Sec. R.S.



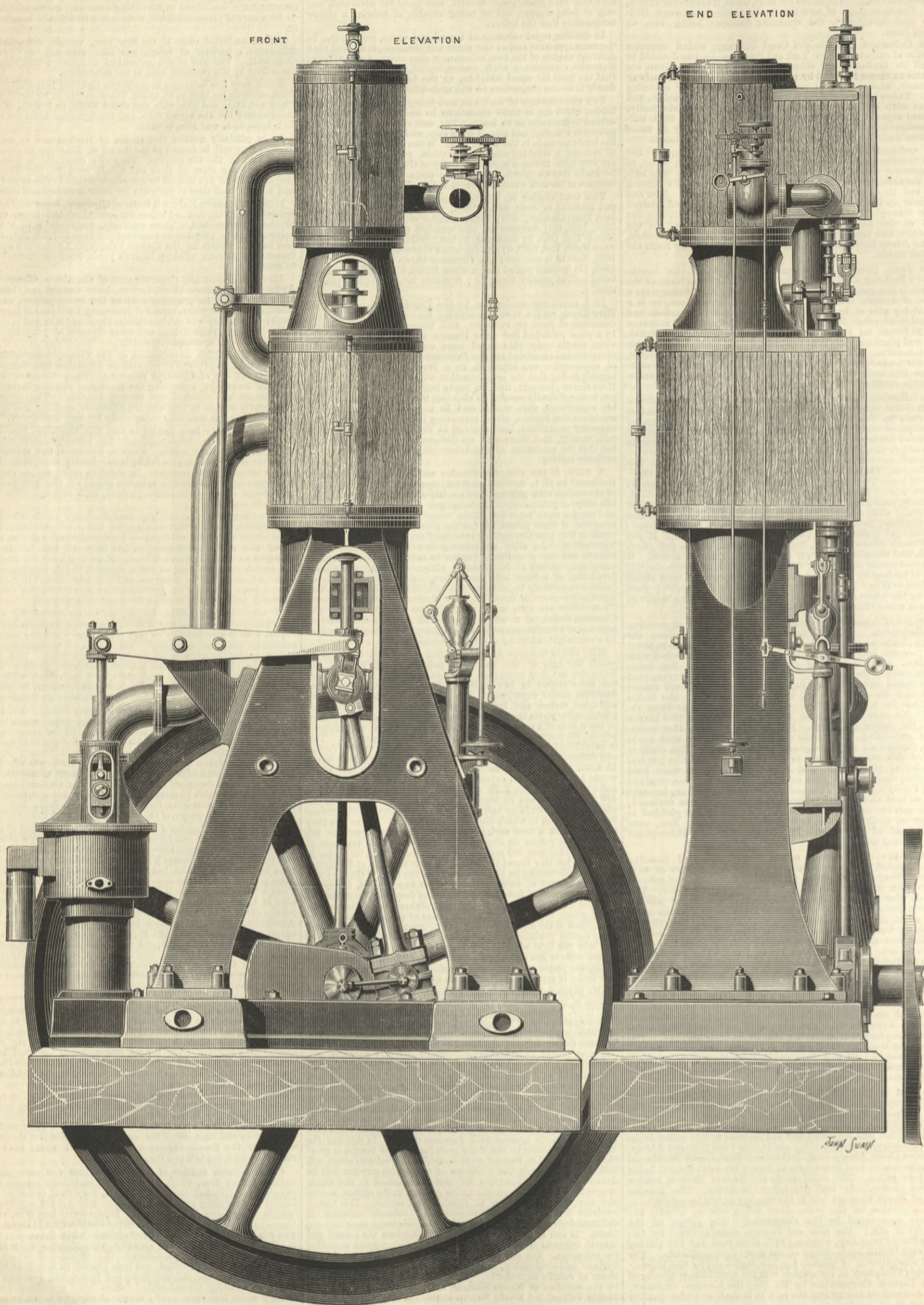




FIFTY-HORSE POWER VERTICAL COMPOUND MILL ENGINE.

MESSRS. SPENCER AND CO., MELKSHAM, WILTS, ENGINEERS.

(For description see page 35.)



## FOREIGN AGENTS FOR THE SALE OF THE ENGINEER.

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BERLIN.—ASHER and Co., 5, *Unter den Linden*.  
VIENNA.—Messrs. GEROLD and Co., *Booksellers*.  
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NEW YORK.—THE WILLMER and ROGERS NEWS COMPANY,  
31, *Beekman-street*.

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\* \* Next week a Double Number of THE ENGINEER will be published containing the Index to the Fifty-ninth Volume, and a large quantity of extra matter. Price of the Double Number, 1s.

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- \* \* We cannot undertake to return drawings or manuscripts; we must therefore request correspondents to keep copies.
- \* \* In order to avoid trouble and confusion, we find it necessary to inform correspondents that letters of inquiry addressed to the public, and intended for insertion in this column, must, in all cases, be accompanied by a large envelope legibly directed by the writer to himself, and bearing a 1d. postage stamp, in order that answers received by us may be forwarded to their destination. No notice will be taken of communications which do not comply with these instructions.
- C. E. C.—Jenkin & Ewing's paper "On Harmonic Analysis of Certain Fossil Sounds," *Trans. Royal Soc., Edinburgh, vol. xxviii., year 1879*.
- J. D.—We do not think the game would be worth the candle, as the tightening gear would hardly ever be used. A very similar device was employed in the old-fashioned marine engine with hemp-packed pistons, to tighten the junk ring without taking off the cylinder cover.
- W. T. F.—There will be a lateral strain equal to the lateral effort on the pinion or trundle driving the mill. That, you will see, is pushed sideways when the mill is at work; just as much as it is pushed one way, the axle of the horizontal wheel will be pushed the other way. The carpenter is right.
- T. C.—(1) We cannot do better than advise you to read Tyndall's "Heat as a Mode of Motion." It would take more space than we can spare here to answer your question intelligibly. As a matter of fact, energy is not lost by an elastic fluid flowing through a contracted orifice, provided the conditions are suitable. (2) It is not economical to control a steam engine by wire-drawing steam, but there is reason to conclude that the loss incurred in this way is not so great as some engineers suppose.

## TAPLOCA MACHINERY AND PLANT.

(To the Editor of The Engineer.)

SIR,—I shall be obliged by any correspondent who will send me the names of the manufacturers of machinery and apparatus for the preparation of taploca.  
London, July 6th. H. J. W.

## SQUARE WROUGHT IRON GASPIPES.

(To the Editor of The Engineer.)

SIR,—I shall feel obliged if any of your readers can tell me the address of a firm in England which produces, or keeps on hand, square gaspipes of wrought iron: inside width, 6, 10, or 12 mm., or in other dimensions.  
Vienna, July 2nd. J. C. A.

## COPYING PROCESSES.

(To the Editor of The Engineer.)

SIR,—I am desirous of obtaining the latest method of copying letters—that is to say, of a person's own handwriting. I have been using the multiscrit or multigraph—a gelatine tablet—but would prefer having a machine that did not require any washing after using. I would feel greatly obliged if any of your readers would kindly give me particulars as to where I could obtain a portable machine capable of being easily worked by one person, and of producing from 100 to 300 copies on ordinary writing paper.  
Sydney, N.S.W., May 28th. W. A.

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## DEATH.

On the 25th June, at Mount-street, Dublin, JAMES CARLILE KERTLAND, District Locomotive Superintendent, East Indian Railway, Jumalpoore, Engal, youngest son of the late William Kertland, aged 52.

## THE ENGINEER.

JULY 10, 1885.

## THE DOLPHIN.

In our last impression we published the report of a Board of experts appointed to examine the United States cruiser Dolphin and report thereon. We have now before us a statement of the particulars in which the ship is found wanting, and although we fail to find in them a justification for the sweeping condemnation that has been passed upon the ship, her defects are bad enough. Summed up in a few words, these defects consist in structural weakness, miserable leaking decks, and

improperly arranged steering gear. For the decks no justification can be pleaded; and Mr. Roach, the builder, is, it is said, ready to make good all defects. The steering gear, too, is to be altered. It is proposed by the Board of Examiners that the hull should be strengthened, and this also may no doubt be done. When even all the improvements and alterations have been made that it seems possible to make, the vessel will be, we think, unsatisfactory, and the United States Government will find themselves in possession of a slow and weak ship, carrying one small gun. It is not very easy to see what purpose such a craft can serve. In still water when hard pushed she has barely made 15 knots, and her sea speed cannot be more than 13 knots, probably it will be about 12 knots. This is much too slow for a despatch boat; as a fighting ship she is of course entirely useless.

The contest about the merits and demerits of the Dolphin has now become a party question. The last Secretary of the Navy was Mr. W. E. Chandler, the present Secretary is Mr. Whitney. This gentleman denounces the Dolphin, and Mr. Chandler defends her, or rather Mr. Roach. "It is clear," he writes "as the sun at noonday that Mr. Roach is responsible only for good workmanship. The law of August 5, 1882, authorising certain ships and creating the Naval Advisory Board, provided that neither of the vessels should be contracted for nor commenced until full and complete detail drawings and specifications thereof, in all its parts, including the hull, engines, and boilers, shall have been provided or adopted by the Navy Department, and shall have been approved in writing by the said Board, or by a majority of the members thereof, and by the Secretary of the Navy." This provision of the law was complied with, and Mr. Roach bid upon the designs of the Navy Department, and, justly and properly, was compelled to guarantee only good workmanship. He guaranteed neither speed, horse-power, nor anything else, except that the materials should be 'first-class and of the very best quality,' and well and faithfully put together, according to the plans and specifications of the Department and under the inspection and supervision of the Naval Advisory Board. There is no 'looseness of the contract' nor 'absence of effective stipulations,' as Mr. Whitney asserts, but all the provisions are to be found necessary to carry out the fundamental idea upon which the contract was based, namely, good work on Mr. Roach's part applied to the Department designs." This, it will be seen, is intended to exculpate Mr. Roach at the expense of the designers of the ship. The result will be much the same in either case to the American taxpayer; and no matter what view we take of the matter, it is equally discredit to the Government officials. If the specification and design of the Dolphin were unsatisfactory, so much the worse for the reputation of the designers. If, on the contrary, the ship has not been built up to the specification, then so much the worse for the reputation of those who inspected her during construction. It was well known that Mr. Roach took the contract at a very low price. "It is true," says the *Army and Navy Register*, "that our shipbuilders do not possess the vast facilities of Armstrong, Mitchell, and Co., and other foreign establishments, and it is also true that Armstrong, Mitchell, and Co. are not in the habit of bidding several hundred thousand dollars under the cost of vessels for the sake of obtaining the contract, as it is well known that Mr. Roach did in the new cruisers laid down in 1883. It was a foolhardy experiment on the part of Mr. Roach which we could never understand on any other theory than that he expected to be helped out by some sort of favoritism on the part of the Navy Department. His loss on the Dolphin is relatively greater than on any of the other vessels, and doubtless the attempt to scrimp the work on that vessel has been greater than on the others." The unwisdom of placing an important contract under such conditions would deserve severe comment, if we were not all but certain that the designers of the ships in question never had any adequate notion of what such vessels ought to cost. The fact that Mr. Roach was not to receive full value for these ships made it imperative that the inspection should have been extremely strict; but we are led to believe that the Dolphin was not built under inspection at all. How else is it possible to account for the presence of defects thus particularised by the Belknap Board:—"In the after transom three beams are supported by stanchions, rendering the deck above of doubtful strength to withstand the shock and strain of a heavy sea boarding the vessel at that point, a thing not unlikely to happen in scudding. In the same part of the hull two reverse frames are stopped short, and a space of about 4in. separates them from the reverse frame, continuing to the deck stringer above, thus weakening the frame at that important point." No inspector worth his salt would have passed such defects as these. Again:—"The planking of the berth deck is of inferior quality, rough and knotty in various parts, some places indicating sap, and caulked in so poor a manner that the entire deck would leak like a sieve in case it became flooded with water, and so damage or destroy the perishable stores and equipments stowed below it, in the hold, store-rooms, sail-room, bread-room, and the like. The Board was unable to find more than two thin threads of oakum in any of the seams, the specifications calling for not less than three threads, and it was an easy matter to pull the threads out by the yard in various parts of that deck. Some of the seams in the cabin did not seem to have been caulked at all, and none of the seams of that part of the deck—cabin and wardroom—laid with white pine, are painted as required by the specifications." It seems that an attempt was subsequently made to caulk this deck, with the result that the whole deck was strained. The hatches could not be shut without difficulty, and the underside of the deck was split and splintered to some extent. It is, of course, absurd to say that the inspector who suffered such a deck to be laid did his duty. In the engine-room, again, we find that a wooden platform was interposed between the bed-plate of the engine and a second bed-plate laid, we presume, on the kelsons. This was a charming arrangement to begin with. To make it better, we learn concerning the holding-down bolts:

"Each bolt was to be fitted with an iron filling in lieu of the wood, to make solid bolting, but the examination showed that some of the bolts lack such appliances, leaving to the wood alone the strain imposed by the working of the engine, the ultimate effect of which would tend to the loosening of the main connection and support." Again: "The supports to the shaft alley are not first-class in workmanship, the angles and brackets not being properly cut to fit down on the frame of the vessel so as to give the best support." We really cannot find fault with Mr. Roach's men if they scamped their work; the temptation to do it was more than human nature could stand. It is a remarkable fact that not one syllable is said in the report about inspection, and we are disposed to believe that there never was any. The theory seems to have been that the ship should be built first and inspected afterwards, which is a physical impossibility.

