

ON THE FRICTION OF SHAFTS OR JOURNALS THOROUGHLY LUBRICATED.

By WALTER R. BROWNE, M.A., M. Inst. C.E.

IN a number of THE ENGINEER near the beginning of the present year, there appeared a leading article, entitled "What is Friction?" in which attention was drawn to the new and unexpected light thrown upon this subject by recent experiments, especially those of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers.

This is, perhaps, the most important part of the whole subject of friction, at least as regards practice; and it is that to which the recent experiments have chiefly been directed. It is covered especially by the "oil bath" experiments of Mr. Tower, detailed in the recent report of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers—"Proceedings" 1883, p. 632—and also by the earlier experiments of Professor Thurston.

With regard to the evidence for these laws, No. 1 is proved by simple inspection of the tables given in Mr. Tower's report. Thus with olive oil, at 520 lb. pressure per square inch, the coefficient of friction was .0008 at 157ft. per minute, .001 at 209ft. per minute, and .0015 at 419ft. per minute.

We may now proceed to the evidence for the second law—that of the constancy of frictional resistance. This is also shown by a glance at the tables, in which the nominal frictional resistance, as well as the coefficient, is given.

* There seems to be an impression that this complete lubrication is impossible in practice. There seems, however, no reason whatever why this should be the case, and at any rate it forms the ideal state of things to which we should try to approach as closely as possible.

per minute, between 779 lb. and 810 lb. Similar variations occurred with the other lubricants. The differences, considering the necessary difficulties in the observation of such small quantities, are not large, and, what is still more important, they are altogether irregular, their highest values being sometimes at one end of the series, sometimes at the other, and sometimes in the middle.

The third law—that the frictional resistance varies as the area—is merely a deduction from the second, and therefore needs no illustration.

The fourth law—the variation of friction with velocity—is of a more complicated character, and requires further examination. With regard to the first part of the law, namely, that for speeds up to, say, 100ft. per minute, the coefficient of friction is less at higher speeds, we have unfortunately no complete figures to refer to.

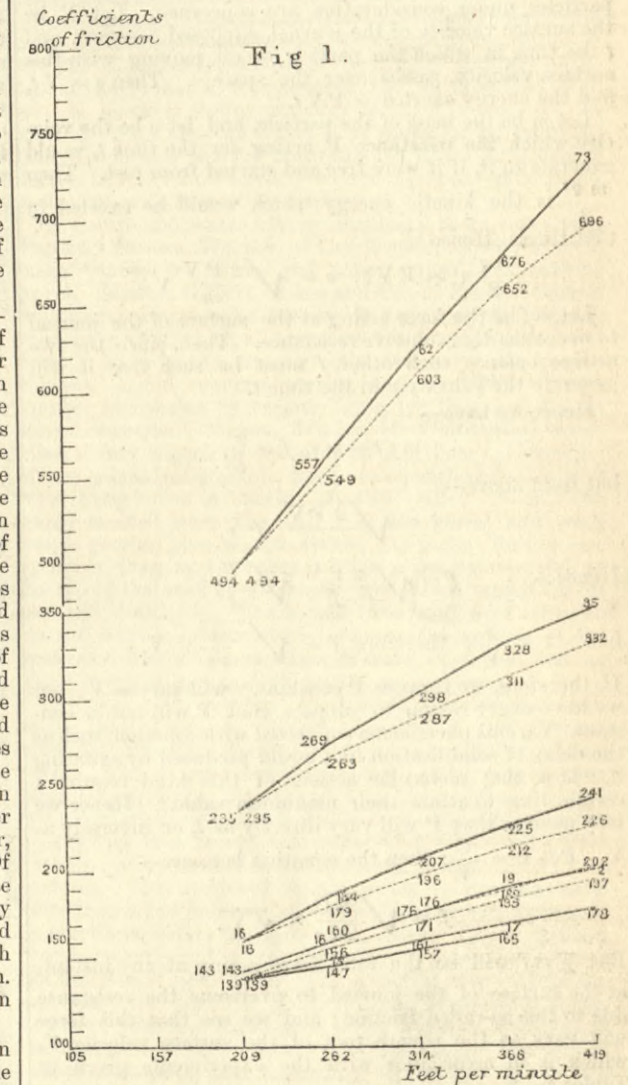
We now come to the question of the rise in the coefficient of friction, when the speed exceeds the value of 100ft. or 150ft. per minute; and here our data are clear and precise. Professor Thurston, indeed, fails here again to give us detailed figures; and he infers that the increase varies as the 5th root of the velocity.

To show that the result is not due to any peculiarity in the lubricant employed, or in the circumstances of one particular set of experiments, I have given in Tables III. to V. similar results for other lubricants, viz., lard oil, sperm oil, mineral oil, and mineral grease. It will be seen that with lard oil—Table II.—the agreement between calculation and experiment is very good at the higher pressures, but that the calculated fall regularly below the observed at the lower pressures—a fact which is also visible, though not to so great an extent, with olive oil.

except at the lowest pressures as before. On the whole, the results go very far to confirm the wisdom of those railway engineers who have retained the use of grease for their vehicles in preference to oil, especially for cases where high bearing pressures are to be expected.

We have thus established the fourth law with which we started, viz., that the coefficient of friction increases with the velocity, and at a rate which is, approximately at least, the same as the square root of that velocity.

The actual law under which the variation takes place has not been previously stated, so far as I am aware. It is, however, shown very clearly by Table VI., in which Table IX., mentioned just above, is reproduced, with an addition of figures given by calculation.



ing the temperature. On calculating the coefficients by this hypothesis, the figures given in the table, below those observed, were obtained. It will be seen that in the bulk of the table the two coincide very closely indeed.

Certain theoretical conclusions as to the nature of friction, in the case of lubricated surfaces, may perhaps be deduced from these results. In the first place, it is evident that the phenomena are altogether different from those that obtain in the case of "dry friction," when two unlubricated surfaces are in contact with each other.

doing so, except by the application of a very great pressure—more than 200 lb. per square inch in that particular case. This proves the existence, at the point of greatest pressure between journal and bearing, of a film of oil capable of sustaining that pressure, and of being slowly squeezed out by it where an opening presented itself. It is clear that this film cannot be wholly at rest, but must be recruited from the oil bath below through the action of the rotating journal; otherwise the film would almost immediately have been squeezed out, and thus the whole of the journal would have become dry and would have seized.

We are, therefore justified in assuming that there is, in the case of a completely lubricated journal, such as we are considering, a film of oil adhering to the outside of the journal, and another film adhering to the inside of the bearing. These two films are constantly sliding or shearing one past the other at the surface speed, whatever that may be, of the journal.

It is natural, therefore, to attribute the so-called friction to the adhesion or shearing resistance which is known to exist to some extent in all fluids, even water, but which is much higher in the case of a heavy oil, such as is used for lubricating. We may treat this adhesion as being merely a cohesive attraction between the stationary and moving particles of the oil,* an attraction which is considerable at small distances, but diminishes rapidly to nothing as the distance increases.

Suppose P to be the mean value of this cohesive resistance, and that it lasts while the moving particle of oil is traversing a distance s. Then P s is the amount of energy expended in overcoming this resistance, so far as the two particles under consideration are concerned. Let V be the surface velocity of the journal, supposed constant, and t the time in which the particle of oil, moving with this surface velocity, passes over the space s. Then s = V t, and the energy exerted = P V t.

Let m be the mass of the particle, and let v be the velocity which the resistance P, acting for the time t, would generate in it, if it were free and started from rest. Then $\frac{m v^2}{2}$ is the kinetic energy which would be exerted in that time. Hence

$\frac{m v^2}{2} = P V t; v = \sqrt{\frac{2 P V}{m}} \sqrt{t}$

Let m f be the force acting at the surface of the journal to overcome this cohesive resistance. Then, since the two actions balance each other, f must be such that it will generate the velocity v in the time t.

Hence we have—

$m f t = m v, f = \frac{v}{t}$

but from above—

$v = \sqrt{\frac{2 P V}{m}} \sqrt{t}$

Hence—

$f = \sqrt{\frac{2 P V}{m}} \sqrt{\frac{1}{t}}$

but $t = \frac{s}{V}$; therefore $f = \sqrt{\frac{2 P}{m s}} \times V$.

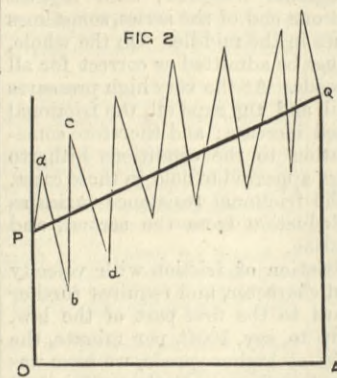
If, therefore, we suppose P constant, f will vary as V; but we have every reason to suppose that P will not be constant. Various phenomena connected with cohesion, such as the delay of solidification in a liquid produced by agitating it, show that molecular actions of this kind require a certain time to attain their maximum value.† Hence we may assume that P will vary directly as t, or inversely as V. Put P = $\frac{C}{V}$; then the equation becomes—

$f = \sqrt{\frac{2 C}{M s}} \times \sqrt{V}$

But $\sum m f$ will be the total force acting at any instant, at the surface of the journal, to overcome the resistance due to this so-called friction; and we see that this force will vary as the square root of the surface velocity V, which is in accordance with the experiments given in Tables I—V.

It is easily seen that this theory is also in complete accordance with the laws laid down from experiment at the beginning of this paper. We may take these in order. (1) The coefficient of friction is very much lower than in ordinary or dry friction. This is to be expected, because the shearing resistance of such a liquid as oil is also very low. The value of this adhesion might be perhaps determined by calculation from these results; but this would certainly need to be checked by direct experiment. (2) The actual frictional resistance per unit of surface is independent of the pressure. This agrees with the hypothesis; for fluid being incompressible, the external pressure will not draw the stationary and moving particles nearer to each other, or cause any alteration in the energy needed for separating them. (3) The resistance varies as the area in contact, independently of the pressure. Since it arises from the adhesion between the moving and stationary films, which adhesion will go on all over the separating surface, this will obviously be true. (6) The fact of the decrease of the coefficient of friction in inverse proportion to the rise in temperature may at first sight seem difficult to reconcile with this theory. It might be supposed that the expansion of the liquid with increasing temperature was the cause of the variation. But as the coefficient of expansion is a very small quantity, it seems impossible that, if this were the cause, the coefficient should vary inversely as the temperature, e.g., that if the temperature be doubled the effect should be halved. We must have recourse, therefore, to the fundamental conception of temperature, as given us by the mechanical theory of heat—namely, that it represents the amplitude of the molecular vibrations, or, for vibrations of the same period, the mean velocity of the vibrating particle. As the time of such

vibrations is exceedingly short, a great number of them will occur during the period in which the moving particle of oil is traversing the space s, and during which the stationary particle is supposed to act upon it. Let O A represent the time t of this action, set off along the axis of x, and draw from each point ordinates to represent the distance between the stationary and moving particles at that instant. Let P Q represent the locus of these ordinates on the supposition that the particles have no vibratory motion. Then if we knew the law of force, we could calculate from



this diagram the energy expended by the stationary particle, on the assumption that there is no vibration. But, as a matter of fact, there is vibration, and the true form of the locus will be the wavy line Pabcd. In other words, there will be continual and very rapid changes in the distance between the two particles. But, as we have seen, the force between them requires time to develop its maximum power under any change of circumstances. Consequently this kind of oscillation will practically tend to diminish the magnitude of the force acting as a resistance between the particles, and approximately in the inverse ratio of the amplitude or velocity of vibration. But if the resistance is diminished, the force required to overcome the resistance will be diminished in the same proportion. In other words, this force will vary inversely as the temperature, which by experiment it is found to do.

TABLE I.—Bath of Olive Oil, Temperature 90 deg. Fah.

Table with columns for Nominal load (lb. per sq. in.), Coefficients of friction (209ft., 262ft., 314ft., 366ft., 419ft., 471ft.), and Observed/Calculated values for various loads (520, 468, 415, 363, 310, 258, 205, 153, 100).

TABLE II.—Bath of Lard Oil, Temperature 90 deg. Fah.

Table with columns for Nominal load (lb. per sq. in.), Coefficients of friction (209ft., 262ft., 314ft., 366ft., 419ft., 471ft.), and Observed/Calculated values for various loads (520, 415, 310, 205, 153, 100).

TABLE III.—Bath of Sperm Oil, Temperature 90 deg. Fah.

Table with columns for Nominal load (lb. per sq. in.), Coefficients of friction (209ft., 262ft., 314ft., 366ft., 419ft., 471ft.), and Observed/Calculated values for various loads (415, 310, 205, 153, 100).

It might be suggested that another cause would still further diminish the resistance at high temperatures. It will be observed that the ordinate of the wavy line Pabcd becomes greater than A Q before a is reached; and as A Q is supposed to be the limit of distance, beyond which the two particles do not act on each other, it follows that this action will cease at an earlier and earlier period, as the temperature becomes higher, and will, therefore, be less in amount. But when we consider the enormous rapidity of the vibrations of heat, it is clear that at any ordinary speeds this effect will be quite imperceptible.

Another objection may be alluded to, namely, that if the force between the two particles acts to retard the motion of the shaft when they are receding from each other, it will act equally to accelerate it when they are approaching

each other; and thus the net effect will be nil. But it must be remembered that the moving particle is not rigidly fixed to the shaft, but is easily separable from it; hence the effect of the attraction, when the two are approaching, will probably be almost entirely to draw the moving particle further from the shaft and nearer to the stationary particle. It will not appear, therefore, as a force accelerating the shaft as a whole; whereas the resistance to separation must ultimately be overcome by the external force tending to turn the shaft.

TABLE IV.—Bath of Mineral Oil, Temperature 90 deg. Fah.

Table with columns for Nominal load (lb. per sq. in.), Coefficients of friction (209ft., 262ft., 314ft., 366ft., 419ft.), and Observed/Calculated values for various loads (625, 520, 415, 310, 205, 100).

TABLE V.—Bath of Mineral Grease, Temperature 90 deg. Fah.

Table with columns for Nominal load (lb. per sq. in.), Coefficients of friction (209ft., 262ft., 314ft., 366ft., 419ft., 471ft.), and Observed/Calculated values for various loads (625, 520, 415, 310, 205, 153).

TABLE VI.—Variation of Friction with Temperature.

Table with columns for Temperature (Cent. and Fah.), Coefficients of friction (105ft., 157ft., 209ft., 262ft., 314ft., 366ft., 419ft., 471ft.), and Observed/Calculated values for various temperatures (48° 9' 12", 48° 4' 11", 37° 8' 10", 32° 2' 9", 26° 7' 8", 21° 1' 7", 25° 6' 6").