The whole transaction from beginning to end bears the stamp of the amateur. Of practical knowledge concerning the building or, even as it seems the buying of a man-of-war, there was none—of this the drawings of the cruisers and their engines, which we have published, give the clearest evidence. There was a general idea of what was wanted, but there was no intelligent perception based on experience of how it was to be got. The power stipulated for was too small to give the required speed except under very special conditions such as may no doubt exist on paper but not in reality. There is some reason to believe now that a better result would be got by altering the pitch of the screw, which appears to be too small, letting the engines run away, so to speak, faster than the boilers can supply steam. Nearly, if not quite, the same horse-power ought to be got with a slightly coarser pitch, and with a corresponding gain in speed. That is to say, more of the power is now expended wastefully than would be the case with better proportions. The addition of a few feet to the height of the chimney might make a very great difference. In a word, an experienced man could, we think, get more out of the engines and the ship than has been got out of them yet, or ever will be got while the gentlemen of the United States Navy have to deal with her. All that we wrote in the way of criticism concerning these ships has been justified in the case of the Dolphin at all events. It remains to be seen what will be the end of the other ships, namely, the *Atlanta*, *Chicago*, and *Boston*. The *New York Times* recently contained the following paragraph:—"Secretary Whitney expresses the confident belief that before long we shall have naval vessels worthy of our gallant navy, and he has caused plans for three new cruisers to be prepared. But how are we to get these new vessels? We may employ some one besides Mr. Roach to build them, but if the builder is required to follow specifications such as were given to Mr. Roach the ships will still be unsatisfactory. The truth appears to be that while we have had ample experience in building wooden ships, we have had little or none in building iron or steel ships. There is probably not one officer in the Navy who has any practical knowledge of iron shipbuilding, and Mr. Roach is about the only man who has built sea-going iron steamers on this side of the water. If we are to have good iron or steel ships we must have naval officers capable of making the drawings and specifications, or we must trust the work of designing as well as building to a competent builder; and where we are to find either the one or the other it is difficult to say." To this it is replied by other journals that there are various firms, such as W. Cramp and Sons, Harlan and Hollingsworth, and Pusey and Jones, who can do what is wanted. Far be it from us to say that they cannot, but we do say that they have had no experience whatever in building men-of-war of a modern type, and that even if they had they have not the proper workmen. Even in this country, it is well known that specially trained men are required to produce the particular quality of work put into men-of-war. They do not exist at all on the other side of the Atlantic. That Americans can build special types, such as river steamboats, better than any other nation in the world we admit; but they really do not know in any practical and with-ability-to-produce sense what a man-of-war is. Their proper course would be to pocket national pride; come to this country and order a man-of-war or two; send over to this country a few practical men who would watch the construction of this ship, and who would subsequently be able to form an opinion worth something as to whether American contractors and designers were or were not competent men. The ship herself would serve as a pattern, and would in any case be well worth a long price. Of course this advice will not be taken. The people of the United States have plenty of money. They do not feel the want of a Navy, and if they think it best to go blundering away in search of a man-of-war, we shall not complain. Only it would perhaps be as well that in future Americans should not boast too much of their powers of producing, let us say steel-shafting for one thing.

It is amusing to note that Secretary Whitney is determined not to be outdone by ex-Secretary Chandler. He has ordered designs to be prepared for a new war cruiser, and his schemes are ambitious. He has taken our own Inconstant for his model—not too happy a selection—and the new cruiser is to have a displacement of 5000 tons, and to steam 18 knots. She is to be driven by twin screws, and to indicate 7700-horse power, steam being supplied by fourteen boilers, 12ft. diameter and 10ft. 4in. long. She is to be fitted with four 8in. breech-loaders in semi-turrets, and six 6in. rifles on each broadside. She is to carry 850 tons of coal. There are also to be built a 3700-ton boat of the Mersey class and a 1600-ton Scout. The question is, Who is to build them?

## THE BEARINGS OF LARGE MARINE ENGINES.

No subject, probably, is of greater concern to a sea-going engineer outside of his boiler-room than the condition of his bearings when running. Unremitting attention is required under all circumstances, and with machinery of the best design occasional trouble seems to be experienced from heated brasses. In the vertical type of engine which

is at present almost universally adopted a very heavy duty is placed, even in ordinary fine weather working, on the bearings of the cranks and connecting rods by the weight of pistons and rods, especially in the case of tandem engines, where masses of many tons weight have the direction of motion changed several times in a minute; but when at the end of a long run any slight slackness is present, or bad weather induces racing, the conditions are much more trying. Placed as they are between large and comparatively rigid portions of the machinery, such as shafts and connecting rods, or shafts and entablature, brasses seem certainly likely to get the worst in the encounter if anything approaching hammering occurs. It is generally found on examining bearings that have heated that an alteration in figure has to be explained, and the heating is usually given as the cause; but a little consideration will show that, instead of this causing the change of shape in the brasses, the converse is more reasonable, and the change of shape causes the heating; for supposing a shaft to have such a vertical load on it as will cause failure of the brass by compression, the intensity varies from the middle, where it is greatest, to the sides, where it is *nil*—that is to say, the portion immediately under the shaft is the most compressed, and tends to bring the sides in. This is recognised by some engineers, who make it their practice to secure the sides of the brasses by substantial screws in such a manner as to prevent any closing on the shaft. Many of the well-known alloys give excellent results where the only requirement is a bronze of suitable hardness to best resist wear and reduce friction; but such mixtures are usually deficient in the other qualities necessary for purposes of machinery bearings, such as rigidity and resistance to compression. Where the harder alloys are used, they are frequently introduced in pellets, and are backed up by a brass of suitable strength and thickness; but the tendency in recent years seems to incline towards the use of substantial bronze or gun-metal bearings of simple construction, well cleared at the sides to prevent gripping, and of as ample surface as the space at the disposal of the designer will allow.

The softer alloys of the various so-called antifriction types have still their adherents, and bearings lined as directed by the makers have given excellent results; but if any failure at all occurs the quantity of metal lost is usually so large as to require a stoppage to be made and the spare bearings fitted, whereas with brasses made of the harder alloys a little slowing down of the engines, and some continuous attention, will generally avoid such necessity, and any metal that is lost by abrasion will not be more in amount than enough to perhaps cause a little knocking. If any of the abraded metal adheres to the shaft it is usually, too, less in amount than with some varieties of the antifriction metals; but it is obvious that no combination of materials will stand any but the very smallest amount of this action. With a fairly hard brass, however, a little trouble occurring at one part, say at one end, may be kept within reasonable limits with some degree of probability; but bearings lined with soft metal have sometimes been known to fail from end to end in a very short time, the soft metal simply melting out into the crank pit. The perfect material of which to construct large bearings has yet to be met, combining, as it should, good wearing and antifriction properties, and the somewhat opposite qualities of rigidity for preventing change of form and ductility for preventing fracture.

The constant use of water and oil, which are allowed to form an emulsion in the bearings, is so usual now-a-days in marine practice, that any remarks calling it into question amount almost to heresy. It has been pointed out, however, by persons qualified to speak with some amount of authority on the subject, that the bearings that can be worked without water show much the better surfaces. A shaft that has been working with oil lubrication only offers a better face for frictional purposes than one that has been running continually with salt water in contact with it. The corrosive effects of sea water on iron are generally apparent, although, from the nature of the conditions, small in amount. The fact of water being so generally used may be taken to show that necessity or convenience demands it, the latter being more probably true. If any tendency to heating is present, it is evident that, to carry off heat, water offers special facilities from its properties, and it can be applied on the surfaces directly where the frictional influences are active; whereas if conduction is relied on to carry off heat to the neighbouring and cooler portions of the structure, it will prove utterly insufficient. Water directed on the outside of a bearing will be found generally quite useless; with the higher powers and speeds now usual, any heat must be removed by water in absolute contact with rubbing surfaces. Under these circumstances, with good management, the quantity of water used is extremely small if applied uniformly. Where heavy pressure is present the lubricant should of course be of a nature to resist squeezing out; but many oils that possess this quality at ordinary temperatures become very fluid with a very slight increase, even the heat of the engine-room causing an amount of fluidity that is undesirable. Some varieties of the mineral oils lately introduced, of a heavy quality, give great satisfaction in use. Castor oil, too, in spite of its rather high price, is found economical when used in suitable quantities, which by careful attention may be very small indeed. Its consistency is such that it travels slowly through the wicks and keeps well in the bearings. A point of great importance in the design of brasses of large sizes is that of providing ample bearing surface in the bed plates; motives of economy sometimes suggest large portions being cast in such a manner as only to give support here and there by ribs or other projections. This will generally lead to trouble in course of time; for although the principal effort may be in a vertical direction, subsidiary influences are at work tending to cause a lateral or a rolling motion of the shaft in its bearings. The varying angle of the connecting rod and the centrifugal tendency of the crank arms and pin, when counter-weights are omitted, as is very usual now, both encourage side play in the brasses, which in time accumulates, and leads to great difficulty in keeping the adjustment correct, more particu-

larly where the brasses are square sided, and perhaps not as well fitted originally as round brasses.

The practice of clearing away the sides of bearings, to prevent gripping and encourage lubrication, is sometimes carried to extreme limits, the crank-pin brasses in quick running engines requiring in particular a certain amount of effective surface at their sides. The advantage of some slight amount of end play in journals has been too often pointed out to require notice.

#### LOWER THAMES VALLEY MAIN SEWERAGE.

THE unsatisfactory state of sewage disposal as a branch of engineering has seldom been so clearly shown as it has been by the history of what has been known as the Lower Thames Valley Main Sewerage Board. The district being unable to arrive at a satisfactory method of meeting the requirements of the Thames Conservancy Acts, this Board was formed for the purpose of uniting into one large block the several districts of Richmond, the Richmond Union—including Barnes, Kew, Mortlake, and Petersham; Kingston-on-Thames, Surbiton, New Malden, East Molesey, the Kingston Union—including Hampton, Esher, Hook, Long Ditton, Thames Ditton, West Molesey, and Kingston Special Drainage District, Hampton Wick, Ham Common, Heston, and Isleworth. The whole of these were united in one large district for the purpose of making a main sewer for the use of all the constituent sections. The purposes for which the United District was formed were defined by the Provisional Order of June, 1877, and Confirmation Act of September, 1877, and it was ordered that the duty of the Joint Board should be to carry out these purposes within three years from the latter date. Years went by, and other orders were obtained, proposals were considered, eminent engineers called in to devise methods of uniting the districts and carrying out the sewage disposal works; committees of inquiry formed, schemes examined, heavy expenditure incurred, and finally, after nearly eight years lapsed and nothing arrived at, Parliament has been called upon, and has passed the Lower Thames Valley Main Sewerage Act, 1885, the chief purpose of which has been to dissolve the Joint Board, but at the same time to define the terms under which any two or more of the sanitary authorities of the constituent districts may be combined to form a united district, and the purposes for which such a combination may be made. Under the new Act, the constituent authorities are to be indemnified against proceedings for discharging sewage into the Thames for two years. The Local Board of Hampton Wick and the Surbiton Improvement Commissioners are excluded from action under this Act.

During the existence of the Joint Board the schemes chiefly considered were one for treating the entire sewage of the united district by means of chemical precipitating works at Mortlake. The idea of centralising such a quantity of sewage in one spot, however, naturally raised great opposition on the part of the residents and property owners of the district; and although the scheme was supported by the Local Government Board, it was rejected by a Select Committee of the House of Commons after a protracted hearing of evidence for both sides. The Board subsequently adopted Sir Joseph Bazalgette's scheme for carrying the whole of the sewage down to Crossness; but, at the same time, several of the constituent district authorities took action to prove that the Thames Valley Board should be dissolved, so as to leave each district free to devise and execute its own scheme. The result was another long and costly official inquiry, which has ended in the passing of the Act of 1885 dissolving the Joint Board.

The subject is discussed in more detail in the article by Mr. Henry Robinson, which we publish on another page, and to this article, without endorsing all that Mr. Robinson has said, we direct attention. There are after all but few methods of dealing with town sewage. The first, most effective and least costly, is to carry it out to sea; but when the town to be drained is any considerable distance from the sea, the method becomes costly, and then filtration, and irrigation, or precipitation, or chemical treatment and filtration are necessary. None of these processes can be carried out very cheaply, but some are more effective than others, and each specially recommends itself under special circumstances. The system that would commend itself for a place on the sandy surroundings of Aldershot would not be the best for a low-lying district on the heavy land of Slough. It is quite impossible to say generally that any one system is the best, but it may safely be said that for any but drainage direct into the sea, it is only under exceptionally rare circumstances and conditions that several districts may be combined into one for sewage disposal. Combination for water or gas supply is a very different matter. Land for filtration purposes, of suitable character and position, is more easily obtainable in small lots than in one very large one. A very large sewage treating works or farm may be a nuisance, the existence of small works or farms need hardly be known. Above as well as below a certain size, the cost of the buildings, plant, materials, land, and operation, cost more per head of population, and difficulties or mishaps are less likely to be serious when each district deals with its own sewerage than when all are combined in one large concern.

The information which has been taken in evidence during recent inquiries fully confirms previously existing knowledge of the necessity for a treatment of every district according to its position, geographically as well as geologically and hyetographically considered, its size, and its character industrially. No one system is generally applicable, and the history of the Thames Valley Main Sewerage Board is a history of failure in the attempt to make one system adapt itself to the circumstances of a large number of places, differently situated in the various respects above alluded to.

#### SHIPPING AND THE ROYAL COMMISSION.

As some of the tables of the Board of Trade given in evidence before the Royal Commission were published in the shape of

Parliamentary papers, the shipowners have taken a somewhat similar step by publishing the evidence given by one of their number; and it must be acknowledged that Mr. Scrutton, the witness in question, does make some fairly good assaults on the position of the Board of Trade. It may be remembered that the late President stated, and repeated the statement, that the loss of life at sea in a given year was at the rate of "one in sixty" of those engaged in British merchant shipping. Of course this was based on the statement of a given loss of life and a given number of seafaring men. Mr. Scrutton deals with the question by attacking both the divisor and the dividend. He affirms that the number of seafaring men at the time was considerably above that on which the statement rests. But whilst on this point there may be doubt, there is none on the question as to the number of deaths, for it is clearly shown, and seems to be admitted on the part of the Board of Trade, that there were duplicate entries in the lists of the seamen, that there were the entries of fishermen and others who were said to be excluded, and that there were also other errors. It is clear, then, that if the actual number of lives lost needs amendment, the proportionate loss will also be erroneous. The shipowners have then, in degree, proved their case—which was that the statements of loss of life were erroneous and exaggerated, and that it is needful that there should be greater care taken to have the figures revised and amended before "charges" are based upon them. Clearly the victory so far rests with the shipowners, and it will be interesting to notice the attitude of the new head of the Board of Trade to the shipping interest.

#### THE MADRAS HARBOUR WORKS.

WE are glad to hear that there are signs that the restoration of the breakwaters at Madras, destroyed some two years or so back, is to be undertaken immediately. We are informed that large consignments of cement have been received there, and that a careful overhaul is being made of the concrete blocks that had not been placed *in situ* when the destructive effect of the cyclone was experienced. Each of these has been carefully examined, and where any of them have suffered from their long exposure and weathering, the defects are being carefully made good. New machinery has also been provided for the ready laying of the blocks in position; and this fact affords, perhaps, the strongest evidence of early prosecution of the work of renewal. The trains have also recommenced to run from the quarries at Pallaveram to the beach; while the crushing machines at Royapooram are hard at work preparing the stone for the manufacture of further concrete blocks required. We have above used the term "renewal" in reference to these operations, but we regret to be without information as to whether that term can be justly applied. Even "reconstruction" would perhaps be equally inapplicable, for we hold that it cannot be intended to rebuild the breakwaters on the design which formerly proved to be so inefficient. If, as we presume, that design is to be greatly added to so as to strengthen the work, detail as to how this is to be effected would be of extreme interest, for it would seem to be an operation of great difficulty to add to the thickness of a partly constructed breakwater the faces of which have already been completed.

#### SHAM SHEFFIELD CUTLERY.

OUR American friends, in the hope of "getting into" the Sheffield cutlery trade, are stated to have named one of their Lilliputian localities Sheffield, so that they could honestly say the cutlery made there was Sheffield cutlery. This expedient has not prospered, as American competition with Hallamshire-made knives and forks, and other goods with a cutting edge, has never prospered, and is now practically extinct so far as cutlery proper is concerned. Fear of American competition in cutlery manufacture has long since been infinitesimal. French and German makers are more determined and unscrupulous as to their rivalry. Sheffield manufacturers have very naturally been much incensed by a recent discovery made by the Customs authorities. A large quantity of cutlery had been brought from Germany to London to be transhipped for export. The goods were found to be stamped Sheffield, the intention no doubt being to export them as real Sheffield made products. The Customs, it was said, intended to return the goods to the makers, but to this course it is strongly objected that if the wares are sent back they will be forwarded to some other market where they will be foisted off upon inexperienced buyers. It is held at Sheffield that the only way to stop this kind of business is to stamp out the pest of spurious productions whenever found, on the principal of Carlyle, when you find a lie, kill it. Sheffield has suffered a great deal in the past from this kind of dishonesty, and ought to follow the example of several leading firms who expend large sums of money every year in prosecuting trade pirates who show no end of ingenuity in endeavouring to copy trade marks with which to sell unreliable rubbish.

#### LITERATURE.

*Gas Engines.* By W. MACGREGOR. London: Symons and Co. 1885. 231 pp.

THIS is the first book on the gas engine published in this country. Several have been published in Germany, where the gas engine itself seems to have a more general application to industrial purposes than here. Hitherto all we could boast were a few articles scattered here and there in the technical journals, giving the results of some gas engine trials and experiments, and a few papers read before scientific societies. The author has gathered together in his pages much of that which is worthy of gathering from these sources, and this, with casual references to the patent specifications, may be said to compose the book. This want of information, so far as the engineering public is concerned, is due entirely to the small number of firms engaged in the business, where each deems it advisable to hide his information, gained generally at great expense. On this account chiefly, this book cannot be said, as the author acknowledges, to be exhaustive.

The first chapter treats the subject historically, showing the steps taken to evolve the engine of the present day. Lenoir in 1860 was the first to make a gas engine which could be used for practical purposes. It was manufactured in this country by the Reading Ironworks Company. The engine was double-acting, and the combustible mixture was ignited by the electric spark; the defective ignition and its great consumption of gas contributed greatly to the non-permanency of its success.

M. Tresca tested two engines of Lenoir's. With an engine having a cylinder of 7.1 in. and 4 in. stroke, the power measured on the brake was 57-horse power, and the gas consumed 112 cubic feet per brake horse-power per hour. M. Tresca also estimates the distribution of the heat

generated as follows:—Heat carried off by water jacket and exhaust gases, 69 per cent.; heat converted into work at the brake, 4 per cent.; losses (radiation, &c.), 27 per cent.; total, 100 per cent. Defective ignition is caused by the conductor points in the cylinder getting wet, and thus preventing discharge of the spark at the proper time. The author speaks of Lenoir using air and gas in the proportion of 20 to 1. What proportion would the air have to the gas when mixed in the cylinder with a residuum equal to a third of the charge? Such a proportion of gas to air at atmospheric pressure is not ignitable, and the real proportion which Lenoir used was from about 10 to 14 to 1. M. Tresca says 10 to 1.

Hugon, though introducing his engine after Lenoir, seems to have devoted his attention for a long time previous to this to the improvement of the gas engine. His engine is arranged very much like Lenoir's, but remedied that engine's deficiencies by providing a flame ignition. In the slide which admitted the gaseous mixture to the cylinder was provided a pocket, which at the proper time communicated with the gas supply and a flame. The flame ignited the gas in the pocket, and just before the slide opened the pocket to the cylinder it was closed to the atmosphere, thus preventing escape of pressure. Hugon also injected water into the cylinder, to cool and lubricate it, the water being evaporated by the heat of the combustion as steam, and was intended to assist in the expansion of the gases.

Simon and Beechey, of Nottingham, later on also attempted, in a slightly different manner, the same thing. Round the top of the working cylinder a chamber was placed, partly filled with water, and on the heat of the explosion being communicated to the water, steam was generated and was allowed to enter through a slide valve to the working cylinder. But attempts like these to utilise steam in this manner are fallacious. With steam in the midst of a gaseous body at a temperature of 1500 deg. C. it would directly lower the temperature of combustion, and thereby diminish the expansion of the gases—the opposite effect from what was intended. Besides, the difference of the specific heats of steam and the combustible gases is so great, that to provide the same expansion twice the heat would be necessary. Hugon, however, managed to decrease the gas consumption as compared with Lenoir, and produced a more regularly working machine. It was manufactured in this country by Thos. Robinson and Son, Rochdale.

M. Tresca tested an engine of Hugon's with a cylinder of 13in. diameter and 12.7in. stroke. The explosive mixture was 1 of gas to 13.9 of air. The power measured on the brake was 2.07-horse power, and the gas consumption 90.93 cubic feet per brake horse-power per hour. While Hugon remedied the defects of Lenoir, he introduced others of his own creation, to wit, the flexible bellows in which was drawn the combustible mixture, which afterwards was pushed into the working cylinder. These bellows often burst, and there always was a great danger of leakage.

Barsanti and Matteucci, in 1857, were the first to introduce the atmospheric engine, which became ten years later, in a nearly similar arrangement, known as the Otto and Langen engine, called sometimes from its noise, "The Shooter Engine." The author says of the engine which was exhibited at the Paris Exhibition, 1867, "Opinion, however, of the new motor would have been unfavourable if the economy of consumption of gas, in comparison with others, had not been apparent. According to the publications of that time, the judges were forced to praise the engine for its economy, yet to blame it for its construction."

The Otto and Langen engine was introduced and manufactured in this country by Crossley Brothers, Manchester, and the results of a trial given by Mr. F. W. Crossley show conclusively the superiority of this engine over the Lenoir and Hugon in the consumption of gas. The engine had a cylinder of 6in. diameter and 40in. stroke. The explosive mixture was used in the proportion of one of gas to six and a-half of air. The brake horse-power was 2.12, with a gas consumption of 30 cubic feet per brake horse-power per hour. M. Tresca—often already quoted—gives the results of his tests as 48.63 cubic feet per brake horse-power per hour. Another person—Mr. W. A. Bradford, in the *English Mechanic*—gives the results of tests on an engine used by him as 22 cubic feet per brake horse-power. With such diverging results as these, it is impossible to arrive at any estimate of the real consumption of gas; but it is enough for the author's purpose to show that the consumption was less than that used in the Lenoir and Hugon engines.

No real advance was made with the gas engine until 1876, when Mr. Otto introduced his compression engine, which is so familiar in this country. In this engine, unlike all the preceding engines which we have mentioned, an ignition of the combustible mixture occurs every two revolutions of the crank. The cycle of operations used by Mr. Otto was not new, as it had been propounded by M. Alph. Beau de Rochas in the year 1862 in a treatise entitled "Nouvelles Recherches sur les Conditions Pratiques de plus Grande Utilisation de la Chaleur et en General de la Force Motrice." It is curious reading this work, as it describes word for word the operations which take place in Otto's engine. M. Beau de Rochas says:—"The question being thus propounded, the sole arrangement really practicable consists evidently in forthwith employing but one cylinder, so that it is the largest possible, and further in reducing the resisting movements of the gases to their absolute minimum. Then, and for the same side of the cylinder, we are naturally led to execute the following operations in a period of four consecutive strokes: (1) Suction during an entire stroke of the piston; (2) compression during the following stroke; (3) ignition at the dead point and expansion during the third stroke; (4) forcing out of the burnt gases from the cylinder on the fourth and last return stroke." This is exactly what Otto does, and he produces thereby a thoroughly practicable working machine, the only difference being, perhaps, that M. Rochas does not describe the elaborate system of stratification which Mr. Otto has attempted, and by which he says he gains gradual combustion. Mr. Otto says that

all engines constructed before the date of his patent worked with sudden explosion, this being the difference between his and theirs. Here the author quotes from an article by Hirn in the *Polytechnisches Centralblatt*, 1861, "On the Theory of the Lenoir Gas Engine," which shows clearly that as early as the year 1861 the existence of the products of combustion in the cylinder of the gas engine was known, and that the non-recoiling action of the engine, because of this neutral gas, was also explained. To prove directly whether the explosion in Lenoir's engine was sudden or gradual, the author quotes Mr. Dugald Clerk, who in his paper "On the Theory of the Gas Engine," gives diagrams from a Lenoir engine, in which the time of explosion is found to be from one twenty-seventh to one-thirtieth of a second. Professor W. G. Adams, referring in his presidential address before the Society of Telegraph Engineers to the experimental tests made on gas engines at the Crystal Palace, says that the committee conducting the tests came to this conclusion, among others:—"With perfect ignition the rate of increase of pressure is very nearly uniform up to the maximum, which is reached in about the one-thirtieth of a second." The tests were made with several different sizes of Otto and Clerk engines, thus apparently proving that the combustion at the present time is not more gradual than it was at Lenoir's.