There is still one fact as to friction, of those stated at the beginning, which we have not considered, namely, that at low speeds the coefficient does not increase, but, on the contrary, diminishes with increasing velocity. This, indeed, is not so clearly proved as the others; but admitting its truth, it must obviously be due to some other cause than that hitherto treated of. This may, perhaps, be found in the fact that each particle of oil in passing from the edge to the centre of the bearing, passes from a region where the pressure is low to a region where it is high. This high pressure will act to drive back the oil as it advances, and a certain amount of force will be required to overcome it. Thus let s be the length of the particle's path, from edge to centre of bearing; and let the pressure in this space vary from 0 to P. Then, if we assume that the pressure increases uniformly from edge to centre, the pressure when the particle has traversed a distance s will be $\frac{P s}{S}$, and this will have to be overcome through the distance ds. Hence the total energy expended by the pressure in resisting the advance of the particle of oil will be represented by the integral of $\frac{P}{S} s ds$ between 0 and S, or will be $\frac{P S}{2}$. Let V be the velocity of the shaft, as before, and v be the velocity with which the particle of oil arrives at the centre; then $m \frac{V^2 - v^2}{2} = \frac{P S}{2}$.

Now this diminution of the velocity of the particle of oil will cause it to slip through a certain distance along the shaft in the opposite direction to the motion, and thus produce a certain amount of energy retarding the rotation. This energy will be proportional to the distance slipped, and therefore to V - v; but from above,

$V - v = \frac{P S}{m} \times \frac{1}{V + v}$

Thus, this energy will be inversely proportional to the velocity of rotation nearly—since v will not be very different from V. It will therefore be considerable at low velocities, but will rapidly diminish, and at high velocities will be inappreciable in comparison with the adhesive resistance already considered. This is in accordance with observation.

It may, perhaps, be allowable to hope that the theory thus developed may be considered as supported, by its

* It is here assumed that there is no regular or continuous gradation from the stationary to the moving layer, the one being attached to the bearing, and the other to the shaft.
† Of course this need not imply that the force is actually a function of time, but that the molecules take a certain time to arrange themselves so as to produce their maximum effect.

agreement with experiment, sufficiently to be at least worth using as a working hypothesis in future investigations of this important question.

WALTER R. BROWNE.

MISCELLANEOUS MACHINERY AT THE ROYAL AGRICULTURAL SHOW AT SHREWSBURY.

AMONGST the machinery not referred to in our last impression was much modern milling plant. The construction of this class of machinery has already become an important industry in this country, although there is yet a considerable quantity imported from America. The reason for this does not seem at first sight obvious, neither is it wholly explained on investigation. An American machine may be seen, with a legend as long as a local time-table intended to show how that particular wonder in mechanical art is hedged in by the protecting arm of the American Patent-office, by the side of a similar English machine which does not boast and probably cannot lay claim to any such official protection. This importation will probably diminish as the English millers grow more accustomed to high milling requirements, and make it worth the while of the manufacturers of such excellent machinery as that shown by Messrs. Hind and Lund, Messrs. Thos. Robinson and Son, and others, to construct machines of the kind. We do not suggest that there is not great credit due to the American milling machinists for the completeness with which they have considered every point in the history of a grain of wheat from the time it reaches a milling establishment to the time that it is in the bakehouse, for it must be admitted that they have not only done this, but have provided machinery in accordance with this complete study. This, however, does not make it any the more necessary that we should import American machinery; but there is no doubt that some of those milling engineers who are doing this at present will cease to do so when further experience in this comparatively new trade has more definitely shown what are likely to be permanent requirements. The process of selection and survival of the fittest is markedly observable in the history of the modern roller milling plant with the refinements in the division of the milling process into so many parts, which came into existence almost suddenly in this country. The Milling Exhibition of 1881, in London, forms a prominent mark in the history of this modern radical change in a very old industry and its appliances. The roller mill and its accessories had at that date gained some hold even in this country, and enterprising milling engineers and millers had looked upon the new comer as one that was no mere visitor, but one that had come to stay. Yet, in the three years which have followed that exhibition changes have occurred, and with them millers have in increasing numbers adopted the new system. The gravitation of the milling trade of the country, which with steam power had for some time been drifting from the small millers into the hands of those with larger capital, is being wonderfully hastened by the new system, which requires still more capital. High-class flour is more than ever in demand, and, except perhaps in London and a few country places, people will have it, with the result that country millers have to buy the high-class flour from others. This obtains in most parts of England, though not equally in all parts, as, for instance, in Suffolk and Norfolk, where the good quality of the wheat still enables the local millers to satisfy requirements; but even in these counties the windmills which used to be seen at every turn are decreasing in number, and as they fall out of repair are not being renewed. Some of the processes through which wheat is now passed would have seemed absurd in the eyes of our forefathers. The machines which have for some time been considered essential, such as smutters, dusters, cleaners and separators, add much to the capital required to stock a mill, while the grain washers and dryers help again in this direction. Yet now that washing the grain is practised, and it is seen that even after passing through the separator much dirt is removed in the process, it is recognised that to clean grain before eating it is as necessary as cleaning any other edible. The millers have been led to do it not so much from this consideration as from the desire to produce white flour, which is now understood to mean in great measure clean flour. Amongst a large quantity of milling machinery exhibited by Messrs. J. Walworth and Co., Bradford, was a grain washer for washing foreign wheats, and capable of cleaning from ten to twenty sacks per hour.

Mr. W. Gardener, of Gloucester, exhibited a number of machines, amongst which was a new three-high roller mill, arranged so that the feed roll can be stopped instantaneously, and so as to work on two different kinds of middlings at the same time. The mill is driven by one belt, and the gearing runs in oil, the frame being made so that the rolls can be taken out without taking the frame to pieces or taking the wheels off. The rolls are separately adjustable, though all are simultaneously separated by one lever attached to a double excentric. He also exhibited one of Odell's eight-roller mills, with some recent improvements, made especially to meet the requirements of small mills, with a capacity of from twenty to seventy sacks per twenty-four hours. Of mills of this small size there are large numbers, and as the owners must adopt, at least in some measure, the new system, mills of this kind will no doubt be extensively required. It contains four pairs of 7in. by 14in. rolls, all of which are driven with one belt from the power shaft, each pair provided with an independent hopper and feed mechanism. Each pair of rolls is provided with separate adjustments for setting and tramping them, and all four pairs may be simultaneously spread apart, and the feed cut off by one movement of a hand lever. By means of one adjustable tightener pulley, the machine can be instantly stopped or started without disturbing the driving belt.

Messrs. Robinson and Son, Rochdale, exhibit some fine new machines, characterised by the good style of design and good work which marks their machinery for other purposes. To some of these machines we shall return on another occasion.

Mr. C. Hopkinson, of Retford, exhibited some good

milling machinery at work, but his attendant seeing us make a note, jumped to the conclusion that we wanted to copy the roller mill (a good simple two roller mill for middlings or bran, and fitted with a very simple form of adjustment, stop feed, and means of instantaneously separating the rollers); and refused to be communicative, and not seeing Mr. Hopkinson afterwards, we gathered nothing about his machinery except what was visible.

Mr. J. Harrison Carter exhibited a large number of machines, including his disintegrators, and some well designed roller mills made by Messrs. E. R. and F. Turner, of Ipswich.

Messrs. Hind and Lund exhibited some well designed and excellently well finished machinery, including a new purifier specially made to deal with coarse semolina, the features of which, however, we could not describe without drawings.

It is a noteworthy fact that nearly all the chilled rollers used in roller mills made by English manufacturers are bought from American founders. It is said that satisfactory rolls cannot be made in this country. Surely this ought not to be the case, and even if it has hitherto been so, it ought to pay some of those who are experienced in chilled roll making to turn their attention to this matter, seeing that roller mills are so rapidly gaining favour.

The usually extensive show of grinding mills by Messrs. E. R. and F. Turner was this year very small, in consequence of the double fees now charged by the Society for these mills; but as small stone grinding mills are even yet used a good deal for grist work, and as the Society at one time gave prizes for mills of this kind, and as metal mills for gristing work are admitted as agricultural machines, Messrs. Turner feel much aggrieved by the action of the Society. They observe that if stone mills are to be classed as non-agricultural, there are many other things, including large compound engines, which should be similarly classed.

The Willesden Waterproof Paper and Canvas Company had a fine display. In a recent impression we fully described the process employed by this company. It will be enough to say here that copper is dissolved in liquid ammonia. The paper, canvas, &c., is passed through the solution, and dried in a steam-heated chamber, and so rendered waterproof. Special methods of forming roofs and buildings have been designed to meet the demands made by waterproof paper on the constructive ability of the company, and with very great ingenuity and success. Their exhibits included a large hay barn, 45ft. by 22ft.; a silo roof, 30ft. by 10ft., in three sections, on rails; a light adjustable rick cover, 24ft. by 12ft., suspended between two poles; various houses, pipes, and other articles too numerous to mention. The strength and waterproof qualities of the material were illustrated by a small over-shot water-wheel, with buckets of Willesden paper.

Several specimens of silos were shown by different makers. One by Messrs. J. and F. Howard, of Bedford, seemed to be very successful. The principal feature in it is that the cut grass is not pressed down by anything but its own weight. The cover of the silo is rendered air-tight by a water-seal round the edge of the lid or roof.

A somewhat interesting competition was carried out with machines for filling silos. The competitors were Messrs. Crowley, Richmond and Chandler, Burlingham, Bust, Maynard, Albaret, Carson and Toone, and Lister. The principle of all the machines is the same. The grass or other material to be converted into ensilage is cut up by revolving knives—chaff cutters, in fact—and the cut grass is then delivered automatically into a cart, bags, or the silo pit. All the competitors used rotary knives. The difference between the various machines lay in the mode of elevating the cut stuff. The most powerful and expensive machine shown was that of M. Albaret, of Liancourt, Ratigny, Oise, France. In this a large cast iron fly-wheel is mounted with four curved knives, taking the place of spokes, and a number of vanes about 7in. square. The whole is enclosed in a box. The stuff is fed up to the knives by an endless web in a trough and proper feed rollers and a pressing block; a long delivery spout elevator is fixed to one end of the box, which box plays the part of a fan case. The current of air caused by the vanes as the cutters revolve, blows the cut stuff through the delivery spout, which is set to stand at a considerable height from the ground. The machine shown by Messrs. Carson and Toone delivers the cut stuff at the bottom of the rotary knife case on to a travelling web elevator. Richmond and Chandler's machine delivers at the bottom on to a horizontal endless web, which conveys it to a web elevator running in a trough. Messrs. Bust's knife wheel is fitted with fan blades, which deliver on much the same principle as that of Albaret's machine. Lister's machine is a similar combination of chaff-cutter and fans. It is not necessary to describe any of the machines minutely, as the judges did not consider that any of the competitors had produced just what was wanted, their award posted in the showyard running, "We have carefully tried the whole of the machines entered in this competition; we have not found any single machine that completely meets the conditions under which the prize was offered, viz., for an efficient machine for cutting and elevating materials to be preserved in silos. We consider, however, that Messrs. Richmond and Chandler's machine is deserving of high commendation for the efficiency of its arrangements for cutting materials." Some hard things have been said of the judges for withholding the prize. We confess, however, that our sympathies are with the judges. They were painstaking and fair to the last degree. The breaking down or choking of the machine did not disqualify it. The exhibitors might repair or re-adjust it as much as they pleased, and then come up for trial again. As a matter of fact, nearly all the machines broke down in some way. In one, some of the vanes were broken off, in another the delivery elevator was choked, and so on. We refrain from mentioning names. All the machines were more or less susceptible of improvement. They represent what can be done by ingenuity groping in the dark for want of experience. They were first attempts, and while as first attempts they were satisfactory and successful, there was not perhaps one which would really meet the

wants of the farmer. The evidence of want of skill in dealing with a new material in a new way was apparent. On the whole, the knives did the cutting very well. The chaff-cutter is not a new thing, and because concerning cutting there was plenty of experience available, errors in proportion, or in shape of knives, or in strengths of parts were not visible; they did not exist; but this cannot be said of the delivery arrangements. It is a new thing to pass tons of cut grass through a fan. One machine, for example, cut up and delivered a ton of wet grass in 7 minutes 6 seconds. No one quite knows what is the proper shape of blade, or its right area, or curvature, or strength. Several blades were bent during trial. Indeed, hardly a single machine came out of the competition scatheless. Those who used elevators did not quite know what size to make them or how fast to run them. It is surprising that the results obtained were as good as they were. One competitor put in a machine that had never been tried until it came up for competition. The blowing principle seems to be right, but it wants development. The system of testing was as follows:—One of Messrs. Aveling and Porter's 6-horse power crane engines supplied the power. An integrating dynamometer was interposed between the engine and the machine to be tested, which was supplied with 1 ton of cut rye and the same weight respectively of green oats, tares, and gorse. Machines which did well with one material sometimes failed completely with the others. The integrating dynamometer showed the force expended. We may here point out that this dynamometer has not been cleaned or overhauled for several years, and is by no means in good order. Nothing, indeed, but the practised skill and experience of Mr. Courtney, Messrs. Easton and Anderson's representative, enabled good results to be obtained with it; and we should not like to pledge ourselves for the minute accuracy of its indications. As a comparative test it answered well enough, however, being probably as much in error for one machine as for another. But it is much to be regretted that a great and wealthy body like the Royal Agricultural Society should follow a penny-wise-and-pound-foolish policy in dealing with its testing machinery.

Of pumps and water lifting machinery there was a poor display. Messrs. Warner, of Cripplegate, showed a great many pumps for horse and other power, but nothing novel. Messrs. Gilbert Gilkes and Co., of Kendal, showed centrifugal pumps and a turbine in action, apparently the very same with which all shows of the Royal Agricultural Society have made us perfectly familiar. Of garden engines, liquid manure pumps, and such-like a large number was shown by various firms, but they call for no special mention. Messrs. Wilder, of Wallingford, exhibited a very ingenious set of well machinery, consisting of two galvanised buckets, fixed one at each end of a wire rope, hung over a species of clip pulley in an iron frame erected over the well. A belt wheel and very simple gearing give motion to the clip pulley, first in one direction, then in the other. As each bucket rises full to the top of the well it is caught by a hook, which tilts it over and empties it. The bucket in turning over comes in contact with a lever, which reverses the motion of the machine. The whole machine is very ingenious, and no doubt it would be found efficient in many places.

Railways and railway appliances, suitable for farm work, were shown by Messrs. Decauville and Fowler, while Mr. Fleeming Jenken sent one span of his telpher system, and a good working model. The single span could not, of course, be worked, but the model attracted a great deal of attention, and would have attracted more but for the fact that power was supplied by a 20-cell Grove battery, quite unsuitable for the work it was called on to perform. This rendered it impossible to run the model more than a few minutes at a time, lest the battery should be run down before the showyard closed. Telpherage has been so recently and fully described in our pages that we need not describe it again here. The invention is in its infancy, and may yet perform great things. We cannot think, however, that the high-speed motor adopted, hung below the line, in a situation where it is liable to get dirt spilled into it in loading and unloading the buckets is the best that can be used. What is wanted is a disc motor, running at a slow speed, say 600 revolutions per minute, instead of the Ayrton and Perry motor, which is not well adapted for this particular kind of work.

A feature of novelty was this year introduced by the Society, in the water supply of the Show ground, by the adoption, for the first time, of the Norton's "Abyssinian" tube well system. The quantity of water needed was 15,000 gallons per hour, to obtain which Messrs. Legrand and Sutcliffe, of London, furnished eight 3in. "Abyssinian" tube wells. These were driven 20ft. apart, about 21ft. deep, and connected by branch pieces to one 5in. cast iron main or receiver, with a central 6in. outlet, to which was attached the suction pipe of a steam pump, which forced the water up into a tank about 800 yards distant, thence to be distributed in the usual way by hydrants throughout the grounds. An abundant supply of beautifully clear, cool water was thus secured.

TENDERS.

STRATFORD-ON-AVON SEWERAGE WORKS.

E. PRITCHARD, M.I.C.E., engineer, London and Birmingham. Contract No. 2.—For the manufacture and erection in Stratford of gas engines and pumps.

Name.	Amount.	Engines.	Pumps.
	£ s. d.		
Coalbrookdale Company.	1918 0 0	2 of 6-H.P. Otto	ram
Piercy and Co., B'ham	1660 0 0	3 of 6-H.P. Clerk	reciprocating
"	1620 0 0	3 of 6-H.P. Otto	"
Causar and Co., Soho	1400 0 0	3 of 8-H.P. Otto	centrifugal
Glenfield Co., Kilmarnock	1827 0 0	3 of 6-H.P. Otto	reciprocating
"	1291 0 0	"	"
"	1271 0 0	3 of 6-H.P. Clerk	"
Crossley Bros., Man.	1276 0 0	3 of 6-H.P. Otto	centrifugal
"	1149 15 0	"	ram
Tangye Bros., B'ham	1216 0 0	"	centrifugal
"	1066 10 0	4 of 4-H.P. Robson	"
Pratchitt, Carlisle	1180 0 0	3 of 6-H.P. Otto or Clerk	ram
*Ball and Horton, Stratford-on-Avon	1062 17 0	2 of 6-H.P. Otto	centrifugal

* Accepted.

GERMAN REGULATIONS AS TO THE CONSTRUCTION OF IRON BRIDGES.

At a meeting of the German Association of Architects and Engineers held in October, 1881, the question of normal regulations for the delivery of iron structures for bridges and buildings was discussed. The subject was then referred to the Saxony Association, for the drawing up of a series of regulations on the subject. The matter has since that time been under consideration, and during last autumn the work projected was accomplished.

In the scheme drawn up—signed by Messrs. Centner, Ehrhardt, Fränkel, and Fritzsche—the question of bridge construction has been treated in a comprehensive manner; less attention having apparently been given to that portion of the subject which refers to building work. The following is a summary of the principal features of the scheme in question, given in detail by the *Wochenblatt für Architekten und Ingenieure*.

I. Technical basis of construction: (A) *Intrinsic weight of the structure:* (B) *Alterable vertical load.*—(a) In railway bridges this is represented by a train consisting of three of the heaviest locomotives in prospective use, and an unlimited number of loaded goods trucks. (b) The traffic on road bridges consists of foot passengers and carriages. For main girders of bridges, of about 65 ft. span, concentrated loads upon one or two axles are more unfavourable than the burden of a crowd, but in larger bridges the latter is the most unfavourable. This last-named pressure can as a rule be estimated at about 82 lb. per square foot, but in cases of a compact crowd the pressure may be as high as 114 lb. per square foot. The prospective burden of carriages has to be estimated according to the probable character of the vehicles and the description of roadway; the portion of the roadway not covered with vehicles being supposed to be filled with a crowd. In some cases regard must be paid to a probable load of street locomotives. (c) In buildings the movable burden of the floors, burden of snow on the roof and wind pressure. (C) *Horizontal forces.*—(a) The wind pressure acting horizontally may be estimated for the loaded bridge at 30½ lb. per square foot, and for the unloaded bridge at 51½ lb. per square foot, or, in a specially exposed situation, even at 57½ lb. per square foot. (b) In curved railway bridges the effect of the centrifugal force for the maximum speed of the trains has to be taken into consideration. (D) *Allowable requirements of the material used in the construction.*—The employment of the formulae founded on Wöhler's tests* is suggested, but the following strengths are mentioned as maximum requirements:—Welded iron, 7·625 tons per square inch; steel, 11·5 tons per square inch. Wide flanged welded iron I girders—where the width of the flanges exceeds that of the German normal profile—even if they have only to support a fixed load, should not be required to stand a test of above 5 tons per square inch in tension. In calculations affecting rivets there should not be more strength claimed than about 3·75 tons per square inch of rivet section. Cast iron should be required to stand tests for extension of 1·625 tons per square inch, and for pressure of 4·75 tons per square inch.

II. Preparation of contract drawings and calculations.—**III. The preparation of working drawings.**—The drawings and calculations on which a contract is based are, as a rule, prepared by the building authorities, and when the adjudication takes place the contractor receives attested copies. If these are—apart from the general plan—on the scale of one-twenty-fifth to one-twentieth of the natural size for entire main girders, and one-tenth the natural size for the details, no further working drawings are required. Any defects arising in the work are not to be excused on the ground of want of clearness or imperfections in the drawings. Any changes suggested by the contractor are to be notified within a given period. When special working drawings have to be prepared by the contractor, they are to be submitted in duplicate to the building authorities within a given time after the adjudication. Any purchases of materials or other steps taken before the approval of these working drawings are at the contractor's risk. The calculations as to weight are in most cases prepared by the authorities and annexed to the contract. If they are in accordance with the dimensions shown in the drawings no further calculations of weight are required, but the contractor is bound to examine them. Should approximate weights only have been given, the contractor is bound to send in within a given time in duplicate an exact calculation of weights. The following standards of weight are to be taken as a basis:—Cast iron, 452½ lb. per cubic foot; wrought iron, 486½ lb. per cubic foot; steel and ingot iron, 490½ lb. per cubic foot.

IV. Selection, quality, and testing of the materials.—(a) The bearing portions of the structure, such as the main girders, cross girders, and intermediate girders, as well as all portions which are liable to deflection, are in general to be made of wrought iron. It is recommended in bridge building to use wrought iron instead of cast iron columns. As to the use of mild steels, caution is advised in the present conditions of methods of manufacture. (b) The definition of the quality of the material of the construction must be governed by its working capabilities. (c) The wrought iron used must at least possess the qualities specified in the conditions of classification issued in May, 1881, by the Association of German Ironworks. As to mild steel and ingot iron, tests can hardly be specified on account of the insufficiency of experience relating to them. The cast iron portions must be cleanly made of grey soft iron in the prescribed dimensions. They must contain neither blisters, holes, fissures, nor any other defects. The minimum strength must be—against tension 7 tons per square inch; compression, 38 tons per square inch. Cast iron columns and supports are tested up to double the burden for which they are constructed. The minimum thickness of metal for cast iron columns is ½ in.

V. Cleaning and painting.—Previous to the separate parts being put together—plates, bars, &c.—the rust and hammer slag are to be removed from the iron. The mode of cleaning is left to the contractor's option, but he must give notice of what it is, and is responsible in the instance of chemical cleaning for any subsequent rusting arising from want of care in the removal of the acids used. The cleaned portions are to be coated with a varnish of boiling hot linseed oil, which must be thin and quick in drying. Until dried, the portions thus coated must be properly sheltered. The building authorities are at liberty to arrange for a provisional acceptance when the rivetting is completed, after which the grounding of the parts may be effected with a protecting ground paint. For this purpose a varnish of linseed oil with red lead is recommended, but the operation must not take place during damp weather in the open air. This provisional acceptance is not any agreement on the part of the building authorities as to the correctness of the measurements or the number of pieces in the construction. The larger portions are only to be grounded on the building site after revision. After the iron portions are in position, all the joints are to be carefully filled up, at the surfaces of contact, with a putty composed of white lead and linseed oil varnish, and a grounding of red lead

is to be applied to the heads of the rivets driven in on the building site. Besides, all spaces between portions of the construction where water might accumulate have to be carefully filled up with asphalt. The entire construction subsequently receives from the building authorities a second coat of oil paint. Should the zincing—galvanising—of any portions be prescribed, it should be effected by a strictly uniform coating. The portions thus treated should be capable of being bent until they break without the zincing, *i.e.*, what is incorrectly called galvanising in this country, becoming detached. The coating of zinc must be as free as possible from lead.

VI. The manufacture and putting together of the separate parts.—All the parts of the construction must exactly correspond with the drawings and fulfil the following conditions:—(a) The portions fastened with rivets or screws must fit closely together. (b) All iron portions must be rolled or forged out of one piece of iron, and not be formed by the welding together of separate pieces. Any exceptions have to be specified. (c) Angles and bending are to be avoided as far as possible. (d) The rivet holes must correspond as to diameter and position with the drawings. The holes which are drilled at the building site should be about ⅓ of an inch narrower than the diameter of the rivet requires, so that a good fit is ensured after its being enlarged. (e) All screw holes and rivet holes are to be carefully drilled. (f) Where several holes meet each other in the parts to be united, a horizontal dislocation of not more than 5 per cent. of the diameter of the hole is allowable. The holes must, however, be made perfectly equal with the rimer, and not by filing on one side. Rivet bolts of proportionately large size must be used in holes thus enlarged. (g) The rivets are to be inserted at a bright red-heat—after being carefully freed from scales—into the duly cleared rivet holes in such a manner that they are quite firm after the head is completed. (h) After the rivetting, it is to be tested whether the rivets are quite firm. All that are not firm or do not correspond with the above-named conditions are to be removed and replaced by others. No further driving is under any circumstances to be permitted in the cold state. In the putting together of the parts, care is to be taken that none of them is forced into a one-sided tension. Should any portions become distorted in the rivetting, the connections must be loosened and the faults carefully remedied.

VII. Extent of completion in the workshops.—In all parts not to be rivetted in the factory, provisional screw bolts must be inserted. Rivetting upon the building site is to be confined to the smallest possible extent, and, therefore, the completion of all possible parts of the work at the factory is recommended.

VIII. Suspension of the execution and acceptance of the work in the workshop.—The building authorities have the right of constant or occasional skilled supervision of work in the workshops, and the necessary appliances and force for tests and examinations must be furnished to them, or obtained by them at the contractor's expense. All portions not according to the prescribed regulations, or otherwise unserviceable, are to be marked in such a manner that their subsequent employment in the structure may be recognised. The examination of the iron material and the control of the execution in the workshop does not prevent the rejection of the work delivered, during or after the erection of the structure, if defects show themselves.

IX. The mode of ascertaining the weight.—For the purpose of computation all parts of the structure should, if possible, be weighed, but when this is impracticable, a certain number of objects selected by the building committee should be officially weighed for the purpose of obtaining reliable indications regarding the total weight of the structure. The computation then takes place according to the agreed prices on the basis of the total weight as ascertained, if the latter does not exceed the original computed weight by more than 3 per cent. If the excess of weight is more than 3 per cent., the contractor is only paid for 3 per cent. extra. Any shortness in weight is deducted. Portions of a structure which are more than 5 per cent. above the estimated weight, or more than 2 per cent. under it, can be at once rejected.

X. The stonework of bridges.—The bed stones are delivered to the contractor in the correct position of altitude, and the middle line of the bridge construction is marked on the pillars in a distinct manner. The contractor is supposed to ascertain by his own measurements, before the erection begins, the exact dimensions, and to control the same according to the drawings, reporting any differences to the building authorities, and awaiting their decision; otherwise the contractor is liable for any ultimate difficulties. The contractor is specially bound to carry out the correct and exact placing in position of the main girders. The masons' and stone-dressers' work in connection with the final works is looked after by the building authorities, who likewise provide the necessary materials.

XI. The erection on the site.—The methods to be employed in the erection of the ironwork and of the scaffolding are generally left to the judgment of the contractor, but the building authorities have the right in letting out the contract to stipulate for a certain mode of erection. The machinery for hoisting and other appliances have to be supplied by the contractor at his own expense. As the erection of scaffolding, &c., is subject to local regulations, the building authorities are to give the contractor in the conditions for delivery all available information, and plans, &c., bearing on this point, as also upon the question of land and water transport for materials, &c. Plans of the scaffolding—scale 1 : 100—are to be submitted within a given time after the adjudication—by the building authorities to the local officials for examination and approval. Those parts of the masonry on which the bed-plates are to be placed should be put at the disposal of the contractor a given time before the date fixed for the completion of the ironwork. Should the masonry not be ready, the contractor must be apprised of the altered circumstances, but any compensation under this head must be a stipulation of the contract. The officials charged with the supervision of the erection are authorised to satisfy themselves in any way they wish as to the quality of binding materials not yet tested. A repetition of tests for strength already carried out in the workshops can only be ordered by the building authorities in special cases. The contractor is bound to follow the instructions of these officials within three days, but has the right of appeal to the building committee. In urgent cases the officials have the right to order the suspension of the work, but if it is found on appeal to the building authorities that such a course was not justified, the contractor is entitled to compensation for any injury he has sustained, and the period of suspension is added to the time originally fixed for the execution of the work.

XII. The testing and acceptance of the completed work: (a) *Super-elevation of girders.*—Truss and lattice girders, &c., are laid with a camber, which is computed upon the principle that after the work is finished and the load has produced its natural effect, there should remain a camber equalling half the bending which would have been produced by a similar moving load.

(b) *Tests for load.*—These vary according to the purposes of the structure. Railway bridges are tested by a train being placed on each of the lines. This train consists of three of the

heaviest goods engines available, the first with the chimney in front and the two others with the chimneys in opposite direction to each other, and loaded goods trucks of the heaviest description in use upon the railway in question. These trains are placed upon that portion of the bridge which corresponds with the greatest momentum, and the amount of deflection after six hours is measured in the centre of the main girders and at the main piers. The train is then removed and the amount of permanent deflection of the girders is ascertained. Finally the bridge is crossed at the maximum speed allowed upon the line, and the amount of transitory and permanent deflection is ascertained. For testing road bridges a testing weight is brought upon the roadway and the foot-paths, where it is left for twenty-four hours. A row of the heaviest loaded vehicles which have been provided for in the construction of the bridge is driven step by step over it, and is then allowed to rest half an hour upon it. In both cases the transitory and permanent deflection of the main girders is ascertained, as previously explained. The marching of men in time, as well as the rapid driving of vehicles over the bridge, are not excluded, but must be provided for in the conditions for the construction. The most unfavourable combination of the burdens of the separate openings is produced with continuous girders. A small permanent deflection after the removal of the first trial load cannot be attributed to any defect in the construction if no permanent deformation of the separate parts of the work can be proved. Further trials should, however, not produce any further deflection. The measured elastic deflection with fixed and moving loads must not in any case exceed the computation by 15 per cent. Any differences in temperature which may have intervened should be regarded in such tests. All defects which are rendered visible by the tests, and which can be traced to faulty execution or to the materials used, are to be remedied by the contractor within a period fixed by the building authorities. The tests for burden are carried out at the expense of the building authorities. The examination of the work with a view to its acceptance as a whole should take place within a given period of its completion. The contractor remains answerable for a certain period as to the normal condition and the good and proper execution of the work. It is suggested that a year is a suitable period.