Mr. Otto ascribes the success of his engine to this so-called gradual combustion, and does not admit, as some experts assert, that compression, and compression only, has been the thing which has raised the gas engine from a scientific toy to a real competitor with the steam engine. Mr. Clerk has calculated the duty of an engine working with compression as Otto or Clerk's and one working without compression as Lenoir's; the duty of the compression engine being 0.45, the duty of the non-compression engine being 0.21, and Mr. Clerk says that "the great advantage of compression over no compression is clearly seen. By the simple operation of compression before heating, the former type of engine gives for the same expenditure of heat 2.1 times as much work as the first. What compression does," he says, "is to enable a great fall of temperature to be obtained due to work done with but a small movement of the piston." This, we think, sums up the matter, and shows that without compression we should have had very little advance on the old type of gas engine, even with "gradual combustion."

In Professor Thurston's experiments on an Otto engine of 10-horse power, the explosive mixture used varied from 1 volume of gas to 6.2 and 7.7 volumes of air, and the consumption of gas per brake horse-power per hour varied from 29 to 33.4 cubic feet. Many attempts have been made by different inventors to produce an engine more regular in working and smaller in bulk for the same power than the Otto, the most notable among these being Mr. Dugald Clerk's type of motor. This motor has an ignition every revolution of the crank, and to gain this advantage Mr. Clerk uses a second cylinder placed alongside the working cylinder, which he calls the displacer. The crank of the displacer piston precedes that of the working piston by a quarter of a revolution, and into the displacer is drawn for two-thirds of its stroke air and gas, and for the remaining third of the stroke pure air only. This pure air entering the displacer last is the first to be pushed out of it, and by the time that the displacer piston is returning, the piston of the working cylinder is uncovering the exhaust ports and allowing the pressure in the working cylinder to fall; this allows the pure air, being pushed out of the displacer, to enter the working cylinder and sweep out the products of combustion remaining in it. After the pure air comes the explosive mixture. It is claimed for this system that the air prevents premature ignition of the explosive mixture by sparks or lingering flame in the cylinder. The difficulty, it seems to us, is to keep the air pure from the mixture—a thing which, we think, cannot be accomplished satisfactorily. We have reason to believe that, perhaps from this cause, Mr. Clerk does not prevent premature ignition, and if not abandoned by him for something better, it is not insisted upon by him as the one thing necessary for success in his engine. However, Mr. Clerk has produced an engine small for its power, regular in working, and economical.

To overcome this difficulty of premature ignition in engines having an ignition every revolution of the crank, it has been proposed by some to govern the engine in a different manner—viz., instead of missing several ignitions when the engine overruns, to have always an ignition, but to reduce the quantity of combustible mixture ignited at each revolution when necessary. Such is the manner in which Messrs. Andrew and Atkinson govern their respective engines, and they seem to gain their object with more or less success, although we notice that both makers in later types of engines produced return to the older method of governing by cutting off the supply of gas. The reason for this is obvious. If the governing is effected by varying the quantity of gas instead of cutting it quite off, a mixture is frequently obtained that misses fire, but which may be sufficiently rich to ignite afterwards. The loss of gas by governing in this way is, moreover, very considerable when the engine is running on very variable work. This is one of the reasons for the economy of the Crossley engine on variable work.

The rest of this book, from which we have quoted considerably, is taken up with discussing the theory of the gas engine, but here the author's work is not at all satisfactory, especially from the thermodynamic point of view. The subject has been better treated in one, or we may say two German brochures, and the author is largely indebted to Mr. Clerk for one of the most satisfactory parts of his book. He hardly does justice to those from whom he has gained his information and illustrations, especially for the latter, to Herr Schottler's "Die Gasmachine." Those who know little or nothing of the gas engine, and the principles on which it is founded, this volume will assist; but those who have devoted their attention to this subject, and who might be inclined to think that at last some of their difficulties would be cleared up, will

despair at the result presented to them. However, this is not the author's fault, who has apparently, as far as practical details are concerned, done the best he could with the material at his hand.

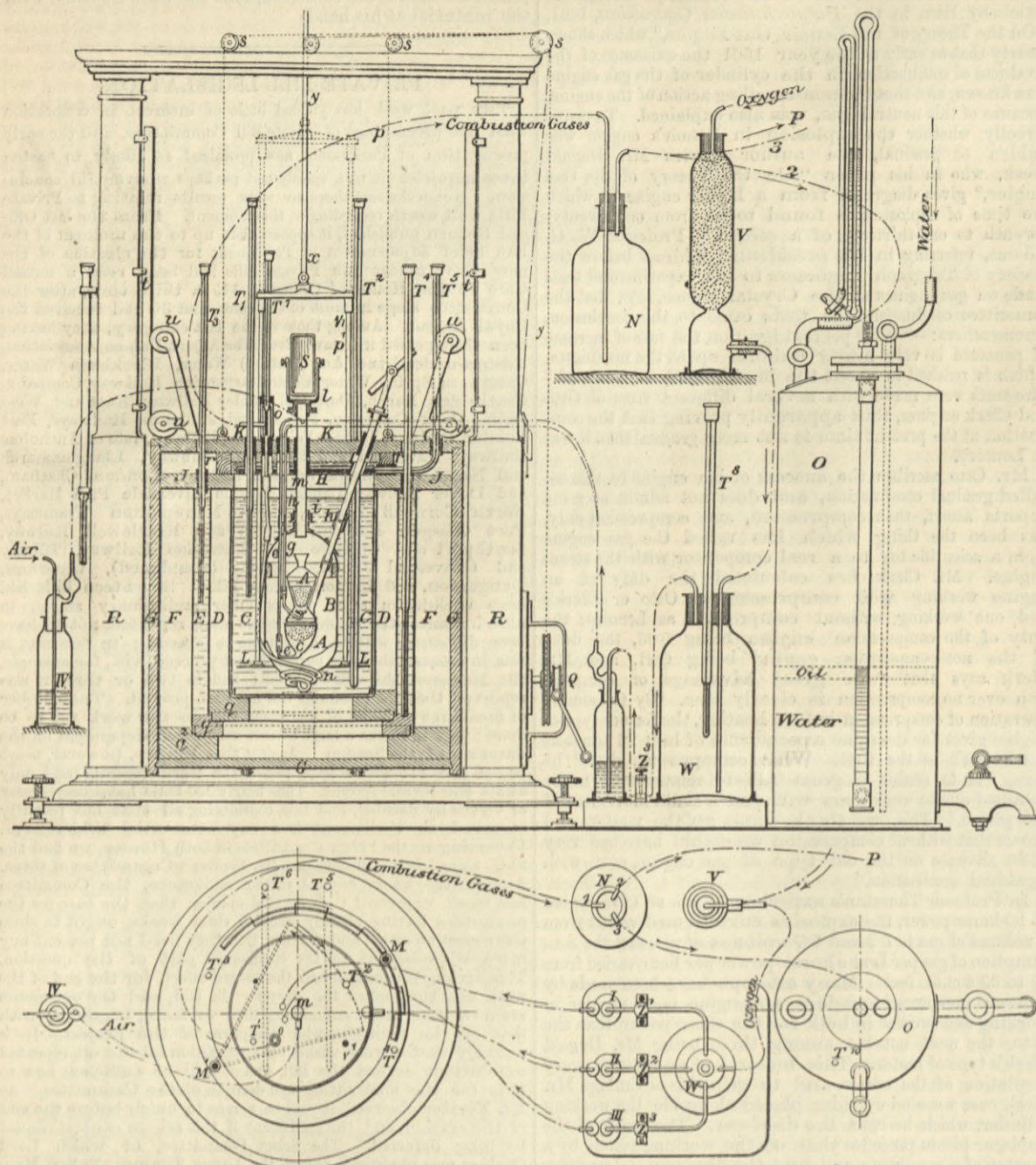
PRIVATE BILL LEGISLATION.

THE past week has yielded little of interest in connection with the proceedings of Private Bill Committees, and the early prorogation of Parliament now promised is likely to hasten these inquiries on to a speedy and perhaps uneventful conclusion. Nevertheless, there are some results relating to Private Bills well worth recording at this moment. From the last Official Return published, it appears that up to the moment of the last brief adjournment of Parliament for the election of the new Government 159 Private Bills had been read a second time in the House of Commons, 115 a third time, after the Committee stage in most of the cases, and 39 had received the Royal Assent. Among those in the last category, they having been thus passed into law, were: The Albert Palace Association, Ashton-under-Lyne, &c. (District) Water, Blackburn Water, Caterham Spring Water, Central Argentine Railway Company, Coatbridge Burgh, Dore and Chinley Railway, East and West India Dock Company, Eastern and Midlands Railways, East London Railway, Eltham Valley Light Railway, Isle of Ancholme Railway, Liverpool and Birkenhead Subway, Llangammarch and Neath and Brecon Junction Railway, London, Chatham, and Dover Railway (Capital), London Riverside Fish Market, North Cornwall Railway, North Metropolitan Tramways, Port Glasgow Harbour, Skipton and Kettlewell Railway, Southport and Cheshire Lines Extension Railway, Tilbury and Gravesend Junction Railway (abandoned), Waterford, Dungarvon, and Lismore Railway Bills. Seventeen Bills had been withdrawn after one or other preliminary stage; in nine instances the Standing Orders were reported not to have been dispensed with to enable them to proceed; in one case it was intimated that the parties do not proceed, viz., for example, the Merionethshire Railway Bill; and in two or three it was reported that the preamble had not been proved. The number of measures disposed of materially reduces the work yet to be done; but it leaves a large balance very much dependent on the duration of the Session. Against that balance, however, must be set the 115 which have passed the third reading and only await the formal Assent. Thus nearly 350 Bills have been really or virtually decided, and this, considering all that has recently occurred in Parliament, is a very substantial achievement. Reverting to the Select Committees in both Houses, we find the Ship Canal Bill still engaging Mr. Forster's Committee of three. Apparently weary beyond further endurance, the Committee last week expressed their decided opinion that the case for the promoters having already occupied three weeks, ought to close their case at once; and, further, that they need not present any more witnesses as to the commercial part of the question. This strong intimation had the desired effect, for the end of the week saw the end of the story for the Bill, and the opponents are now once more submitting their evidence, beginning with that of the engineers who disapprove of the project. It is unlikely that anyone wishes for a repetition of the oft-repeated contentions against the Bill, and it will be sufficient now to wait for the final sitting and decision of the Committee. As Mr. Forster observed, it will be a race to finish before the end of the session, and the settlement of this severe contest cannot be long deferred. The Select Committee, of which Lord Onslow was chairman, passed the Lower Thames Valley Main Sewerage Bill, which dissolves the Joint Board—as we explained some time ago—and forms seventeen new united districts from the various local authorities in the Thames Valley, to deal with the sewage. The Bill was opposed in Committee from several quarters, especially from Hampton Wick, but this last opposition was withdrawn upon an undertaking being given that sewage works should not be placed on the eyots opposite Hampton Wick. This measure, it appears, has been amended in several important particulars since it left the House of Commons. In the form in which it will now be returned to the Commons it carries out the recommendations of the Local Government Board to levy all the expenses of any new Joint Boards which may be created within twelve months from the passing of this Act, upon an assessment in the new united districts based upon and in proportion to the rateable value of each district as reduced for a general district rate in the case of urban districts, and in the case of rural districts as reduced for special rating purposes, instead of upon the poor-rate assessment, as was proposed by the Bill. The Bill has also been so amended that no two or more sanitary authorities can agree to constitute themselves into new united districts unless such agreement is sanctioned by not less than three-fourths of the members of each sanitary authority. By an agreement, which led yesterday to the withdrawal of the opposition to this Bill, the Corporation of Kingston undertake in any future scheme not to deal with any sewage on the islands in the river Thames, except for the purpose of a pumping station, which, if erected, is to be made of a reasonably ornamental character, approved by the local authorities. They further agree not to deal with their sewage above ground.

In the House of Lords since the resumption on Monday last, two important discussions have taken place upon two first-class measures. In the first case, Lord Bramwell proposed that the Standing Orders should be dispensed with in respect of petitions lodged by the Metropolitan Board of Works to be heard by counsel against the Waterworks Clauses Act (1847) Amendment Bill. Lord Bramwell pointed out that this Bill involved dealing with property worth thirty millions sterling, and observing that in his view this proposal was quite unjustifiable, insisted that the Board of Works ought to be heard. Several peers entered into the subject, most of them opposing the motion, and eventually the motion was rejected. On the understanding that the Bill would be referred to a Public Committee, appointed by the Lords, the Bill was read a second time. In the other case Lord Ravensworth sought to suspend a Standing Order in respect to the Regent's Canal City and Docks Railway Bill, which prohibits the payment of interest out of capital during the construction of works. As this proposal related only to financial matters, and raised no question of interest as to the works, the motion was negatived and the Bill was read a second time.