CRUISER FOR THE SOUTH AUSTRALIAN GOVERNMENT.

THE South Australian colonies have now attained to such a degree of importance that their respective Governments, with the consent of the Colonial-office, are taking steps to provide for the defence of their own coasts. The commerce of the antipodean colonies has prompted the colonists not to rely entirely upon the mother country. Another incentive to the formation of defensive forces has arisen in the shape of a strong public feeling against France, owing to the attitude she maintains on the convict question. Prominent colonial politicians now repeatedly declare that the people of Australia are desirous of being able to protect their shores from whatever direction the foe may come. They do not hide the fact that the only enemy to their peace is France, and, in the formation of a colonial fleet, the feeling of self-assertion has been a leading factor. Only two or three months ago, two useful gunboats were delivered to the South Australian Government by the eminent Newcastle firm of Sir W. G. Armstrong, Mitchell, and Co. These were the *Albert* and *Victoria*, both vessels calculated to be of good service in coast and harbour defence. A few weeks ago, there were launched at the Low Walker shipyard of the same firm two gunboats for the Government of Queensland. A further step in the same direction has now been taken by the construction of the *Protector*, a heavily armed cruiser, for the South Australian Government. This war vessel recently underwent her speed and gun firing trials off the mouth of the Tyne. She is a vessel of the small cruiser type, having scarcely a thousand tons displacement. Her dimensions are as follows:—Length, 180ft.; breadth of beam, 30ft.; depth, 16ft.; mean draught of water, 12ft. 6in. She is schooner rigged, with topsail forward, and forward she has a hurricane deck. The vessel is subdivided into numerous water-tight compartments, while her magazine, engines, and rudder head are all well below water line. She is constructed of steel; and along the water line has in addition a streak of steel plating an inch thick. On deck there is a conning tower, in which is placed steam steering gear, and also telegraph tubes by which the captain can control the vessel entirely from this shelter. Her armaments constitute her the most formidable vessel of her size afloat. Forward, and projecting over the hurricane deck, she carries an 8in. 12-ton gun, while astern she has a 6in. gun, and on each broadside two more 6in. guns. The broadside guns are placed on spigons which afford room for a large amount of training. The 8in. gun in the bows has about 15 deg. of training, and the 6in. in the stern has almost all-round fire. In addition to these powerful guns, she carries five Gatlings of the Aecles improved feeder type. This little weapon is worked in a very simple manner by a single gunner. The elevation and direction of the gun is decided by means of a wooden lever which the gunner holds under his left arm, and the crank is turned by the right hand. In an instant the direction or elevation of the gun can be altered, while, by simply turning the crank at his will, the gunner can fire single shots or volleys over any range up to 2000 yards. In 2·6 seconds no less than 104 shots can be fired, and no less than 1200 shots have been fired in one minute by this handy Gatling. All the guns, including the Gatlings, have been manufactured by Messrs. Sir W. G. Armstrong, Mitchell, and Co., and it need hardly be said that they display admirable workmanship. Each of them is provided with a steel shield, 1½ in. thick, for the protection of the gunner. Indeed, the *Protector* is provided with all that is requisite for a war vessel of her type. She left the ordnance works at an early hour and proceeded down the river for Shields. During the trial, she was manned by a crew supplied by the builders; but her own crew, a fine body of men, sixty in number, were also present to render assistance. She steamed well until she had gained sufficient sea room for gun firing. The testing of her various weapons was then gone through, and gave the most complete satisfaction in every respect. With regard to the vessel's speed, over a four hours' run she attained a mean speed of 14·15 knots, and as she was built to run 14 knots, the result was highly satisfactory. The vessel is provided with twin screws, which are driven by horizontal direct-acting engines. The machinery worked smoothly throughout, and an indicated horse-power of about 1600 was obtained.

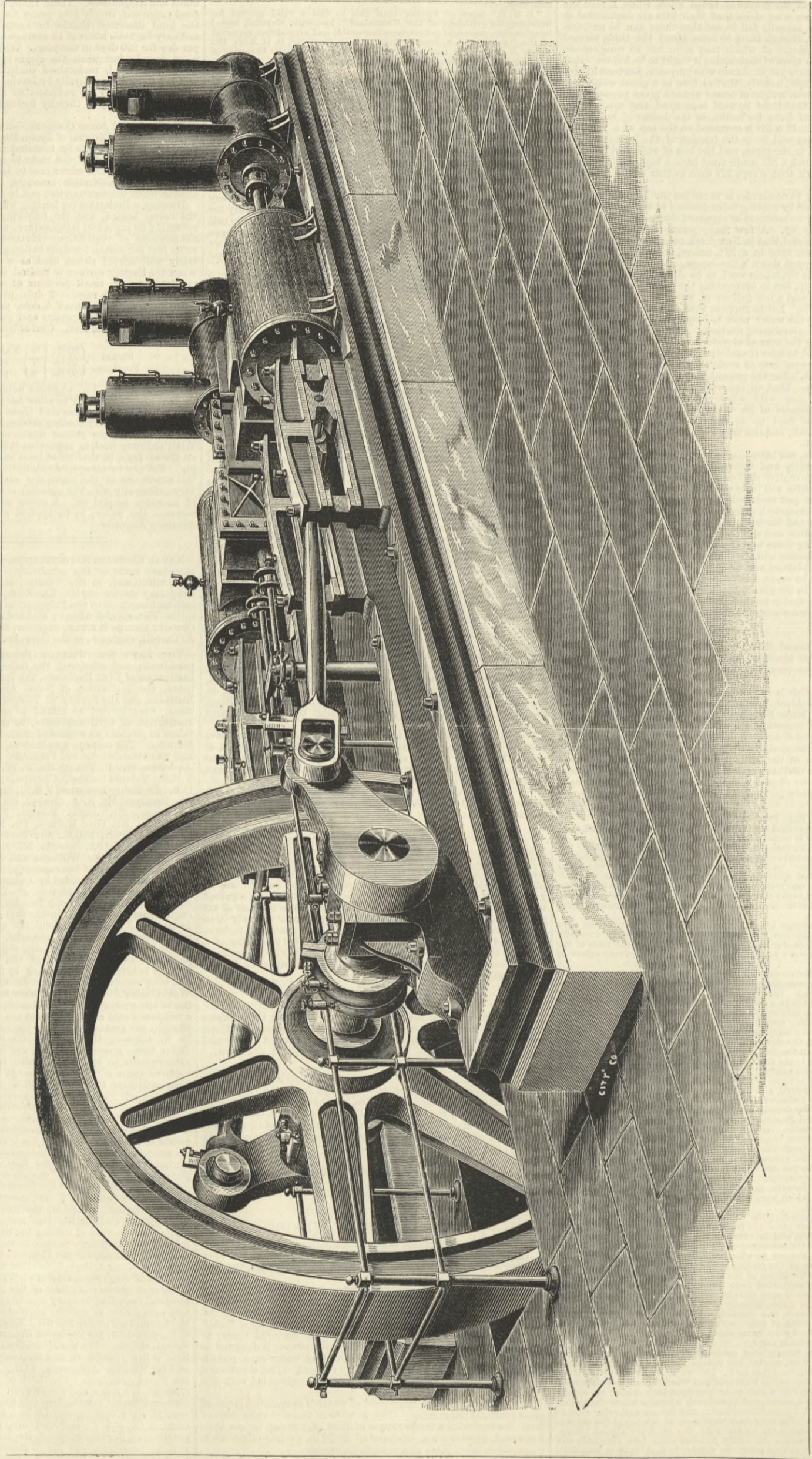
HAVING introduced the modern system of roller milling in his Woodside mill, Mr. J. F. Milner determined to have the best light, and has now adopted electric lighting. The mill is run day and night. The installation consists of one Crompton-Burgin compound self-regulating dynamo machine and about ninety Swan 20-candle lamps. It is also intended that there shall be an arc lamp on each side of the mill, for loading purposes; these will be of the Crompton-Crabbe double differential type of 2000-candle power. The machine is placed on the top floor, where it is driven by a small separate engine, which, although intended to drive the hoist, answers for driving the generator, as it can always be kept running if desired. The generator is driven by a countershaft, at a speed of 1400 revolutions per minute. The loss by fire in corn mills has increased from £42,000 in 1877 to £154,000 in 1883; but the adoption of the electric light will, it is believed, be a great step towards reducing this risk and the present high insurance rates. The work has been carried out under the superintendence of Mr. J. T. Baron, on behalf of Mr. Wilson Hartnell, Leeds.

* See THE ENGINEER, August 11th, 1883.

AIR COMPRESSING ENGINES.

MESSRS. BRADLEY, AND CO., ENGINEERS, WAKEFIELD.

(For description see page 71.)



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* * We cannot undertake to return drawings or manuscripts; we must therefore request correspondents to keep copies.

* * All letters intended for insertion in THE ENGINEER, or containing questions, must be accompanied by the name and address of the writer, not necessarily for publication, but as a proof of good faith. No notice whatever will be taken of anonymous communications.

J. T.—There is no special book on the compound steam engine. All modern works on the steam engine deal with the compound engine. Rankine "On the Steam Engine," and Riggs' treatise "On the Steam Engine," will supply what you want.

W. H. S.—Turn-down chimneys are quite well known. The curious thing about the whole matter is that no one thought any chimney-lifter was wanted for portable engines until the other day. The use of a long chimney is a remarkable example of the vitality of that which is not the fittest.

G. H.—(1) You can compress air up to a pressure of about a ton on the square inch with suitable stage pumps. Roughly speaking, about 150 cubic feet of air at atmospheric pressure would then be contained in a space of one cubic foot. (2) You can fill a balloon at any speed you please. It is only a question of the size of pipes.

ENQUIRER.—There can be no stress in one part of the tie-rod which has not an equivalent resistance on the part of that to which it is attached. The stress would not be the same on the inclined part of the tie as on the central horizontal part. The digest on this subject given in Moleworth's "Pocket-book of Engineering Formulae" will afford you the means of answering your question numerically.

A. O.—There has been too much vague writing about tidal power. If you will work out and send us an estimate of the cost of plant, &c., to give out 300-horse power of useful effect for ten hours per day, we will find a place for it in our columns. Our own conviction is that the interest on the capital spent would far exceed the cost of fuel for an engine of the same power, to say nothing of repairs and maintenance, and the effect of gales.

CHIMNEY-LIFTERS.

(To the Editor of The Engineer.)

SIR,—In your report of the implements at the Royal Show, you state that the chimney-lifter exhibited by Barford and Perkins, and awarded a silver medal, is their invention and patented by them. I now beg to inform you that it is my invention and my patent. Messrs. Barford and Perkins are the licencees and manufacturers. JOHN T. SMITH.
 Peakirk, Market Deeping, July 22nd.

DISPOSAL OF TOWN'S REFUSE.

(To the Editor of The Engineer.)

SIR,—Would you kindly allow me to inquire, through the medium of your columns, as to the best and most economical means of disposing of about 100 tons per week of town's refuse? Farmers in the neighbourhood do not care to take it, and any process described must be capable of being worked without skilled labour, and also must not cause any offensive smells. Has retorting the refuse been tried; if so where, and with what results? ALPHA.
 July 24th.

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 Letters relating to Advertisements and the Publishing Department of the paper are to be addressed to the Publisher, Mr. George Leopold Riche; all other letters to be addressed to the Editor of THE ENGINEER, 163, Strand.

DEATHS.

On the 16th July, killed in the accident on the Manchester and Sheffield Railway, MASSEY BROMLEY, M.A. Oxon, C.E., of No. 5, Westminster-chambers, Victoria-street, London, eldest son of the Rev. T. Bromley, of St. Mary's, Leamington, aged 37 years.

THE ENGINEER.

JULY 25, 1884.

THE PENISTONE RAILWAY ACCIDENT.

A DISASTROUS accident occurred near Penistone, on the Manchester, Sheffield, and Lincolnshire Railway, on Wednesday week. The exact site of the calamity is close to Bullhouse Colliery. The train, consisting of nine coaches and a horse-box, left Manchester for London at 12.30, and was due at King's-cross at 5.20. The range of hills separating Manchester from Sheffield was safely surmounted, the Woodhead Tunnel was traversed, and the

train, then on a falling gradient, was travelling at a speed variously estimated at 37½ miles and 60 miles an hour, when the crank axle of the four-coupled bogie engine broke. The engine and tender and the horse-box remained on the road, but the coupling between the horse-box and the next vehicle broke. The train then left the track. Some of the coaches ran down the embankment, while others fell over a bridge into the road beneath. Nineteen passengers were killed on the spot, or died within an hour or two, and others have since succumbed to their injuries. We add with special regret that Mr. Massey Bromley was among those slain. He was the last man extricated from the wreck. The coach in which he had been travelling had fallen into the highway. He appeared to have been killed without pain by a blow on the head. None of his limbs were broken; nor did he bear any marks save a bruise on the side of his face and on the temple. Thus died at the age of thirty-seven a talented member of our profession. He entered the works of the Great Eastern Railway Company at Stratford about the year 1869 as a pupil of Mr. Johnson; and passed through the shops, the running sheds, and the drawing-office. In 1872 and 1873 he was employed by the company in inspecting engines built by the Avon-side Engine Company. In 1873 he was appointed foreman of running shed repairs. He was works manager under Mr. W. Adams at Stratford from 1874 to 1878, and locomotive superintendent of the line from 1878 to 1881, when he resigned. While locomotive superintendent he designed and built many engines, in which he endeavoured, with some success, to combine the best features of American and English practice. He was interred at Leamington, his native town, on Tuesday. Mr. Bromley had been for some time in partnership, as consulting engineer, with Mr. Wilson, in Victoria-street.