SOUTH KENSINGTON MUSEUM.—Visitors during the week ending July 4th, 1885:—On Monday, Tuesday, and Saturday, free, from 10 a.m. to 10 p.m., Museum, 8519; mercantile marine, Indian section, and other collections, 2230. On Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday, admission 6d., from 10 a.m. to 6 p.m., Museum, 1730; mercantile marine, Indian section, and other collections, 211. Total, 12,690. Average of corresponding week in former years, 17,982. Total from the opening of the Museum, 24,127,836.

SCHWACKHOFER'S CALORIMETER.



HERR FR. SCHWACKHOFER has recently published—*Zeits. Anal. Chem.* 23, 453—an account of a calorimeter he has constructed for determining the calorific power of coal or other fuel. The calorimeters usually employed are only adapted for small quantities of substance—a fraction of a gram.—and produce smoke, indicating thereby incomplete combustion. The author claims that in his apparatus these disadvantages are entirely avoided. The construction is given in the accompanying diagram, which we reproduce from the *Journal of the Society of Chemical Industry*. A and A<sub>1</sub> are platinum combustion vessels, B a copper jacket, C the inner water vessel—the actual calorimeter—of nickled copper, D the inner non-conducting layer of eider-down, E a double-walled water vessel, F the exterior non-conducting layer of fine down, G a cylindrical wooden case, H the upper water vessel, J an annular cork board, K the lid, L the inner agitator, S and S<sub>1</sub> mirrors for observing the process of combustion T<sub>1</sub> to T<sub>10</sub> thermometers. The most important part of the apparatus is the combustion vessel. It is of platinum, and divided into two parts; the lower A is for the sample of coal, the upper A<sub>1</sub> for sugar charcoal. The chambers have openings at a and b, for introducing the fuel, and also for removing the sieves c and d after each experiment. The sieves are of platinum foil, perforated specially for the apparatus. The perforations of the lower sieve c are so small that they are only visible by transmitted light. In the upper sieve the holes are somewhat larger. Each is provided with an upright rim, which fits tightly to the side, and keeps it in its place. These tubes are connected with the chamber A. e conducts oxygen from beneath the coal. The tube f has a double use—(1) to bring oxygen above the coal in order to ensure complete combustion of the evolved gases; (2) to observe the process of combustion by reflection from the mirror S<sub>1</sub>. This is necessary, as the stream of oxygen requires to be carefully regulated, and the end of the combustion ascertained. The side tube g terminates under the sieve d. It is provided with a cross piece, and perforated on the upper side. It conducts oxygen to the upper chamber. All these tubes—e, f, g—are connected with well-fitting tubes, let into the lid of the case. After determining the actual thermal value of given volumes of water in the different vessels composing the calorimeter, it is next necessary to prepare and analyse quantitatively and calorimetrically the sugar charcoal to be used in the experiments. The calorimeter is then manipulated as follows:—The vessel C is filled with 5200 cc. of water at the temperature of the air, and 5-6 grm. of the finely powdered sample of coal, and 2-4 grm. of the charcoal weighed out. The quantities should be so chosen that the rise of temperature in C may be about 10 deg. C. The combustion lasts about an hour. The coal is introduced into A, the charcoal into A<sub>1</sub>, the two pieces then put together, and the jacket B screwed down, the lid is lowered, the thermometers inserted, and the mirrors mounted. When the apparatus indicates a constant temperature, the combustion is commenced. Oxygen is led through f, the cap S raised, a small glowing chip thrown in and the cap refitted. The charcoal in A<sub>1</sub> is kindled, and the aspirator O is put in action. The bottle N is then closed, and after some minutes the smaller aspirator is set going. The flow of water from O and P is regulated so that about five-sixths of the gases collect in O and one-sixth in P. When the charcoal is almost burnt, sparks fall through the sieve and kindle the coal beneath. A quicker stream of oxygen is then passed through f and introduced through g;

towards the end of the experiment the oxygen through g is stopped and e is opened. The combustion proceeds regularly, and not a trace of smoke appears in N. The combustion of both charcoal and coal should be complete. When the combustion is finished the aspirators are disconnected, the water is agitated by the mixer until the thermometers T<sub>1</sub> and T<sub>2</sub> stand at the same temperature, and the other thermometers are then read off. The volume of gas collected in the aspirators is noted, and the gas in P analysed. From these data the author has made a number of calorimetric determinations, which agree well together, and are somewhat higher than the value calculated by Dulong's formula from the percentage composition.

CHEAP-HORSE CORN PLANTER.

We are indebted to an American correspondent for the following example of United States Patent-office practice. Although our correspondent has drawn on his imagination, the invention is quite as likely to prove useful as a great many which obtain official sanction. The yellow dog plays such an important part in a certain class of United States literature just now that our friend has shown a wise discrimination in not attempting to claim him as a novel device. His introduction, however, no doubt lends finish to the statement of claim. Tails have formed the subject of so many patents in the States that we were disposed to look with some doubt on the novelty of Claim b. We have reason to believe, however, that the claim is valid; its validity being due to the vertical arrangement.



CHEAP-HORSE CORN PLANTER.

I am aware that a quadruped has heretofore been used in combination with an agricultural implement, and consequently I do not claim such a combination broadly; but what I claim, and desire to secure by Letters Patent is—

1. The planters B B, in combination with the beast A, constructed and operated as described.
2. The bands i i, and pulley c c, in combination with the hind legs of a cheap-horse A, to operate the planters and prevent kicking, substantially as set forth.
3. I claim the cheap-horse A, clipped, as shown, in combination with the corpulent driver D, to prevent his travelling too fast, as described.
4. I claim the guide o, in combination with the "tail of a

cheap-horse," when said tail is put in a vertical position, as shown and described.

5. In a cheap-horse corn-planter I claim the tail b, when arranged vertically, to frighten the crows a a, as set forth.

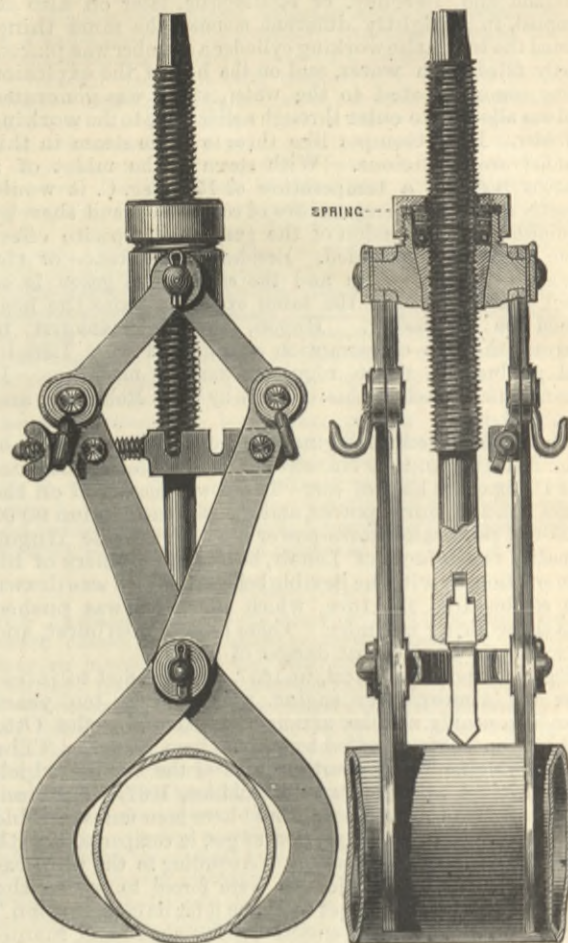
6. I claim the worms (not shown) in combination with the "early birds" a a, for the purpose set forth.

The yellow dog, with few friends, being an old device and somewhat at a discount in these days, we do not set anything on him, but merely throw him in to accompany the driver D, to give a general effect to the patent after it is granted.

Patent applied for through the Agency of A. H. EVANS and Co.,  
Solicitors of  
U.S. and Foreign Patents,  
Phoenix Building,  
Washington, D. C.

PATTERSON'S PATENT PORTABLE DRILLING AND TAPPING APPARATUS.

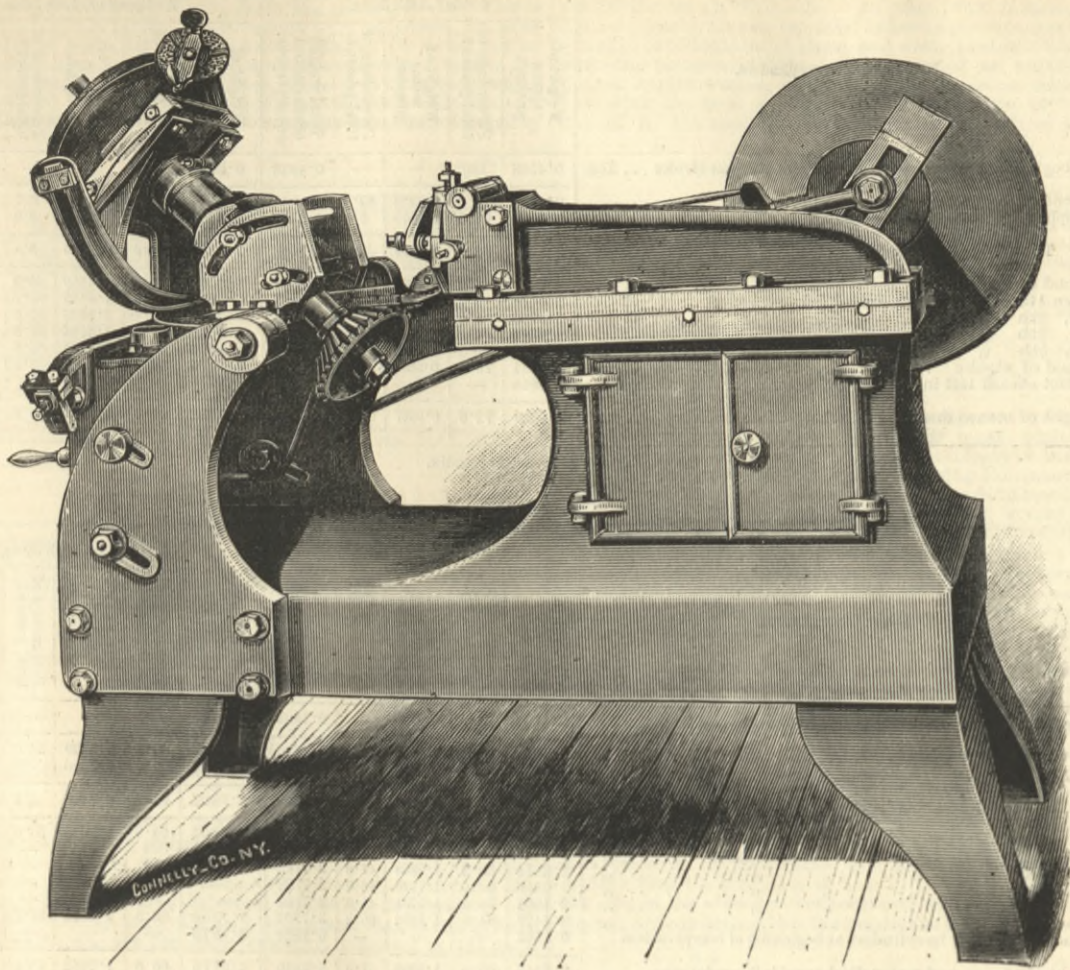
We illustrate below a neat form of portable drill, the invention of Mr. Patterson, an engineer in the employment of the Southwark and Vauxhall Water Company, which was exhibited by that company last year at the International Health Exhibition. The apparatus has been specially designed for drilling and tapping water and gas pipes, but is also applicable for girders and rails, or, indeed, any kind of work which affords a suitable means of attachment. By referring to the section, it will be seen that the drill spindle, which is screwed, passes through a conical bush pressed down into its seat by a



spring acting on steel anti-friction balls, the pressure on the spring being capable of variation at will by means of a nut. The object of this arrangement is to give an automatic feed. So long as the drill is away from its work the conical bush is held firmly in its seat, and rotation of the spindle merely produces a travel due to the pitch of the thread upon it. As soon, however, as the drill comes up to its work, the spring is compressed, and the conical bush being raised slightly from its seat, is free to turn with the spindle, until by the cutting and descent of the drill it is again held fast, when the action is repeated. The feed may be varied by altering the initial pressure on the spring. In the engraving the spindle is shown squared at the top for receiving an ordinary wrench handle, but it is also made with a ratchet. The mode of attachment of the apparatus will be apparent from an inspection of the engravings, which illustrates the method adopted for pipes up to 6in. diameter. For larger sizes, and for general work, it is convenient to employ chains, which pass round the object to be drilled, and are made fast to the hooks at the upper end of the jaws. We understand that this drill is largely used by the Southwark and Vauxhall Company, and is found to be a very convenient and handy tool. It is extremely light, weighing only 14lb., and is therefore readily transported from place to place.