In another page will be found a plan of the locality where the accident occurred. The line here is curved to a radius of half a mile, and, as we have said, the train was running down an incline of 1 in 124. The distance from Manchester to London by this route is 203 miles. The time allowed for running it is but 4 hours 50 min., giving an average velocity, if we deduct twenty minutes in all for stops, of 45 miles an hour. But the ascent from Manchester to Woodhead is made at much less speed than this, and the pace from Woodhead Tunnel to Sheffield is of necessity high. There is therefore every reason to believe that the train was running at something like sixty miles an hour when the crank axle gave way. The speed was not a cause of the accident, but the coaches ran further after they left the line than they would have done had the speed been less. The greater the speed the greater the necessity that a train should be fitted with a really good brake. As a coroner's inquest and a Board of Trade inquiry are both in progress, we are bound to reserve all expression of opinion concerning the cause of the accident; but we are not precluded from commenting on facts perfectly patent to every engineer, or from pointing out the direction which, in our opinion, the inquiry should take. The engine, tender, and horse-box kept on the road, and ran a long distance after the coupling parted, as will be seen from the plan on page 64. We give there an enlarged view of one of the rails, showing certain marks on it. Why did the train run off the track? The answer seems to be that it was all torn up behind the tender. The injured engine as it advanced met with a good sound road, which it and the tender destroyed as they traversed it, leaving nothing in the shape of rails for the carriages to run on. At Bullhouse is a siding to the colliery. The tender or engine got on the check rail of this siding, tipped it up at one end, and the other was then forced into the tender tank. Which broke first, the coupling rod or the crank axle? It is known that when crank axles break the coupling rods usually give way, for obvious reasons; but it is not quite clear that this was the order of events in this case. As regards the crank axle, we think it best to quote Mr. Sacré's own words. Mr. Sacré is locomotive superintendent of the Manchester, Sheffield, and Lincolnshire Railway, and no one is more qualified to speak with authority on the subject. He said:—"The engine referred to was built under my instructions, and I have seen it since. On Wednesday last I saw it standing on the line after the accident. I arrived shortly before five o'clock, and it had been left there till I came. I at once inspected it, and found the right outside web of the crank axle broken. The outside crank arm of the driving wheel was wrenched off, retaining a piece of the side rod, and the other end attached to the trailing crank was missing. I gave instructions for the removal of the engine after carefully packing up the driving wheels. After that I found the check rail through the bottom tank of the tender. I had that removed, and then examined the horse-box, which was next to the tender. I found it in perfect order. I ordered the engine to Sheffield with the horse-box, where it has since remained. On my arrival at the scene of the accident I examined the road, and found six distinct marks on the north side rail running west of the signal-box. The marks were 18ft. apart, exactly the circumference of the tread of the wheel. The road was in perfect order at that point and up to it, but after that the marks became more intensified. Some chairs were broken. A check crossing was dragged out, and all the chairs that held the check rail broken. I then counted six rails, each 30ft. long, with the road very little disturbed, after which the line was torn up altogether and the rails removed. I instructed Mr. Dallas to take careful measurements of all marks and distances, together with a sketch of the wreck, and he did so. I remained until the road on both sides had been made good again. The down line had not been damaged. I examined the crank side carefully, and found it distinctly separated." The marks on the rail mentioned by Mr. Sacré will be found on our plan, but we understand they are not 18ft. apart, but the distances given in our plan. Mr. Sacré then gave evidence concerning the regular examination of the crank, a process too familiar no doubt to most of our readers to demand explanation here. The train was fitted with Smith's simple or non-automatic brake, and it behaved precisely as [was to be expected. The moment the driver found there was

something wrong, he applied it. The instant afterwards it came off again, the vacuum being destroyed very probably by an injury to the pipes on the tender. We have here a potent and valuable illustration of the difference between the automatic and non-automatic system. Had this train been fitted with the Westinghouse brake, for example, the wheels would have been held fast, and the chances are ten thousand to one that none of the coaches would have run down the embankment, and that not a life would have been lost. It has been proved over and over again that even when a train is off the rails and running over the sleepers, the locking of the wheels is of simply incalculable value. The vacuum brake in this case probably did more harm than good. It may, indeed, have caused the breakage of the coupling between the horse-box and the train, which would have caused no mischief, but the reverse, had the brake been automatic. It remains to be seen whether the important lesson thus taught will or will not be taken to heart by railway companies. For ourselves, we regard the Penistone accident as the death-blow of the non-automatic system.

ALTERATIONS IN AMERICAN PATENT LAW.

A SERIOUS attempt has been made to induce the United States Legislature to follow the example set them by our own Government, and alter the patent law of its country. The proposed imitation goes no farther, however, than is defined by the single word alteration. In all else the action is the reverse of our own. With all its defects, still as a whole our new Patent Act is perhaps an improvement upon that which it replaces; and if there are shortcomings in some of its provisions, they but serve to prove that with whatever care an Act may be framed, it resembles after all a new machine, and defects become apparent when either is put in operation which the keenest foresight could scarcely have anticipated, but which ought to be amended when discovered.

Before the English Patent Act of 1883 was enacted, the disparity between the protection afforded to inventors in this country and in the States was a fruitful source of reproach to us. It seems, however, that this state of things is in course of reversal; quick following on our concessions to inventors, comes news of restrictions being proposed and likely to be imposed upon them in America. Coming too as they are at a time when the United States is entering on the fevered period of the presidential nomination, it will be interesting to watch the struggle between the brain power of inventors and that of the numerically smaller class of moneyed men. It would be deplorable were money to carry the day, and the poor inventor find himself so bound by restrictions, and the process for the assertion of his rights so expensive, that a great reduction in the number of inventions brought out would be the immediate result. Should capital overcome brains, and the American patent laws be so altered as virtually to vest all the inventive power of the nation in the hands of the wealthier classes, a great evil will be wrought. Material progress there is already unduly hindered by the influence of a comparatively small number of millionaires, who rule the railroads, the telegraphs, the sale of land, the steamship and the Government systems with a rod of iron, guiding and directing charges, tariffs, and commercial operations to their own personal advantage, irrespective of the national progress. Up to the present one system had escaped these monarchs of gold; inventors enjoyed a favourable patent law, one whose operation, though partaking of the imperfection common to all human devices, yet still encouraged invention to such an extent that it is idle to deny that the nation enjoys the benefits of numerous contrivances which, if not of great individual magnitude, are extremely serviceable collectively in a new country, and help to develop its industrial resources. The smaller inventions protected under the old American patent laws were rapidly produced, tested, and developed there, and formed a lucrative branch of export, notably to ourselves. Novelties poured in upon us, and their retail forms a regular branch of British trade, especially in small matters of household appliances.

It is needless to say that agitation is being made in the States against the proposed changes in the patent laws, and our clever contemporary, the *Scientific American*, in commenting on this subject, refers to what it describes as "a most remarkable oration on the re-organisation of the Patent-office, by the Honourable Orville H. Platt, Senator, from Connecticut, and chairman of the Committee on Patents." "We," says our contemporary, "look upon this discourse as one of the most able, eloquent, and profound expositions ever pronounced concerning the nature of patents and the marvellous influence upon the country exercised by new inventions." We have carefully studied what we presume is a fair report of the essence of Mr. Platt's speech; and though we are of opinion that he would have made it of more value had he noticed some of those collateral influences which operate on the utility of inventions, still, as a speech having for its text a particular branch of the subject under notice, namely, the protection afforded an inventor by the law of the land, it was an able and fairly reasoned discourse. Mr. Platt began at the origin of the American patent system at the date of the first Patent Act passed in that country, 1836, and, quoting data from Government archives since then, he showed the gradual unfolding of the patent system, dwelling upon the deep interest taken by that generation in new inventions and industries. He told his audience that he thought the passage of the patent law of 1836 an epoch in the history of American development the most important, from the declaration of independence till the war of the rebellion. We quote the following passages from Mr. Platt's speech:—"We have had fifty years of progress, fifty years of inventions applied to the every-day wants of life, fifty years of patent encouragement, and fifty years of a development in wealth and resources little short of miraculous, and this progress has only been made possible by the inventions of its citizens." In another place Mr. Platt observes:—"No purely agricultural, pastoral people ever achieved any high

standing amongst the nations of the earth. It is only when the brain evolves, and the cunning hand fashions labour-saving machines, that a nation begins to throb with new energy and life, and expands with a new growth. It is only when thought wrings from nature her untold secret resources that solid wealth and strength are accumulated by a people." Mr. Platt pointed out to his audience with much truth that almost every item in common daily use represents one or more inventions; that one invention is but the stepping-stone to another in social progress, and reminded it that eight-tenths of American manufacturing depended upon patented processes. He also strengthened his arguments by some useful as well as suggestive statistics. For example, according to his figures the United States make a million sewing machines yearly, and these do as much work as would formerly have required 12,000,000 women to execute by hand labour, and a single shoe manufactory in Massachusetts turns out as much work as would employ 30,000 Parisian bootmakers. A man cleaning cotton by hand could only do 4 lb. a day; a Whitney gin cleans 4000 lb. a day. Mr. Platt goes on to show how one invention originates another, and cites numerous figures and data of an interesting and instructive kind, showing the influence invention, when encouraged by legal protection, exercises on the well-being of a nation; and he accentuates his arguments by directing reflection to what the state of the American nation would become if forbidden to make further use of any article resulting from the brain of an inventor.

Let us now turn to the changes either already made or proposed to be made in the United States patent law, and to this part of our article we invite special attention from those of our readers contemplating taking out patents in that country. On the 21st of last January it was proposed in effect that the holder of patent rights for any invention could not sue anyone using his invention if such a one uses it only for his own behoof; nor could he prevent the continued use of such pirated article; and in any action which he may bring, the plaintiff is bound to give a bond to the clerk of the court, with approved surety, to pay all costs of attorney's fees that may be adjudged against him; and what is more singular, if he recover a less sum than 20 dols. damages from the defendant for using his invention for the purpose of sale, he cannot recover costs in the cause. Such a law would be greatly opposed to the interests of inventors of small things, as very frequently damages on them would not amount to so much as 20 dols. Although at first superficial sight permitting a person to use a patented article for his own private use might do no appreciable harm to an inventor, yet, owing to a want of exact definition of what constitutes private use, there is much room for extensive piracy. For example, suppose a man patents a valuable process in photography, according to one interpretation of the phrase, "own private use," it may mean that a man may, for his own amusement, take photographs for his own personal use. This could not do the inventor much damage; but, on the other hand, if he use the process in his business, selling the pictures made by it, it might be said he was not manufacturing and selling photographic apparatus including the thing patented, and go free, the patentee having no remedy.

By another Bill read the day after the one above noticed, by a vote of 114 against 6, it was enacted that the manufacturer and vendor of a pirated article were the only persons liable for damages, and the measure of the damages in case the article was made by the defendant for his own use and benefit, should be a licence fee, which, if not fixed under the patents sued upon, should be fixed in an action at law by a jury, which would in nine cases out of ten be a body altogether incompetent to value or estimate a reasonable licence fee. Our own new patent law renders the granting of licences compulsory, but under such conditions as very fairly protect the patentee. For section 22 provides that the Board of Trade may order the patentee to grant licences upon terms and conditions to be settled by them, only when it is proved to their satisfaction that "by reason of the default of the patentee to grant licences upon reasonable terms, in case the patent is not being worked in the United Kingdom, or that the reasonable requirements of the public cannot be supplied, or that any person is prevented from working or using to the best advantage any invention of which he is possessed." The operation of this clause depends on the sentence, "By reason of the default of the patentee to grant licences on reasonable terms."

A greater blow, however, directed against patents was a Bill introduced into Congress by the Hon. J. A. Anderson, having for its object the reduction of the duration of a patent from seventeen to five years—a change so great, that if it succeeded it would almost virtually destroy invention in the States altogether. It is idle for any one to propound the theory that inventing is an involuntary action of the mind, and, *pari passu*, that communication of the invention gratis to the world at large is also certain to ensue. Persons who argue thus can have little practical experience of the process of devising a contrivance to supply a given want. Such contrivance nearly always represents not one, but many ideas; even the simplest machine contains three or four parts, each of which has to fulfil a specific duty, and an inventor's first idea has nearly always to undergo a tedious process of dissection, alteration, and adaptation of parts involving much harassing thought, drawing, and model-making; and no one in this matter-of-fact age having brains enough to work out a promising invention will be so deficient in sense otherwise as to waste his mental powers and handicraft skill upon a scheme which, be it ever so good when complete, will possibly benefit the public and certainly yield him no return; and it may safely be asserted that if patent protection were done away with, further progress in industrial improvements and social comforts would be very slow indeed. If the United States Government try to create a free trade in invention, they will bring forward a serious obstacle to the material advancement of their nation.

BOILER EFFICIENCY.

A CORRESPONDENT, whose letter appeared in our last impression, referred to the difference between the quantity of heat utilised and that actually developed in the

combustion of fuel in the furnaces of steam boilers. He repeated the statement so often made about the steam engine wasting nine-tenths of this heat, and about two-tenths of the heat passing away up the chimney; statements which are not true as they stand, but which are so far credited by those who are unable to check them, or see what was meant by their authors, that they are likely to do harm to the extent that they prepare the way for boiler improving enthusiasts to claim much greater savings as due to real improvements, perhaps, or maybe nostrums of at least doubtful utility than is possible under the most favourable conditions. Our correspondent expresses almost unbounded faith in the possibilities which may result from the use of water tubes—at least, he intends looking to these as the means of escape from the reproaches which have been heaped upon the steam engine as a heat user.

When leading men speak of the steam engine wasting nine-tenths of the heat energy supplied to it, they should guard against misconception by admitting from the first that a steam engine cannot be said to waste that heat which it must give up in consequence, not of its own defects, but in consequence of inherent defects in steam considered as a gas. Again, it is necessary to be more exact when dealing with this question as far as it relates to the boiler as a heat engine. The examples wherewithal to point a diatribe on the performances of a well tried apparatus should be from its best work and not from a general average, which includes the very bad performance of the indifferently constructed examples of that apparatus. For instance, it is not true that at the very outset of our operations towards the use of heat in a steam engine we throw away twice as much heat as we succeed in utilising in the steam engine. There are what we call losses which are as inevitable as is the loss of energy due to the necessity for using, say, a lever or a wheelbarrow which has weight, because one without it does not exist, and a steam engine or a boiler works under these abstract disadvantages; they cannot be called practical disadvantages, because the practice cannot be realised under other conditions; nor theoretical disadvantages, because real theory takes into consideration all practical conditions.

We may see what a moderately good boiler does with a pound of coal. The heat of combustion of 1 lb. of pure carbon burned to carbonic acid is 14,544 units, and will require for its combustion 2·666 lb. of oxygen. As we are not dealing with calorimeter experiments, we will assume that the oxygen is obtained from atmospheric air. Of this 12·2 lb. will provide the oxygen required. We shall then have 12·2 + 1 = 13·2 lb. of gases heated by the 14,544 units, and shall therefore have as the highest possible temperature with air at 60 deg., and having a specific heat of 0·238, of $T = (460 + 60) + \frac{14,544}{13 \cdot 2 \times 0 \cdot 238} = 5150$ deg. Now,

if we assume that the heat of the escaping gases could be so far utilised as to fall to that of the feed-water, or say, 100 deg. or 560 absolute, we should then have as the greatest possible proportion of available heat, or heat which could under the most favourable and hitherto impracticable conditions be realised, only $\frac{5150 - 560}{5150} = \cdot 891$; that is to say, with an absolutely perfect boiler, burning pure carbon to carbonic acid with air at 60 deg. Fah., and only enough to provide the oxygen necessary for chemical combination, there must be a loss of 11 per cent. But this is not waste. Now to follow this up, to see how far a good steam boiler deserves the character for wastefulness which it is so common to ascribe to it, we must take more numerical values. We must make out the worst case for the boiler, and so must credit the fuel with all it possesses in the form of heat.

We have supposed the air to be at 60 deg. Fah., and must take the same temperature for the 1 lb. of carbon, or an absolute temperature of 520 deg. The specific heat of carbon being 0·25, it must be credited with $1 \times 25 \times 520 = 130$ units; the air must be credited with $12 \cdot 2 \times 0 \cdot 238 \times 520 = 1485$ units, and these quantities with the heat developed in combustion = 16,159 units, from which, however, must be deducted 32 units as the equivalent of the work done in displacing atmospheric air by products of combustion raised from 60 deg. to 100 deg., at which they are supposed to escape, or increased in volume from 149·8 cubic feet, to 161·3 cubic feet, which leaves us 16,127 units as the total quantity of heat available. This is sufficient to evaporate 16·69 lb. of water from and at 212 deg., but as the greatest possible quantity of the total heat realisable is 0·891, as above shown, the greatest possible evaporation from and at 212 deg. by 1 lb. of carbon, the heat required to evaporate 1 lb. of water at this temperature being 966 units, is $\frac{16,159 \times 0 \cdot 891 - 32}{966} = 14 \cdot 87$ lb.