SILVER SMELTING IN NEW SOUTH WALES.—The work of utilizing the many rich silver mines in New South Wales has been seriously impeded by the absence of facilities for treating the ore, which is generally of a most refractory description, and consequently has to be sent to America or Germany to be smelted. Recently some smelting works were erected at Sunny Corner, and the success of these has led to the erection of another at Clyde, some few miles distant from Sydney, the first ore smelted being from the Silver King mine at Sunny Corner, taken from a large body of stone, the width of which has never been tested, but which has been sunk on to a depth of about 50ft., all in ore that has assayed from 40 oz. to 190 oz. of silver per ton. The furnace was constructed under the personal supervision of Mr. J. B. Gafford, who has patented this particular class of furnace in all the Australian Colonies. Before coming to New South Wales, Mr. Gafford was connected with silver milling and smelting in America from the year 1868 till his departure, having been engaged in assisting to get into operation the United States Mint at Denolaga, Georgia, in constructing the Swansea and Denver Valley smelting and reducing works, and in constructing furnaces and milling plant in California, Arizona, Detroit, and other places, at least so says an official publication.

BREHMER'S BEVEL GEAR CUTTING MACHINE.

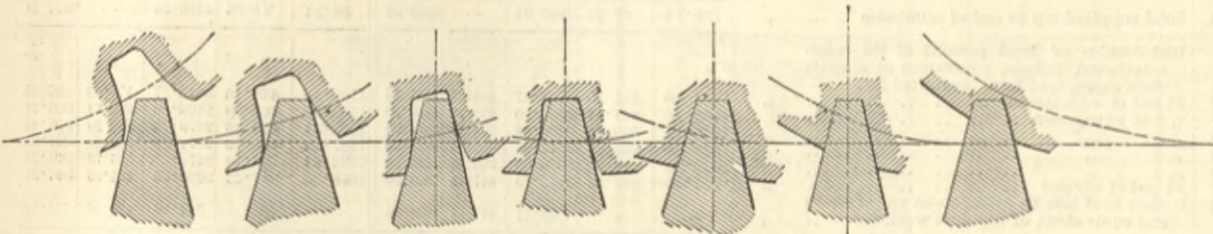


We illustrate a new machine for this purpose made by Messrs. Brehmer Bros., Philadelphia. Making accurate bevel gear wheels, which will work smoothly without rattling or waste of power, has until within a comparatively recent period been one of the most difficult jobs coming into a machine shop, and has been a kind of work in which many have failed. In correctly formed teeth of a bevel gear the curvature of the sections is not uniform, so that formed tools cannot give correct results, but the novel machine shown in the accompanying illustration is intended to obviate all defects arising from this cause. The principle of this machine is based on the fact that any two gear wheels which gear correctly with one rack belonging to an interchangeable set of gears will gear correctly with one another. By a mutual rolling against each other of a gear blank and such a rack, the teeth of the wheel must obviously be formed with perfect accuracy. It is convenient to consider all the motions as

tool, the oscillating movement of the connecting rod being employed for this purpose by having a bar hinged at one end to a clamp which can be shifted on the connecting rod while the other end impinges on the apron. It is easy to so adjust the clamp that this lifting action will occupy the time of the return stroke.

50-HORSE POWER VERTICAL COMPOUND MILL ENGINE.

THE type of engine illustrated on page 30 is one that possesses many advantages, though it is not often used in mills or for stationary purposes. The engine occupies very little floor space, the cylinders and pistons wear equally in all directions, the strains are direct, the rotating parts are low down and can be accurately balanced. This engine has been erected in the flour



taking place in one plane, as would be represented by the diagram in Fig. 2, where it is shown how the tooth of an involute rack would cut its way through a rolling blank, thus forming one of the spaces between two teeth. In this case the cutting tool represents one tooth of a rack pertaining to an interchangeable set of gears, and it obtains a reciprocating motion in the manner of a shaper tool, the blank receiving a movement as though it were rolling on its pitch surface.

The machine embraces two principal parts: the shaper which holds and operates the tool, and the spindle which turns the blanks. As the blank should imitate the movement of a rolling cone, the bearing of its spindle is held in an inclined position between two uprights attached to a semicircular horizontal plate, which can be oscillated on a vertical axis passing through the apex of the blank. The spindle also receives the proper rotation by a portion of a cone attached to it, corresponding with the pitch cone of the blank, and held by steel bands which prevent the cone from making any but a rolling motion when the spindle receives a conical swinging motion.

The feed mechanism of the machine effects a slow, intermittent movement of the semicircular plate, rolling the blank while the reciprocating tool forces its way through the metal. The spindle carrying the blank can be rotated independent of the rolling cone by means of a worm wheel and worm and index plate, which enable the blank to be presented to the cutting device at properly spaced divisions, corresponding with the number of teeth desired in the wheel. There is a gauge by which the tool can be adjusted so that the lowest point of its cutting side shall move exactly toward the apex of the blank, and a distance block is used between this gauge and the tool so that variations of distances can be detected with the touch instead of by sight. The diagram, Fig. 2, shows how the tool takes out the stock when a wheel is to be cut out of the solid, the tool being first adjusted at a slight distance from its correct position, and all spaces being afterward treated in the same manner by using the index device. The tool is then carefully adjusted to its correct position, first for one and afterwards for the other side to finish both sides of the teeth. The inclination of the spindle holding the blank is made adjustable, to adapt it to the angle of gear desired, and the rolling cone is detachable, to be replaced by such cones as correspond with the angle of the blank to be cut, but by a special device the machine is so adjustable that a limited number of cones may be made to suffice for a large variety of work.

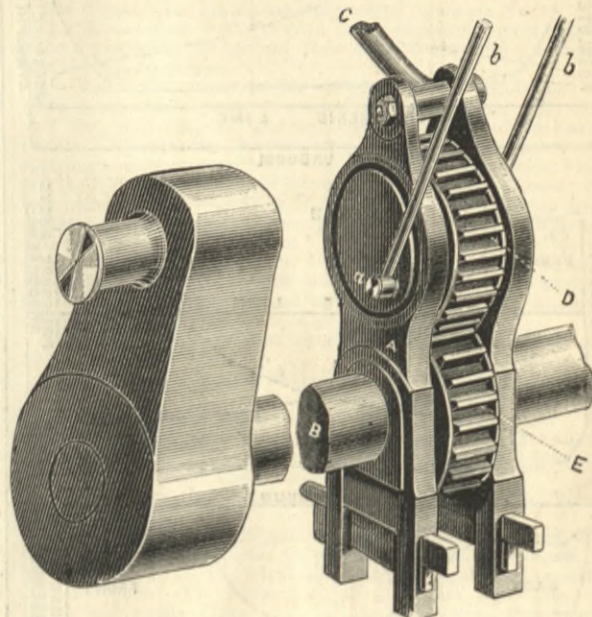
The cutting tool is a triangular bar of steel, so formed as to make an angle of fifteen degrees on each side, and held by a special holder, the up-and-down and sideway adjustment being effected by slides working at right angles and operated by screws, the clamp which fastens the tool holder also clamping the slides to the apron, and giving great stability. A device for lifting the apron during the return stroke prevents the dragging of the

mill of Mr. John Taylor, of Melksham, taking the place of a smaller one which was not powerful enough for the demands made upon it. The cylinders are 16 $\frac{1}{2}$ in. and 28in. diameter by 2ft. 6in. length of stroke, the high-pressure cylinder being steam jacketed. The pressure in the boilers is 75 lb., and a steady vacuum is maintained of 13 $\frac{1}{2}$  lb. at a speed of eighty-two revolutions per minute. The power is taken off the crank shaft, which is of hammered steel, through a pair of spur wheels and two belts, thus being communicated to the mill at three points. The engine works in conjunction with two turbines when water is plentiful, but as the water is very fluctuating, the steam power is sufficient for the whole mill, and Mr. Taylor is thus independent of the water. To meet these fluctuations an expansion valve is applied to the high-pressure cylinder, variable by hand, and worked by a rod from the air pump levers. The engine is simple and strong, and works very steadily and economically. It is fed with steam from two Cornish boilers which are set on Livet's patent system of flues, and the result in saving of coal and facility of access for cleaning and examination has been proved to be most satisfactory.

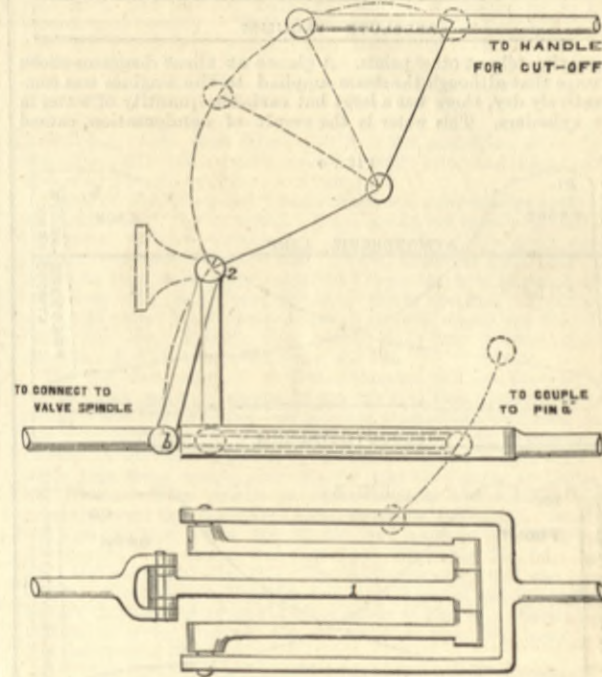
THE ANTWERP EXHIBITION.—The Belgian Government having requested Earl Granville to make appointments of British jurors, his lordship has communicated the accompanying list to Baron Solvyns, the Belgian Minister at this Court:—Chairman, Mr. C. M. Kennedy, C.B., head of the Commercial Department of the Foreign Office, chairman of the Jury for Paper, Printing, &c., at the Inventions Exhibition. Group I.—Education and Instruction—Apparatus and Processes of the Liberal Arts—Mr. Edmund Gosse, Lecturer on English Literature, Trinity College, Cambridge; Mr. Henry Spicer, juror at the Inventions Exhibition. II.—Furniture and Accessories—Mr. J. S. Templeton, member of the Glasgow Chamber of Commerce; Mr. T. C. Moore, member of the North Staffordshire Chamber of Commerce. III.—Textile Fabrics—Clothing and Accessories—Sir Joseph Lee, member of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce; Mr. Harold Lee, assistant juror. IV.—Mining Industries—Raw and Manufactured Products—Mr. H. Bauerman, F.C.S., juror at the Inventions Exhibition; Mr. H. Grimshaw, F.C.S., formerly Demonstrator of Chemistry at Owens College, Manchester; Mr. W. J. Bush, F.C.S. V.—Machinery—Apparatus and Processes used in the Mechanical Manufactures, and Tests of the same—Captain Galton, C.B., F.R.S.; Mr. William Anderson, C.E. VI.—Alimentary Products—Mr. Walter Low, juror at the Health Exhibition, 1884. VII.—Navigation and Life Saving—Mr. Hamilton Dunlop, member of the Southampton Chamber of Commerce. IX.—Commerce of Importation and Exportation—Exports for the use of the natives in countries out of Europe. Commercial Museums—Mr. Bateman, principal of the Commercial Department, Board of Trade, honorary secretary of the Statistical Society. Section IV.—Electricity—Captain Abney, R.E., F.R.S.; Mr. W. H. Preece, F.R.S., assistant engineer and electrician to the Post-office.

BEVERIDGE'S VALVE GEAR.

THIS valve gearing, which we illustrate below, is patented by Mr. James Beveridge, of Soho Foundry, Barrow-in-Furness, and was designed with a view of simplifying the existing methods of working the slide valves of steam engines. The advantages claimed by the inventor are (1) rigidity, and absence of vibration at the most essential parts; (2) non-liability of the valves to work untrue, resulting through this arrangement only requiring two joints to work the valve in place of seven where



eccentrics and link motion are used; (3) to be more economical and durable than any other system, both as regards first cost and afterwards; (4) to be certain of immediate and true action on account of the absence of complicated parts.