Now what do we get, as compared with this, from a good boiler. Following Mr. W. Anderson's excellent lecture, delivered before the Institution of Civil Engineers last December, we may refer to the results obtained in the portable engine trials made under the Royal Agricultural Society, at Cardiff, in 1872, with a portable engine boiler, nominally of 8-horse power. To begin with, the coal used was not, of course, all carbon. It was a smokeless Welsh coal, containing 0·8497 lb. of carbon per pound; but it contained 0·0426 lb. of hydrogen, and as the heat developed in the combustion of 1 lb. of hydrogen is 4·265 times as much as by 1 lb. of carbon, we have to take this into our calculation; and inasmuch as the coal also contained 0·035 lb. of oxygen in combination with hydrogen, in the form of water, and will abstract its combining equivalent of hydrogen from the fuel, one-eighth of the weight of the hydrogen must be deducted. Thus, as the 14,544 units developed in the combustion of 1 lb. of carbon is equivalent to 15·06 lb. of water evaporated at 212 deg., we have, for 1 lb. of the above coal, the heat, expressed in pounds of water evaporated = $15 \cdot 06 \left\{ 0 \cdot 8497 + 4 \cdot 26 \left(0 \cdot 0426 - \frac{0 \cdot 035}{8} \right) \right\}$ = 15·24 lb. of water from and at 212 deg., equivalent to 14,727 units of heat. The conditions of combustion in the

furnace of a steam boiler being so different from those in a calorimeter, the quantity of air used vastly exceeds that used in the laboratory as represented by oxygen; and in the boiler we are now dealing with 50 per cent. more air was admitted than would be necessary to supply theoretically the oxygen required for perfect combustion. This makes 18 lb.—about 24 lb. is more commonly used—of air per lb. of coal, and consequently 19 lb. of gases would have to be heated by the 14,727 units available, and hence the maximum temperature obtainable above that of the atmosphere would be $\frac{14,727}{19 \times 0 \cdot 238} = 3257$ deg., or 3777 absolute.

The temperature of the smoke from this boiler was 849 deg. absolute, and hence the maximum duty of the obtainable heat would be $\frac{3777 \text{ deg.} - 849 \text{ deg.}}{3749 \text{ deg.}} = 0 \cdot 7752$.

The specific heat of coal is about the same as that of gases at constant pressure, or as above given, and hence the temperature of the air being 60 deg., the 18 lb. of air and 1 lb. coal took to the furnace, $19 \text{ lb.} \times 520 \times 0 \cdot 238 = 2350$ units, which, with the heat of combustion = 14,727 units, gives a total of 17,078 units, from which must be deducted 422 units for the heat expended in displacing atmosphere, or 151 cubic feet, which leaves us as the total available energy of the 1 lb. of coal 16,656 units. The greatest possible quantity of work to be obtained from such a boiler would, then, be $17,078 \times \left(\frac{3777 - 849}{3777} \right) - 422$ = 13·27 lb. of water evapo-

rated from and at 212 deg., or equal to 12,819 units. Now, the boiler actually evaporated 11·83 lb. of water per pound of coal, and hence the efficiency of this boiler was $\frac{11 \cdot 83}{13 \cdot 27} = 0 \cdot 892$, or less than 11 per cent. below the greatest possible efficiency under perfect conditions.

The portable engine or locomotive type of steam boiler is thus very far from being the inefficient thing which on incomplete bases of calculation it is often said to be, and there is not after all a great deal of room for that increase in efficiency to which it is sometimes asserted we ought in some way to attain. It may certainly be said that the reproaches referred to by our correspondent are not deserved by good boilers, nor are the results obtainable by their use so very miserable. It may be necessary to remark that we are referring to good and not to cheap and bad boilers.

THE METROPOLITAN WATER SUPPLY.

IN view of the alarmist assertions with reference to the river-derived water supplied to London, which have recently revived in consequence of the cholera epidemic abroad, it is very reassuring to find that those who are really capable of giving an opinion on the subject do not share any of these arrogantly-expressed fears. The report for the month ending June 30th, by Mr. W. Crookes, F.R.S., Dr. W. Odling, F.R.S., and Dr. Meymott Tidy, F.C.S., contains some remarks on the character of the water supplied during the half of this year. In these six months they have examined no less than 1071 samples of the water drawn from the mains of the seven companies taking their supplies from the Thames and the Lea, and they have been able to register these, without exception, as clear, bright, efficiently filtered, and as colourless judged by the eye, while tested as to colour by more exact means, the results were equally satisfactory, as were also the whole of these samples, tested by the permanganate process, for organic matter and for dissolved oxygen. During the six months 106 samples of the water from the Thames and 42 from the New River and East London Companies' mains, were submitted to complete analysis. The mean results from all these samples from the Thames, exceptionally low for the season of the year, gave for January, '118 part of organic carbon in 100,000 parts of water. The mean result for February was '140 part; for March, '165 part; for April, '139 part; for May, '104 part; and for June, '114 part of organic carbon in 100,000 parts of the water; while the highest result furnished by any single sample examined during the last two months was '129 part, equivalent to about a quarter of a grain of organic matter per gallon. Comment on these figures is unnecessary, the figures speak for themselves, though it may be as well to note that there is not the slightest evidence that this minutely small quantity of organic matter is in any way prejudicial to health, any more than would be the meal from one oat mixed in the water. The report to which we have referred concludes as follows:—"It was explained in the Report of the Royal Commission on Water Supply, that a minute proportion of organic matter, variable in amount with the season, is a normal constituent of river water; that there is no reason whatever to consider this proportion of natural organic matter as in any way prejudicial to health; and that there is absolutely no chemical evidence to indicate that the small proportion of organic matter present in the water supply of London is different, either in quantity or in kind, from the natural organic matter of the river, as met with, for instance, at Lechlade, 120 miles above the intake of the companies. Still, in view of the importance which is sometimes attached, though as we maintain unwarrantably, to the not inconsiderable variations in the always minute proportion of organic matter present in the London supply, it is satisfactory to note that at periods of summer heat and drought like the present, the natural agencies at work to keep down the proportion of organic matter existing in the water of the river are at their maximum of activity. It results in this way, that the water supply of London is at its best just at those seasons, like the present, when any failure in the quality of the supply might be considered likely to be of exceptionally serious import."

DEPTH OF SCOTTISH COAL MINES.

ONE of the most interesting features in the "Blue-book on Mines and Minerals," just issued, is a list of the mines under the Coal Mines Regulation Act in the district of Mr. Ralph Moore, one of the inspectors. It includes not only a bare list of the mines, as some of the returns do, but also interesting particulars relating to most of them. It will be of interest from this return to glance at the columns that relate to the depth of the mines, or of the shafts. These vary very greatly; for instance, Newhouse Colliery, near Motherwell, has a downcast shaft 70ft. deep only, the smaller upcast shaft being 66ft. Next in the list is Rosehall Colliery, near Coatbridge, the downcast of which is 810ft.; and confining the comparison to the downcast shaft, we find that one—that at the Dumbowie Colliery—is only 36ft. deep; whilst others go deeper, down to—in the case of the Bog-

head Colliery, near Bathgate—a depth of 2376ft. We have deeper examples in other districts; but there are, perhaps, not many districts where the variation is greater. The size of the shafts also varies—from 5ft. by 4ft. to 23ft. by 7ft.; and the number of the workmen employed also varies—one colliery having as few as eight persons employed below ground and two above; whilst another, and a more typical, has 253 persons below ground and thirty-nine above. We are aware that the comparison may be pushed too far, and that the question as to what a "colliery" is one that is not exactly defined in all instances. But the presentation of a mass of facts, such as that in the list to which reference has been made, is valuable, because it better enables the distinction to be drawn, and because it will be the more readily seen that the needs of one of these small mines are very different, both as to ventilation, inspection, and other particulars from those of the larger mines. But it may also allow the deduction to be drawn that there is some reason in this great variation, and in the numbers of the mines in a district for a greater provision for inspection than there is. In a degree that variation holds in other mining districts, and the need that exists is for more full provision for inspection and for elasticity in rules, so as to meet the variations in sizes, &c., of the mines.

THE NEWHAVEN AND DIEPPE STEAMSHIP NORMANDY.

A STATEMENT has been widely circulated that the London, Brighton, and South Coast Railway Company's steamer broke down last week shortly after leaving Newhaven. The facts have been altogether perverted and exaggerated. What really happened was this:—About an hour before starting time, the small donkey engine which works the centrifugal pump for the condenser, was tried, and after running a short time it stopped working. The second engineer informed Mr. Shaw, the chief engineer, and they both overhauled the engine to discover what was wrong, and found that the piston was broken into several pieces. They therefore consulted together, and unwisely agreed to make the voyage with the ordinary jet condenser, with which these boats are fitted for emergencies. They found, however, after getting out of the harbour, that the engines would only run at about twenty-four revolutions per minute, and therefore she would not be able to make a fast trip, even if she went across all right, and after going out about two miles, they decided to return to the harbour, and another vessel was got ready to take her place. Mr. Stroudley had a new piston for this engine made of wrought iron, and the boat took her next turn in the usual way. The engines of the Normandy are compound inclined drag-link engines, working with a pressure of 110lb.; the Normandy steams at about nineteen miles an hour, being one of the fastest ships in the Channel trade. Her sister, the Brittany, is perhaps a shade quicker, but not much.

LITERATURE.

Traité Pratique d'Analyses Chimiques et d'Essais Industriels. Par RAOUL JAGNEUX. 8vo. pp. 503. Paris, 1884.

THIS volume is, in the words of the author, not intended for the use of beginners, but is specially prepared for the use of those who may be actually engaged in the practice of metallurgical chemistry and assaying, and chiefly to present several new methods of analysis which have been devised and used partly by the author and partly by his father, M. Hautefeuille. The novelties of greatest interest are the use of metallic lead as a means of separating copper from its solutions, and the precipitation of copper, zinc, cobalt, nickel, and bismuth as oxalates, for which latter method the advantage is claimed that, as the precipitates are not viscous, and only volatile reagents are used, the washing of the precipitates requires much less time than is the case with the processes in general use. It is, of course, difficult from mere description to form a correct judgment upon new analytical methods which have, no doubt, approved themselves to the author in practice; but judging from the account given, they seem to be rather tedious, and there are no comparisons given with other methods to show their accuracy. Probably in most cases electrolytic separation, or volumetric determination by cyanide of potassium, which are fully noticed, will be preferred. Apart from these, however, there is much valuable matter in the book which gives schemes for the analysis of all the more important minerals and furnace products, with which the metallurgical chemist is likely to have to do. The author's strong point is evidently in the analysis of copper and nickel ores, the section relating to iron being somewhat deficient. For instance, none of the more expeditious methods of determining carbon and manganese in steel and iron are noticed. The reduction of sulphide of gold by calcination in a platinum crucible, as directed at p. 467, seems rather unsafe, as there might be difficulty in detaching the reduced gold from the platinum unless the heat was very carefully regulated. Probably most operators would use a porcelain crucible rather than risk damage to the platinum. The volume is, however, exceedingly suggestive, and the notices of metallurgical processes make it interesting, which, in connection with its low price, should make it acceptable to those who are interested in metallurgical chemistry.

Leitfaden zur Bergbaukunde. Von Dr. ALBERT SERLO. Fourth edition, revised and enlarged. 8vo., 2 vols., pp. 1509. Berlin: Julius Springer. 1884.

THE third edition of the useful and well-known text book on mining, published in 1878 by Dr. Serlo, now the head of the technical department for mines in the Prussian Ministry of Public Works, having been for some time out of print, a new edition, revised and enlarged, has been issued. The enlargement is very decided, the text having grown from 1146 to 1509 pages, and the illustrations from 687 in number to 822. The original form of the work, namely, the division into nine sections, has been preserved, and with it much of the former text, the new additions being made in the proper places, and is not, as is so often the case with new editions of popular works, bundled in as an irregular appendix at the end of each chapter. The chief additions have been made in the sections on deep boring, explosives, boring, drilling, and coal-cutting machines, hauling and winding, ventilation and pumping. The use of iron instead of timber in

securing shafts and levels, which has come into practical existence since the date of the former edition, is also well illustrated. The author very properly devotes but a short space to the consideration of mineral deposits, that being a special subject of sufficient importance to command a literature of its own; but he also omits the subject of handling and dressing minerals at the surface, an omission which some readers may be inclined to regret, although perhaps, strictly speaking, this may be regarded as belonging more to metallurgy than to mining proper. Within the limits of the work, *i.e.*, the civil and mechanical engineering of mines, it is exceedingly full of matter, and replete with references to the literature of the subject, which have been brought down to as late a date as the beginning of October, 1883. The work being of such an encyclopædic character, it is unfortunate that the author has not given an index or supplied marginal references to the text; the pages being large and the type small, there is sometimes a difficulty in picking up the beginning of the paragraph when making a casual reference. There is, however, a very detailed table of contents to each volume, which to some extent replaces the desired index.

Tin Mining, Dressing, and Melting. By ARTHUR G. CHARLETON. 8vo., pp. 82. London: Spon. 1884.

THIS volume, though little more in bulk than a pamphlet, is well supplied with titles. On the back it is called "Tin Mining;" on the cover this is expanded to the title given above, and on the title page it is said to describe "the chief methods of mining, dressing, and smelting it—tin—abroad." After this latter promise it is somewhat disappointing to find that the text is confined to a brief and rather unsystematic account of Zinnwald, and Altenberg, and Abertham, in Bohemia, illustrated with a number of rough free-hand sketches which are dispersed over fourteen plates without the slightest regard to numerical order. Thus, Figs. 28, 10, and 13 are next each other in descending order on Plate VII.; Figs. 9 and 21 on Plate VIII.; Figs. 19 and 25 on Plate IX., and so on, throughout; and as there is not the least indication given in the so-called explanation of the Plates of where the figures are to be found, reading the book is a very tedious work. A good account of an ancient and decaying industry as tin mining in the Erzgebirge, would doubtless be interesting to many persons in this country; and it is therefore to be regretted that the author has not strengthened his text by consulting the numerous published authorities on the subject, and more particularly Dr. Reyer's monograph on tin, published in 1881, in which the geological and historical characters of the districts are admirably delineated. The work has been very carelessly put together; thus the precipitate obtained when a solution of bismuth in hydrochloric acid is diluted with water is spoken of as chloride of bismuth instead of oxychloride, and in the first paragraph on page 1, we are told that out of 16,430 tons of tin, which represented as nearly as possible the average annual production of the world, England produces 7200 tons and Saxony 130 tons, while at p. 42 it is stated that, "Roughly speaking, Saxony produces annually about one-thirtieth of the amount of tin that is produced in Cornwall." Surely 130 x 30 is a very rough approximation to 7200. The author might also have told his readers that the estimated total given above refers to a period about a quarter of a century back, and that the production of the world is at the present time nearly three times as great.

A Treatise on Earthy and other Minerals and Mining. By D. C. DAVIES, F.G.S. 8vo., pp. 336. London: Crosby Lockwood and Co. 1884.

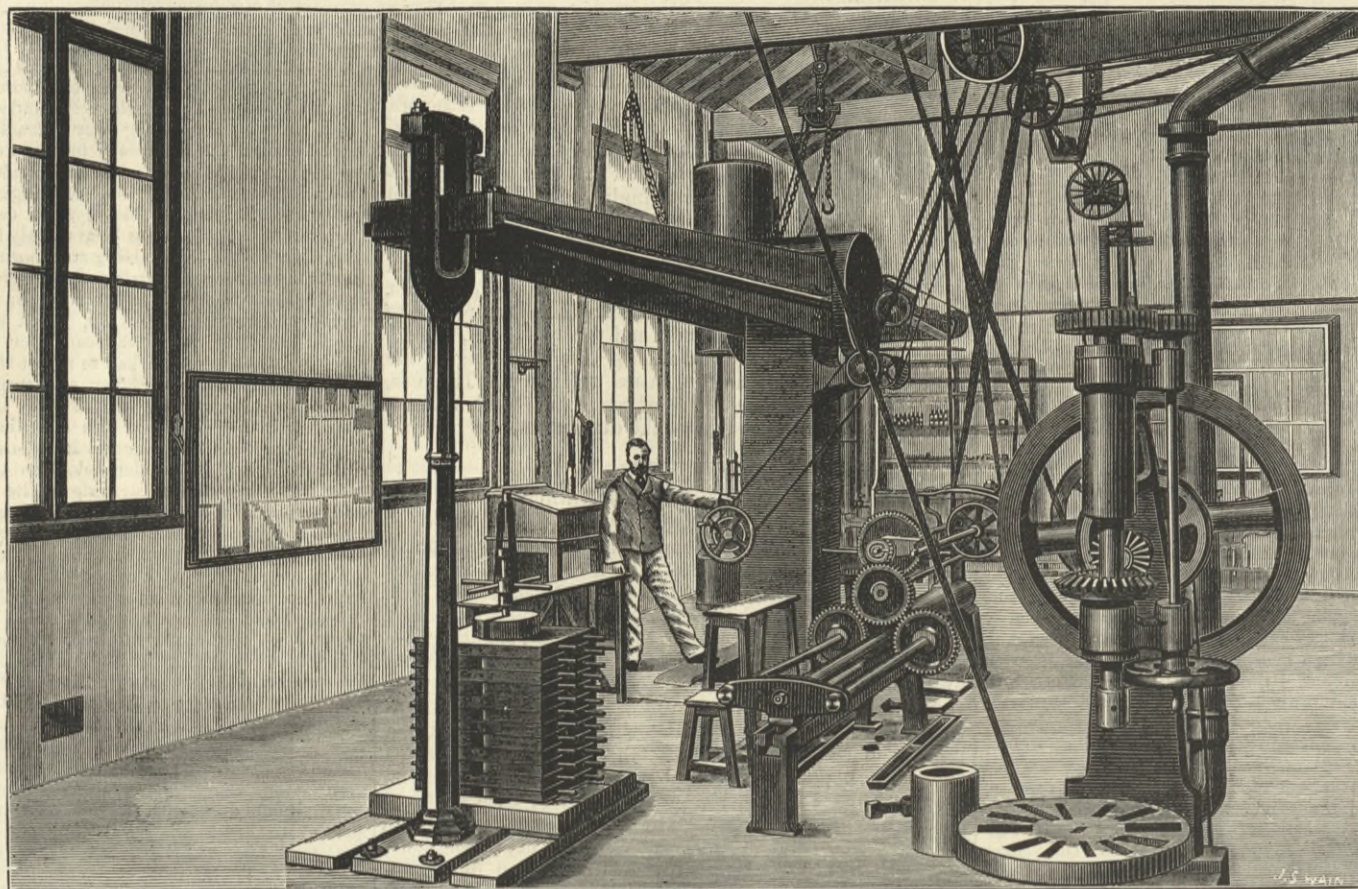
THIS work may be regarded as supplementary to that formerly published by the same author on "Metalliferous Minerals and Mining." It includes descriptions of the more important minerals, other than metallic ores, which are used in the arts. About one-fourth of the volume is devoted to the subject of phosphates, and this, which is by far the best part of the book, contains much interesting information, especially that concerning the little-known deposit of phosphorite lying on the top of the Bala limestone in the Berwyn Mountains in North Wales. This, which has been carefully studied by the author, is an irregular nodular bed, from 6in. to 18in. in thickness, extending for a considerable distance along the outcrop of the formation. At the Berwyn mine the average yield was at the rate of 2½ tons per fathom, of a phosphorite containing about 46 per cent. of phosphate of lime. The apatite deposits of Norway are also noticed in some detail, with figures, many of which are supplied from the author's own observation. There is also some account of the phosphates in the Lahn Valley, but here the author seems to have confused the schistose volcanic ashes—*Schalstein*—with the porphyry and basalt masses "usually crowned with a castle," which are of dissimilar ages. The phosphorite pits at Staffell are spoken of as yielding beautifully crystalline forms of apatite, but no mention is made of the special mineral of this locality, staffelite, a crystalline phosphorite containing carbonate of lime. Apart from the section on phosphates and some notices of Swedish mines, the volume is of small value. The author's design of giving a full and intelligent account of the minerals selected for description cannot be said to be realised, even approximately, as the descriptions are exceedingly careless. Thus, in the very beginning, the chemist's abstract term, silica, is credited with the physical properties of quartz, and immediately afterwards, in the description of rocks, quartz and the combined silica, of their constituent minerals, are considered as synonymous. In the same arbitrary fashion alumina and corundum are taken to be equivalent words, and then sapphire, ruby, spinel, topaz, emerald, beryl, and tourmaline are described as forms of corundum, while the analyses given in illustration are of the most quaintly inaccurate character. This part of the text might have been derived from some ancient mineralogical manuscript of, say, the middle of the last century, but it seems scarcely fair to put forth such matter as representing current knowledge on these subjects.

THE IRON TRADES EMPLOYERS ASSOCIATION.

THE annual general meeting of the members of the above Association was held yesterday—Thursday—at Halifax, and the general committee, in their report, which was presented and adopted, dealt with several important questions interesting to the trade generally. The marked events of the past year, the report pointed out, had been the increasing depression in the iron trades generally and the very sudden fall in the shipbuilding industry. This falling away of trade had, in many districts, been followed by reductions in the wages rates, which were becoming unusually high, and had reached a point which might probably have had much to do in bringing about a reaction that was particularly noticeable in those departments of the iron trades in which wages had been unduly forced up by exceptional conditions in the shipbuilding and marine engineering districts. In other engineering districts there were signs also that wages were tending backward to the rates in force before the recent period of activity had set in, which seemed, except in very special cases, to have disappeared for the present. Generally speaking, the committee had to report that no serious difficulties had arisen between workmen and employers in the districts where the Association had members; but there was one question which had occupied the attention of employers in the engineering trades all over the kingdom, and the dispute which had taken place in Sunderland upon the apprentice question, after a more protracted struggle in the engineering trade than had been known in any past time, had gained for employers and employed in all other industries a victory in which liberty of action on a most important point had been effectively vindicated and made secure. With regard to the important question of the rating of machinery by overseers of the poor, the committee reported that this was a matter which might at an early date become a question for legislative action. In some important districts much anxiety was felt in regard to the course pursued by overseers of the poor, in bringing tools, lathes, and light machinery generally within the schedule of property to be assessed for poor's rates, and in some places the subject was assuming a serious aspect. The theory upon which assessment committees and their officers were now proceeding in many places would throw an additional and very weighty burden upon industrial enterprise if not successfully resisted. The committee had, therefore, during the last few months given very close attention to the question in the interests of the members of the Association and of the engineering trade generally. In the Leeds and Manchester districts the leading firms had formed themselves into voluntary combinations for mutual assistance in resisting these attempts, and they had resolved to carry any such case to the final court of appeal before the House of Lords, should they find it necessary to do so. In the meantime, as nearly all our great national industries were thus threatened by an additional and very heavy burden which might be thrown upon the already over-weighted cost of production, conferences had been held, and occupiers of workshops and factories, railway companies and other great industrial corporations were likely to make common cause, by asking the Legislature to take such steps as would settle in clear terms, and make uniform in its action this vexed question of rating machinery, and would thus relieve employers from the harassing uncertainty to which they were exposed. The report next referred to the formation of local district branches on the Tyne and Wear in accordance with the request of the employers in the engineering trades of Newcastle-on-Tyne and of Sunderland. The successful working of the scheme of mutual insurance against claims made under the Employers' Liability Act was also dealt with, and as an illustration of how comparatively small are the risks in the engineering branches of trade, it is pointed out in the report that, notwithstanding the very low rates of insurance upon which the scheme had been originally based, it had been found possible to make a considerable reduction in the scale of charges, and they had still a revenue more than equal to the claims made upon the funds, and after discharging all demands for compensation and expenses of management, a balance upon the year's transactions remained in the hands of the Association.

THE IMPORTATION OF FROZEN MEAT.—The following account of what we believe to be a novel and important application of air refrigerating apparatus is taken from the *Melbourne Argus* of May 27th, and will, we think, prove of interest to many of our readers:—"Messrs. W. H. Smith and Sons, Limited, the well-known firm of steamship proprietors, have with commendable enterprise started a new and important line for the purpose of carrying live stock and refrigerated meat from the northern ports of Queensland, for sale in Sidney and Melbourne. Owing to the fact that North-Eastern Queensland is now all taken up by settlers, who, as soon as possible, get the runs stocked with sheep for the sake of the more profitable wool, the cattle-producing stations are being annually pushed further into the new country in the interior; and the increasing difficulty of travelling live stock overland through the now settled districts and the great expense attending it, render the present enterprise imperative, as is evidenced by the present high prices of meat in Sydney. The *s.s.* You Yangs, which left this port for Queensland on Saturday, has, since her arrival at Melbourne a week ago, undergone a complete transformation. Three tiers of pens of a very substantial character have been erected in the hold, the 'tween-decks and the main deck, ranged along each side of the ship, with a wide passage-way between each row, giving ample room for the attendants to feed and water the stock. What was formerly the saloon on the main deck has been converted into the refrigerating chamber, and has been fitted with one of Lightfoot's patent cold-air machines, made by Siebe, Gorman and Co., of London. These machines are the latest development in this class of machinery, and are very compact and strong. The valves, which are the principal source of trouble with cold-air machines, are of novel construction, especially simple and strong. They consist of cylindrical slides, actuated by excentrics on the main shaft, and work as noiselessly and easily as the slide valve of a steam engine. At the trial on Saturday the machine worked very satisfactorily and smoothly, making no more noise than an ordinary steam engine, and quickly reduced the temperature to 40 deg. below zero. The thorough ventilation of the ship has been carefully attended to, and entirely novel means have been adopted to insure this end and the health and comfort of the live stock carried. This will be especially valuable in the hot climate of Northern Queensland, and keeping the holds at an even cool temperature must greatly benefit the health and condition of the live stock carried by preventing the sweating and wasting fever which usually occurs in the hold of a cattle ship. The air shaft is connected to a large funnel or uptake, in which is fitted a powerful ventilating fan or exhauster, driven by a small steam engine attached to it, which draws off all the heated and vitiated air, and keeps the current of pure, cool air constantly circulating through the ship even in bad weather when the hatches are battened down. Messrs. Hughes, Pye, and Rigby, of South Melbourne, supplied and fitted the ventilating and refrigerating apparatus. The ship as fitted is capable of carrying over 200 head of live stock and 100 tons of frozen meat or other perishable cargo, such as butter, milk, and other perishable cargo."

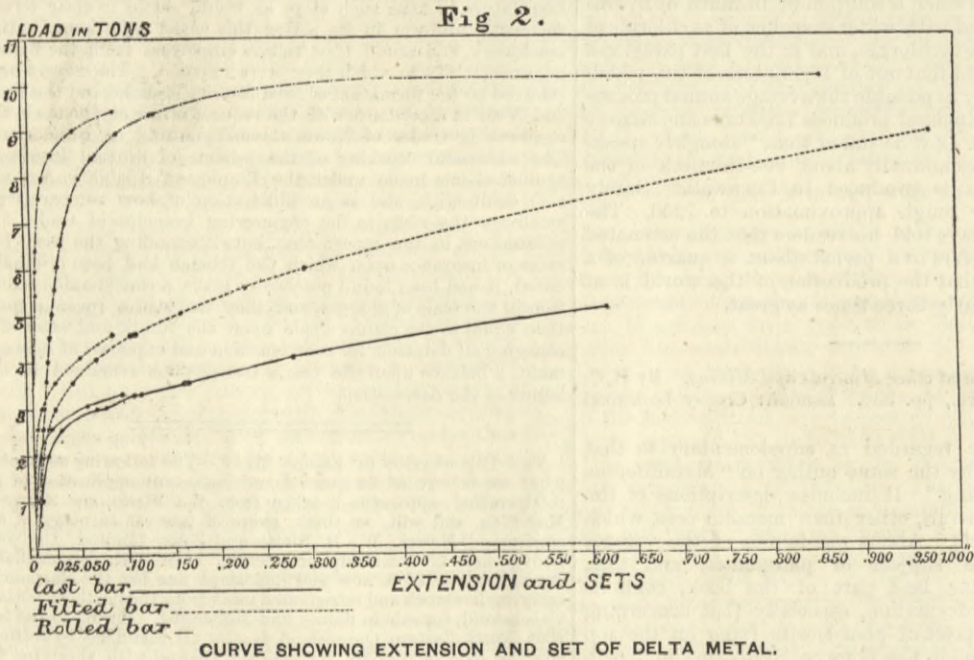
TESTING LABORATORY, COOPER'S HILL ENGINEERING COLLEGE.