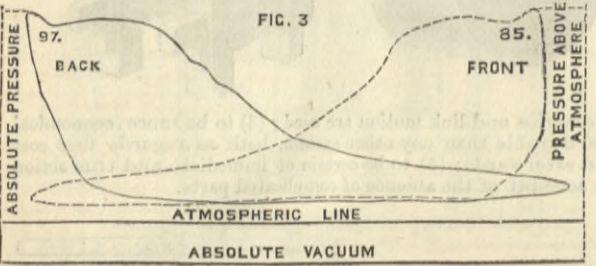
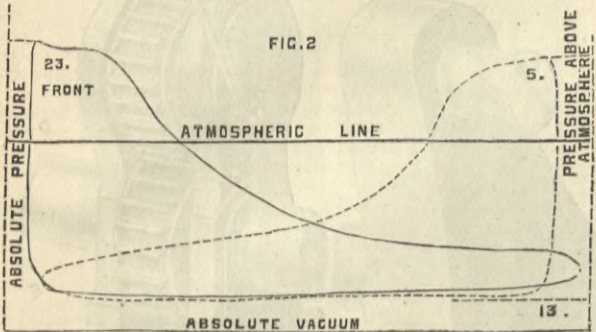
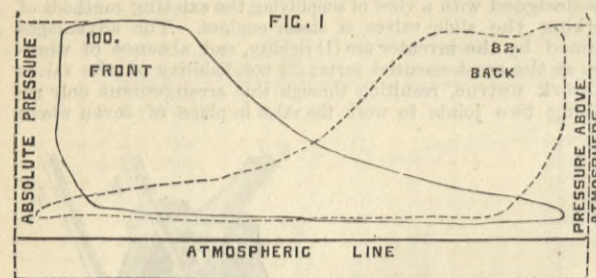
The invention, as will be seen by referring to sketch, consists of a pair of wheels, D, E, geared into one another; one of them, a split one, E, is keyed on the crank shaft; the other wheel is keyed on a spindle, which works loose between a pair of steel links A, or in a box frame enclosing the wheels. A pin, a, is turned on at each side of the spindle, to which the valve rods, b b, are coupled direct; at one end of the links the reversing lever c is attached. The principle of working the gearing is as follows: The frame is set at the requisite angle to the cranks, and the pins a a are so arranged as to give the proper amount of "lead;" when the engine requires to be reversed, the links are simply thrown over to the same angle as it makes with the vertical plane on the opposite side.

TRIAL OF A PAIR OF HORIZONTAL COMPOUND TANDEM ENGINES.

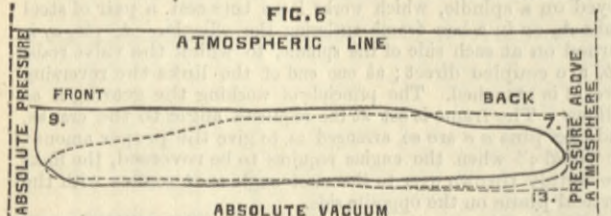
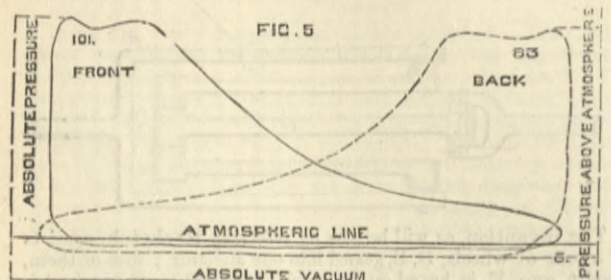
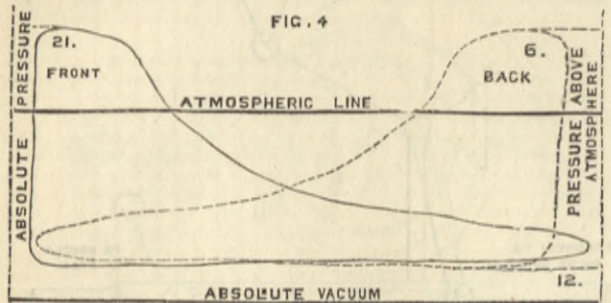
(Continued from page 507.)

Action of the cylinder metal.—In order to understand the conditions affecting the economy, it is desirable to investigate what happens in the cylinders during the period of a revolution. For reasons which will appear as we go on, it is most convenient to commence this investigation at the moment when the exhaust port closes and compression begins. Starting at this point, therefore, we may begin by forming the following tables showing the quantities of steam and water present in the cylinders at different points. The points chosen are the beginning and end of the compression and admission, the end of the expansion and points at one, two, three, and five-ninths of the distance the pistons have to travel after the steam has been cut off. Table II. refers to the non-condensing, and Table III. to the condensing cylinders, the two being treated in each case as one of double the capacity of either. In the last line of Table II. it is seen that the discharge from the small cylinders, which, of course, is equal in weight to the supply from the boilers, consists of 72.6 per cent. of steam and 27.4 per cent. of water. It does not enter the large cylinders in these proportions however, as part of the water is evaporated during the exhaust by the heat stored in the cylinder metal during compression and admission, and by the work done upon it during the expulsion. Hence, before constructing the table for the large cylinders, the quantity so evaporated must be ascertained. To avoid breaking the thread of the report, the question is considered in Note 2 in the Appendix, where it is shown that the weight evaporated was 0.7262 lb. on the Friday and 1.0960 lb. on the Wednesday, so that the initial figures in Table III. will be obtained by adding these quantities to the steam and deducting them from the water shown in the last line of Table II. As figures are objectionable to many persons, the diagrams Figs. 9 and 12 have been constructed to illustrate these tables. A, B, C, D, is supposed to represent the cylinder, within which is drawn an indicator diagram to show the points mentioned on page 55. Through these points vertical lines numbered 1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 are drawn, and upon them are

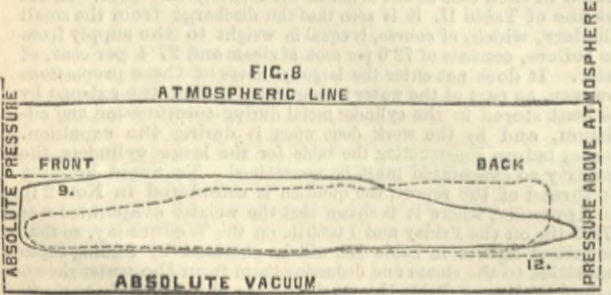
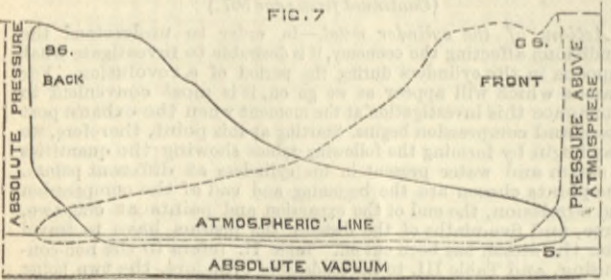
plotted points at distances corresponding to the figures in the lines similarly numbered in the tables. These points being joined, the vertical distances between the joining lines show the weights of steam and water present accurately on the numbered verticals



approximately at other points. A glance at these diagrams shows at once that although the steam supplied to the engines was comparatively dry, there was a large but variable quantity of water in the cylinders. This water is the result of condensation, caused



primarily by absorption of heat by the metal of which the cylinders are made,\* and secondarily by conversion of heat into mechanical work during the expansion, just as the re- evaporation of the water discharged from the small into the



large cylinders—compare the last line of Table II. with the third in Table III.—is due to convection and radiation of heat from the metal and to the work done upon the steam during the expulsion. During the admission, a certain quantity of heat flows

\* See Note 3 in Appendix.

TABLE II.\*

Table with 12 rows and 10 columns. Columns: Description, Friday 13th June (Weight of steam, Percentage of total, Weight of water, Percentage of total, Total weight), Wednesday 18th June (Weight of steam, Percentage of total, Weight of water, Percentage of total, Total weight). Rows: 1-12, Non-condensing cylinders.

\* See Note 1 in Appendix.

TABLE III.\*

Table with 12 rows and 10 columns. Columns: Description, Friday 13th June (Weight of steam, Percentage of total, Weight of water, Percentage of total, Total weight), Wednesday 18th June (Weight of steam, Percentage of total, Weight of water, Percentage of total, Total weight). Rows: 1-12, Condensing cylinders.

\* See Notes 1 and 2 in Appendix.

TABLE IV.\*

Table with 17 rows and 10 columns. Columns: Description, Friday 13th June (Heat con- tained in metal, Heat con- tained in water, Heat con- tained in steam, Equivalent of work, Total), Wednesday 18th June (Heat con- tained in metal, Heat con- tained in water, Heat con- tained in steam, Equivalent of work, Total). Rows: 1-17, Non-condensing cylinders.

\* See Note 4 in Appendix.

TABLE V.\*

Table with 18 rows and 10 columns. Columns: Description, Friday 13th June (Heat con- tained in metal, Heat con- tained in water, Heat con- tained in steam, Equivalent of work, Total), Wednesday 18th June (Heat con- tained in metal, Heat con- tained in water, Heat con- tained in steam, Equivalent of work, Total). Rows: 1-18, Condensing cylinders.

\* See Note 5 in Appendix.

into the cylinders from the boilers, and this quantity remains in the cylinders throughout the stroke and is discharged at the end, less the amount equivalent to the work performed, which is that work expressed in foot-pounds divided by 772, this being the number of foot-pounds of work one unit of heat is capable of pro-

ducing. The distribution of the balance between the three bodies, iron, steam, and water, which constitute the heat-converting machinery, is different at different parts of the stroke, and Tables IV. and V. have been calculated to show what proportion of the total heat supplied each of these three bodies contains at

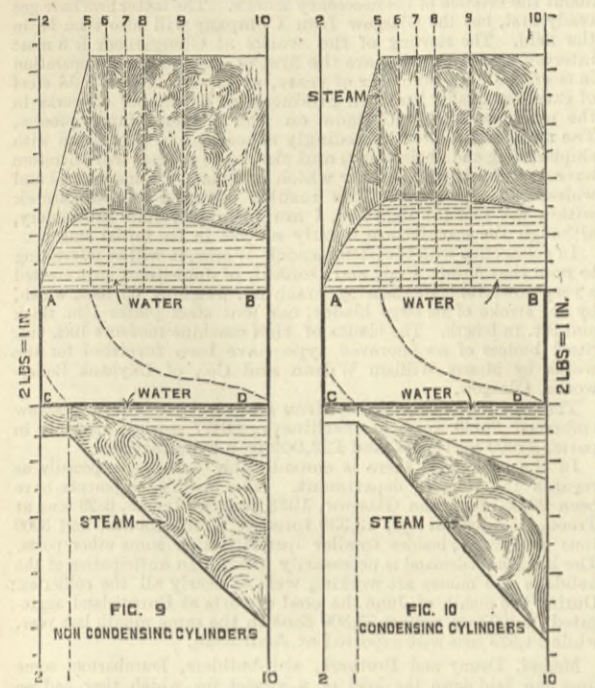


different periods, and what proportion is transformed into mechanical work. As the cylinders are coolest at the end of the exhaust, we begin these tables also at this point, by writing down the quantity of heat remaining from the previous stroke. This is contained entirely in the steam about to be compressed, for since the exhaust ports are on the under side, all the water may be supposed to have departed,\* and since accumulation of heat in the metal evidently does not take place, there is no other body which can hold it. These tables are, unfortunately, rather complicated. The complication arises from the necessity of securing brevity by

metal during the compression and admission, and the large proportion of steam condensed in consequence—viz., 1144.58 thermal units and 1.2535 lb. on the Friday, and 1209.50 thermal units and 1.3199 lb. on the Wednesday. To make the meaning of these figures clearer, they are expressed below as percentages of the total quantities of heat, and of steam and water present, and compared with the percentages obtained in the case of an unjacketted compound engine working with practically the same initial pressure, but with the more moderate ratio of expansion of 1:8.27, the cut-off in the small cylinder taking place at 0.294 of the stroke.\*

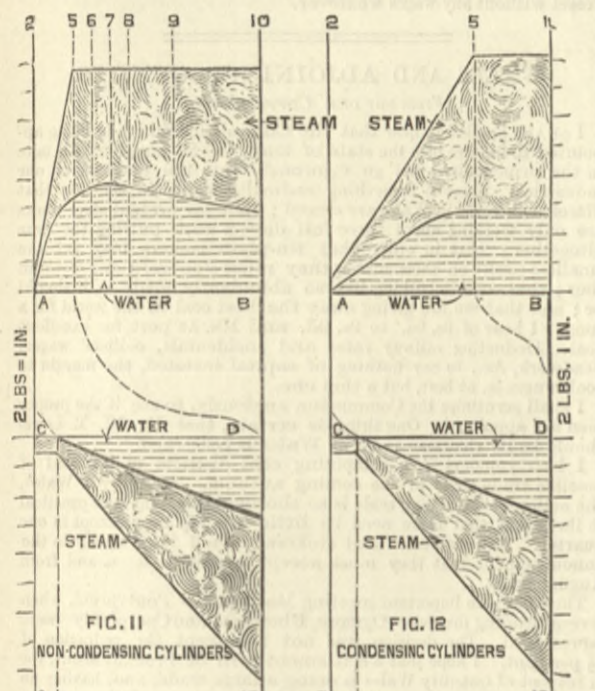
TABLE VI.

|  | June 13, 1884. | June 18, 1884. | Oct. 25, 1881. |
|--|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| 1 Initial pressure, absolute lb. per sq. in. . .   | 94.78          | 94.25          | 96.40          |
| 2 Total ratio of expansion . . . . .   | 1:14.66        | 1:14.68        | 1:8.27         |
| 3 Percentage of total heat abstracted by cylinder during compression and admission . . . . . | 23.7           | 24.7           | 9.8            |
| 4 Percentage of mixture of steam and water condensed during same periods . . . . .           | 30.8           | 32.0           | 12.1           |
| 5 Consumption of dry saturated steam per T.H.P. per hour (see Table I). . . . .              | 16.04          | 17.06          | 14.53          |

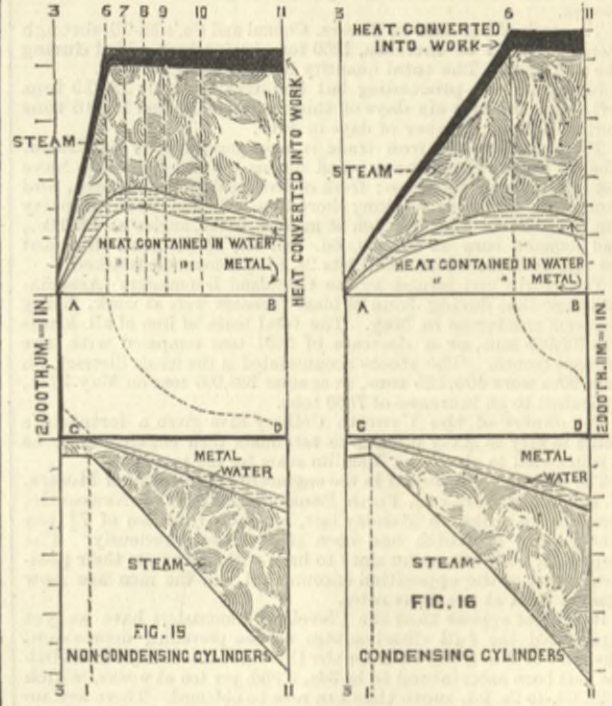


including in a single statement figures which properly belong to two accounts—one of receipts and expenditure of heat, the other a balance-sheet, or, rather, a series of balance-sheets, showing the amount of heat present at different periods and its allocation. In the hope of making them clearer the diagrams Figs. 13 and 16 have been constructed, one for each cylinder, somewhat in the same

These are some of the most instructive figures derived from the experiments, and the lesson they teach most plainly is that excessive ratios of expansion cannot be indulged in with impunity where cylinders are unjacketted. By increasing the quantity of steam kept permanently in the cylinders, in contradistinction to that received from the boiler and discharged each stroke, we should increase the total weight of steam and total quantity of heat present—since the only loss of heat from this steam is that due to radiation, which is small—and thus diminish the percentages of water and of heat absorbed, as well as the absolute amounts, and improve the performance of the engines. This can be done to some extent by closing the exhaust ports earlier. Passing on to the period of expansion in the smaller cylinders, we notice considerable differences in the water re- evaporated and heat restored by the cylinder metal on the two days—differences which are probably traceable ultimately to the alteration of the steam valves of the larger cylinders on the Wednesday. The figures relating to this period open up questions too long to be discussed here, but one point which should not be passed over is referred to in the Appendix.† In the condensing cylinder we again notice an enormous amount of initial condensation, particularly on the Friday, when the quantity of water at the end of the admission reached 44.2 per cent. of the total weight of steam and water present. The expansion presents no peculiarities, and may be passed over with the remark that the absorption of heat by the metal does not cease at the end of the admission, but continues after the steam port has closed, thus indicating that the maximum temperature attained by



way as those illustrating Tables II. and III., only in this case the distances measured upon the vertical lines show the quantities of heat present in the metal, water, and steam at the different points, the scale being 2000 thermal units to the inch. The heat in the metal is represented next the cylinder, then that in the water, and outside again that in the steam, while above the last is shown the



the metal is not that of the entering steam, but one somewhat lower. The figures relating to the exhaust, however, require notice. On the Friday the percentage of water at the end of the stroke, which shows the final result of all the changes through which the mixture of steam and water has passed, is less than on the Wednesday; also the percentage of heat made unavailable for work by being locked up in the cylinder metal, commonly termed "the exhaust waste," is less, so that it would at first sight appear as though, on the whole, more had been got out of the steam on the last day than on the first. The reverse actually happened. Why was this? The answer is furnished by the second law of thermo-dynamics, which briefly stated amounts to this—that any heat engine which works between given limits of temperature gives the maximum useful effect when all the heat is received by the medium used—steam in the present instance—at the highest temperature and discharged at the lowest. Heat and temperature are two very different things. Just as the amount of work which a certain quantity of water will perform varies with the head or pressure under which it is employed, so the amount of work a certain quantity of heat will do varies with the difference between the temperature at which it is supplied and that at which it is discharged. That the engines contravened this law on both days is evident from the figures in the tables. During the admission a certain quantity of heat was absorbed by the metal and given out gradually to the steam during the expansion and exhaust at the temperature then prevailing in the cylinders, a temperature continually falling more and more below the temperature of the boiler, the higher limit, and continually approaching that of the condenser, the lower limit. But on the Wednesday the contravention was more flagrant, as may be seen by comparing the figures for the two days, and noting how much larger a proportion of the heat abstracted by the metal during the admission was restored in the small or high temperature cylinder on the Friday. These figures furnish the explanation of the paradox. Finally, in line 15 of Table V. we have the quantities of heat received by the condenser. These would have been most important had the experiments been complete, because the same quantities could then have been calculated independently from the weight and temperature of the ejected water, and the two values compared as a test of the accuracy of the observations.

(To be continued.)

At Cleveland, Ohio, the ironmasters having sought to resume with new workpeople, the men on strike invaded the mills, forced all the strange workmen to desist from labour, and banked the fires. They have now succeeded in closing all the mills, and 3500 men are idle.

\* See trial of the engine and boiler at Audley Hall Weaving Shed, Blackburn, by the company's engineer, 25th October, 1881.  
† S. e Note 6.

THE IRON, COAL, AND GENERAL TRADES OF BIRMINGHAM, WOLVERHAMPTON, AND OTHER DISTRICTS.

(From our own Correspondent.)

THE Midsummer quarterly meetings have been held this week, and have drawn together a large number of traders from all parts of the kingdom. There were abundant inquiries from merchants and consumers alike to test prices, but the amount of new business which has been done is not heavy.

The demand for stamping and working up sheets is also large. In no department are forward orders at present prices courted, makers preparing to go on from hand to mouth in the hope of possible improvements.

At Wolverhampton to-day—Wednesday—no alteration was made in the crucial price of marked bars, which were re-declared at £7 10s., with 12s. 6d. per ton extra for the bars of the Earl of Dudley. The market, however, regarded the £7 10s. quotation as applying to only one or two firms, such as Wm. Barrows and Sons and the New British Iron Company, since the block houses, who have hitherto been regarded as marked bar firms, made no secret of their preparedness to accept orders at £7, and for second qualities at £6 10s. per ton. The competition from other bar makers was indeed such as to leave the marked bar firms no alternative but to accept this course if they desired to do business. Merchants especially refused to concede the £7 10s. quotation except for special indented orders.

Medium quality bars were abundant at £6, while common were £5 10s. down to £5 5s.

The quotations for bars of the New British Iron Company are as follows:—Best Corngreaves, £6 10s.; Lion, £7 10s.; best Lion, £9; best best scrap Lion, £10; best best Lion, £11; best charcoal, £11 10s.; best Corngreaves plating, £7; Lion plating, £8; best Lion plating, £9 10s.; best Lion turning, £11; best Lion rivet, £9; best best Lion rivet, £10; best Lion chain, £9; best best Lion chain, £10; best Corngreaves horseshoe, £6 10s.; and Lion horseshoe, £7 10s.

The quotations for slit rods of the same firm are:—Best Corngreaves rods, £6 5s.; C. G. C., £7; Lion, £7 10s.; best Lion, £9; best charcoal, £11 10s.; steel, £8; best Corngreaves slit horseshoe, £6 10s.; Lion slit horseshoe, £7 10s.; and best Lion, £9. Hoops and strips from 15 to 19 b.g.:—Best Corngreaves, £7; Lion, £8; best Lion, £9 10s.; best charcoal, £12; and steel £8 10s.

The list of John Bagnall and Sons stands at date as: Sheets, to 20 w.g., £9; 24 w.g., £10 10s.; 27 w.g., £12; ordinary boiler plates to 5 cwt., £9; best, £10; double best, £11; and treble best £12. For hoops from 14 to 19 w.g. they ask £8; for angles, fullered shoe bars, and plating bars, £8; and for rivet iron, £9 to £10, according to quality. Their burning and horseshoe bars are £7 10s. The firm's ordinary smithy bars are as here: 1in. to 6in., flat, £7 10s.; 6in., 7in., 8in., and 9in., flat, £8. Round and square, 7in. to 3in., £7 10s.; 3in. to 3in., 3in., and 3in., £8; 3in., 3in., 3in., and 4in., £8; 4in. and 4in., £8 10s.; 4in. and 4in., £9; 4in. and 4in., £9 10s.; 4in. and 5in., £10. Round only, 5in. and 5in., £10 10s.; 5in. and 5in., £11; 5in. and 5in., £11 10s.; 5in. and 6in., £12; 6in. and 6in., £13; 6in. and 7in., £14; 7in. and 7in., £15.

Prices of sheets varied considerably, and some makers preferred to stand out of the market. Hard doubles are mostly quoted £7, but some makers would not refuse £6 15s. for a good order. Lattens were generally £7 10s. Messrs. Crowther Bros. and Co.'s best coke tin sheets were quoted at £24 per ton; best charcoal, £26; extra best, £28; and best soft steel sheets also £26. Their ordinary cold rolled and close annealed charcoal sheets are £15; best ditto, £16 10s.; F.S.S. steel sheets, £11; best S steel sheets, £12 10s.; and best homoid ditto, £13 10s.

The pig iron market at Wolverhampton did not show by any means large sales, though it was reported that during the past two or three weeks some considerable transactions had been negotiated in advance of the quarterly meetings. The business was mostly in Midland qualities. Shropshire and Staffordshire all-mine pigs were announced 80s. for cold blast sorts and 60s. for hot blast. The prices at which business was actually done, however, were for hot blast sorts, about 55s. to 57s. 6d. Staffordshire part-mine were 40s. to 45s., and common 35s. to 37s. 6d. The Spring Vale make was quoted at:—Hydrates, 52s. 6d.; mine, 45s., and common, 37s. 6d. The Willingsworth brand was quoted at 40s. First-class hematites were mostly quoted at 54s., but some buyers declared they could place orders at 52s. 6d. Second-class hematites were quoted 45s.; Derbyshire pigs, 40s. easy; and Northampton, 38s.

At Birmingham to-day—Thursday—the prices announced at Wolverhampton were alike as to pig and finished iron fully confirmed. Business was tame in all departments, confidence having been somewhat interfered with by arrangements which are in progress for private compositions by two iron and two hardware firms. Forward orders were not regarded by sellers with much favour. In a fortnight or so, however, the market will settle down, and more orders will be distributed.

The yards of the constructive engineers mostly keep well supplied with work, and valuable additional contracts continue to be put upon the market for competition. One of the best of these just now out is for eight bridges of 100ft. span required by the Indian State Railways, and wrought iron girders needed by the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway Company.

Pipe founders speak of the fine point to which business is still cut, and of the large number of firms who immediately tender directly any contracts appear upon the open market. This week the Holt Water and Sewage Works authorities are inquiring for over 2000 yards of cast iron pipes of 2in., 3in., and 4in. sizes, together with small pumping machinery.

Galvanised sheet makers report good export inquiries from Australia, South America, and India; but on account of the prices affixed many of them have to pass on to other firms who are situated near the ports.

In the rivet trade a good deal of speculation is rife as to who will be the firms who will secure contracts with the Admiralty for a twelvemonth's supply of rivets now needed by them. The average ordinary consumption of these goods by the Department is some 3480 cwt.

NOTES FROM LANCASHIRE.

(From our own Correspondent.)

Manchester.—The whole tendency of trade is still in the direction of continued depression. The demand for all descriptions of iron not only shows no improvement, but in most of the large iron consuming branches of industry there is a slackening off which indicates the possibility of even lessened requirements, and the prospects for the future are generally regarded with a feeling of despondency. Prices are already so low that there is really no margin for any further inducements in this direction as a stimulus to trade. The difficulty that has to be faced is in fact not one of price, but of an absence of demand which only an increased volume of trade generally can stimulate. There seems, however, to be nothing to indicate from whence this increased volume of trade is to come, and the immediate future shows no prospect of reviving activity to be at all probable.

The Manchester iron exchange meeting on Tuesday was but a repetition of the previous extremely dull markets which week after week have been recorded for a considerable time past. If anything, inquiries were even fewer than they have been, and the actual business done was exceedingly small. Quoted prices were about the same, except that an increasing tendency is shown to give way upon the nominal list rates that have long been above the current market rates; this, however, does not lead to any actually

equivalent of the absolute work done by the steam during admission and expansion, in order that the total heat present and converted during these periods may appear. These diagrams, with the figures in Tables II. to V., indicate the general nature of the action of the cylinders upon the steam. The first thing that strikes us in considering them is the great amount of heat absorbed by the

\* See Note 3 in Appendix.