Our best technical colleges are recognising the importance of impressing upon the minds of students the behaviour of iron and steel under increasing loads. A mere announcement that iron will stretch elastically, say 25 per cent. before rupture, makes but a faint impression upon the mind if unaided by positive experimental demonstration. Therefore, in order to enable students to realise how far and under what loads iron and steel or other metals can be bent, crushed, or extended, testing machines have been set up in some of our higher educational establishments. The 100-ton machine we are about

unit of stress is 100 tons per square inch, and for other sections varies inversely as the area submitted to test. It is in principle a lever of the first order, the length of the short arm being 4in. The ratio of leverage varies with the position of the running weight saddled on the lever, and attains a maximum of 50 to 1 when the weight has reached the outer end of the long lever arm. The system is in equilibrium with the running weight behind the fulcrum arm; consequently the load graduation extends to a point behind the fulcrum. Motion is communicated to the saddled weight by indirect transmission to shafting from a prime motor Clerk gas engine, indistinctly visible in the background of the figure, and by fast and loose pulleys and screw shaft to machine. The motion of the riding weight is started, stopped, or reversed by the fast and loose pulleys which can be worked by hand when a delicate movement is necessary. Motion is conveyed to the compressor plunger by a somewhat similar arrangement, clearly shown in the centre of the illustration. The necessary counterpressure is produced by the action of this horizontal plunger upon a ram in a vertical cylinder of cast steel, fitted to the frame and contained below floor in the line of specimen under test. The plunger acts upon the ram through an intermediate hydraulic seal or water piston which effects a steady and continuous increase of pressure. The maximum counterpressure attained is about 2 tons per square inch of ram area. The machine has two knife edges, each 22in. long; one used as a fulcrum, the other for the suspension of the shackles. The shackle-joints are somewhat novel, consisting of a rounded end fitting into a halved semispherical cup or socket, a type of joint which seemed to us very elastic and apt to relieve any oblique twists or local strains. The diameter of the pump plunger is about 3½in., that of the ram about 9in.

measurements are first approximately taken by drawing out the graduated scale, and then minute differences are determined by using the circular vernier in the following way:—The double scale A B, Fig. 3, is first set by touch to the distance between two polished steel pins fixed on the bar, and this distance is read off provisionally on scale A, divided into tenths, and subdivided by a vernier into hundredths of an inch. Practically, within the limits of elasticity, only the nearest one-tenth is required. Having read the extension on scale A within one-tenth of an inch, the operator next looks through the microscope at the magnified scale B, divided into tenths of an inch to agree with the first division on A. Each of these tenths is subdivided into five parts, or to one-fiftieth of an inch. Thus the field of view presented to the eye is similar to diagram, Fig. 4, where *a b* is a fixed cobweb coincident with the vernier zero of scale A. The lines *c c d d* represent crossed cobwebs displaced by turning the graduated head of the micrometer screw. When the crossed cobwebs coincide with *a b*, the graduated head is at zero. Two turns of the head move the cobwebs one small division of scale B, and as the circumference is divided into hundredths, it reads within one-tenth-thousandth of an inch. Up to the limit of elasticity the scale A requires to be read only once. Beyond this limit the stretch is so great that the readings to hundredths on scale A are sufficiently accurate. This adaptation of the micrometer as an end measure is certainly ingenious, and more likely, we should think, to give correct results than the plan of following the extension on the vertical scale of a cathetometer.



to describe is one of this class made by Buckton and Co., of Leeds, and erected during the course of last year in the laboratory of the Royal Indian Civil Engineering College, Cooper's Hill. Essentially its principle is the same as that of the single-lever 50-ton Wicksteed machine, whose place it takes, and which has been previously described in these columns, but

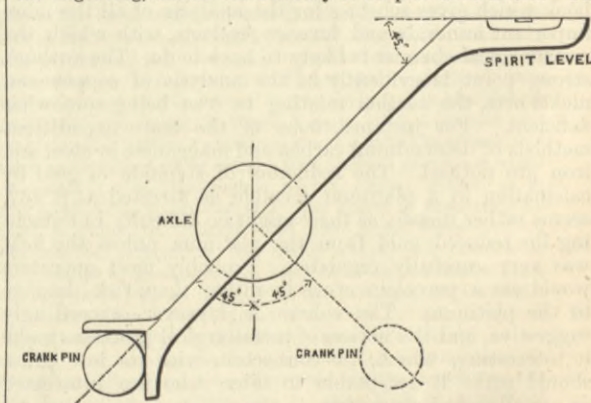
tained below floor in the line of specimen under test. The plunger acts upon the ram through an intermediate hydraulic seal or water piston which effects a steady and continuous increase of pressure. The maximum counterpressure attained is about 2 tons per square inch of ram area. The machine has two knife edges, each 22in. long; one used as a fulcrum, the other for the suspension of the shackles. The shackle-joints are somewhat novel, consisting of a rounded end fitting into a halved semispherical cup or socket, a type of joint which seemed to us very elastic and apt to relieve any oblique twists or local strains. The diameter of the pump plunger is about 3½in., that of the ram about 9in.

Diagram, Fig. 2, gives the plotted results of a series of actual experiments upon three small bars of Delta metal 0.62in. diameter and 8in. length, made and kindly furnished to us by Professor Unwin. There are two curves to each bar, one for permanent set, the other for total extension, the intercept between them showing the elastic extension. These curves appear exceptionally regular and continuous, bearing in this respect a close resemblance to a steam expansion curve. It would appear from the diagram that Professor Unwin prefers to enlarge the scale of extensions rather than the scale of loads, an expedient which, in our opinion, tends to bring out in relief the salient features of the test. Apart from a slight deviation in the curve of the cast bar, the diagram exhibits no break-down or line where extension continues unaccompanied by increase of load. Another pleasing characteristic of the curves is the approximate constancy of the elastic extension, the greatest variation in this respect being exhibited by the cast specimen.

Fig. 3 is an illustration of the micrometer with which Professor Unwin took the extensions plotted in Fig. 2. The

TESTING CRANK PINS.

In the Missouri Pacific shops, St. Louis, they employ, according to the *Railroad Gazette*, a very neat device for testing the angle of crank pins. It often happens that after an engine has been running some time the axle becomes twisted, and consequently the crank pins are no longer at 90 deg. apart, though originally correctly set in a quartering machine. The little tool, shown in the engraving, enables the accuracy of the pins to be tested. The



wheel, being placed with the crank downward, the right angle fork at the lower end of the gauge is put on the crank pin, and the inclined face is brought into a line with the centre of the axle. The instrument being clamped to the wheel, the latter is turned until the bubble in the spirit level stands central. It is obvious then that the line joining the centres of the crank pin and axle is inclined at an angle of 45 deg. with the vertical central line of the axle. The instrument is now unclamped and set on the other crank pin. If the bubble in the spirit level again stands central, it is evident that the line joining the centres of this crank pin and the axle is also at an angle of 45 deg. from the vertical; and that the sum of these angles being 90 deg., the crank pins are correctly at right angles to one another. If the bubble stands away from the axle, the crank pins are less than 90 deg. apart, and if the angle between them is too great the bubble will stand towards the axle.

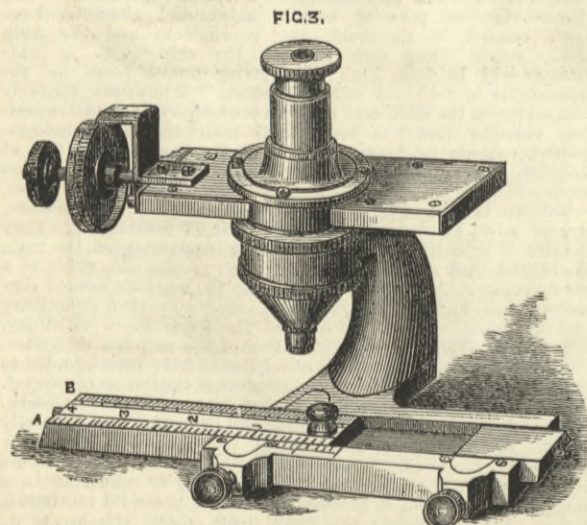


Fig. 3.—PROFESSOR UNWIN'S MICROMETER.

in accessory qualities it embodies many improvements, suggested by Professor Unwin, which greatly distinguish it from the previous machine of lighter build and lower testing power.

Fig. 1 is a general view of the new machine and the interior of the engineering laboratory. The machine has a maximum testing power of 100 tons. Hence, with inch bars the maximum

SOUTH KENSINGTON MUSEUM.—Visitors during the week ending July 19th, 1884:—On Monday, Tuesday, and Saturday, free, from 10 a.m. to 10 p.m., Museum, 10,591; mercantile marine, Indian section, and other collections, 3945. On Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday, admission 6d., from 10 a.m. to 6 p.m., Museum, 1745; mercantile marine, Indian section, and other collections, 160. Total, 16,441. Average of corresponding week in former years 18,071. Total from the opening of the Museum, 21,202,468.

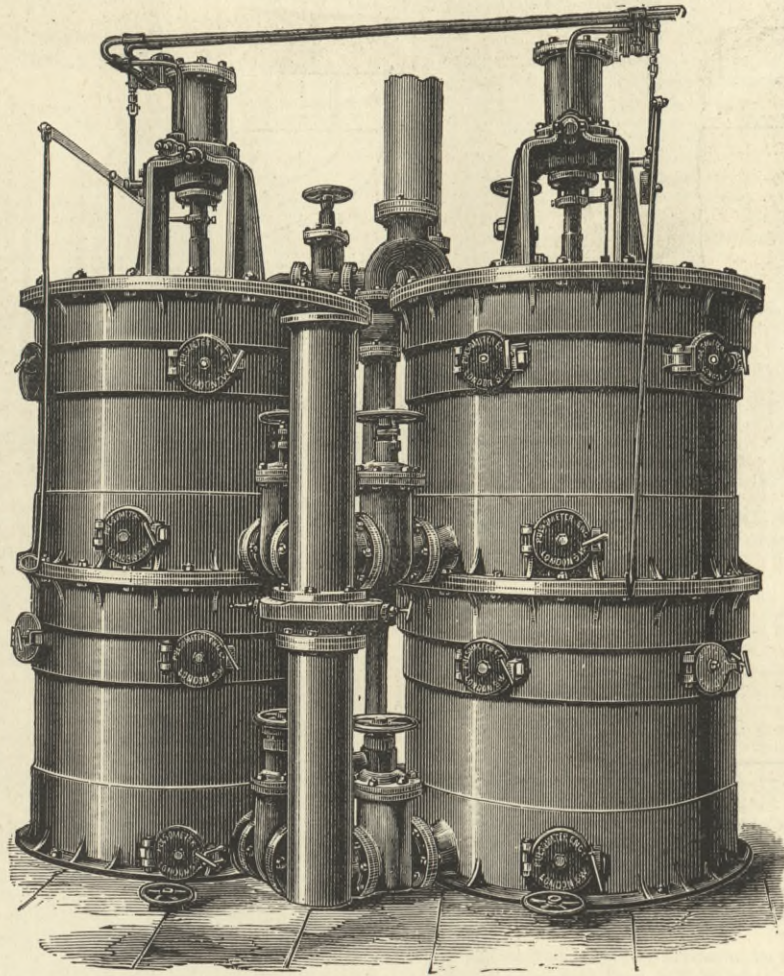
THE THAMES FILTER.

CONSTRUCTED BY THE PULSOMETER ENGINEERING COMPANY

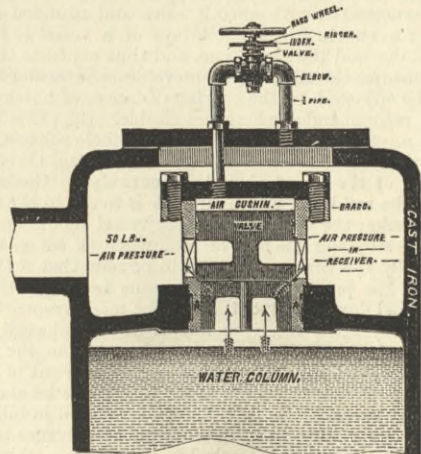
FOR many years the rapid filtration of large quantities of dirty or muddy water presented a problem which no one seemed able to solve. The rapid extension of the use of steam boilers, and of water for various industrial and other purposes, and for the transmission of power—as, for instance, by the London Hydraulic Power Company—has, however, forced engineers to take the matter up, with the result that it has now for some time been overcome. The Pulsometer Engineering Company has applied its "Thames" filters to numerous purposes, and its success has led to its use for filtering water from the tidal part of the Thames for boiler and manufacturing purposes by proprietors who thus save large sums by being able to dispense with water from the waterworks companies, and by proprietors of steamboats and tugs, who have found, it need hardly be said, great economy and saving of time result from the use of filtered water.

Some time since we gave a description of the "Thames" filter, which makes it unnecessary to describe the construction now; but our object here is to draw attention to the fine set of these filters which has been erected and in operation now for some time in the works of the London Hydraulic Power Company, as above referred to. The object of this company is to supply water at a pressure of about 700 lb. per square inch over a large area at each side of the river Thames, commencing at Blackfriars Bridge and extending to near the Tower. Already several miles of mains have been laid, many consumers have machinery connected to them; and the company has recently issued circulars announcing proposed extensions. The whole of the water pumped into these mains, and that used in the boilers, is taken from a sump in the river close to Blackfriars Bridge, and is cleansed in the two large filters shown in our illustration. Each of the four filters is designed to pass 2500 gallons per hour, and to deliver the water bright and clear, and sufficiently purified to permit of its use in boilers, baths, pumps, presses, and lifts, without any prejudicial action, and of its passage at slow speed through long pipes without depositing any sediment.

The construction of the filters is essentially the same as that we described in THE ENGINEER, 21st September, 1883. There are four filters at Blackfriars, two in each of the columns shown. The material employed to separate the solid matter from the water, is sponge strongly compressed between two perforated plates, one of which forms the upper surface of a piston. The water enters each filter near the bottom, and rising through the layer of sponge, escapes at the top, the tanks for the muddy and clean water having a difference of level of about 5ft. to provide the necessary pressure. At the end of a time varying from twelve to twenty-four hours, according to the state of the river, the filter is cleaned, all its accumulated mud being entirely washed out, and the sponge returned to its original state of purity. To effect this the inlet valve is closed, and a waste valve near to it is opened, thus allowing a certain quantity of the clean water to flow back in the opposite direction to that in which it had already passed through the filter. While this water is flowing, an action like that of washing a sponge by hand is obtained by alternately raising and lowering the piston, allowing the sponge to expand to about twice the bulk it occupies when at work, and then compressing it. The motive power for this is high-pressure water acting in the small hydraulic cylinder shown at the top of each pair of filters. This is provided with a simple distributing valve by which the motion is reversed at the end of each stroke, and the piston kept in motion for the ten to twenty minutes during which the cleaning is continued. The cylinders of the filters are lined with gun-metal, and the pistons lagged with wooden strips, so that they will not stick even if left unmoved for days. The sponge lasts for a long time, and the annual expense of maintenance of this material is merely nominal. The filtration is in this set of filters supplemented by filtration through charcoal, an addition which was introduced to guard against the results of a peculiar stain which now and then in certain conditions of the Thames is difficult to remove, although all solid particles are apparently taken out. The filter is arranged so that this secondary filtration need not be done, and when the Thames is not in the condition referred to, the water appears as bright before as after passing the charcoal. This is the only installation in which the charcoal is used. The filtering installation at the General Hydraulic Power Company's works has already been in operation several months with uniform success, and proves that the system is applicable, not only on a small, but also on a very large scale.



The inlet valves are a modification of the ordinary construction: the outlet valves have been specially designed by Mr. W. E. Garforth, mining engineer to the collieries, under whose superintendence the work, together with the construction of the new engine-house with arrangements for cooling the air, &c., has been carried out. It is shown by the annexed engraving of a valve and seat made of gun-metal, with an arrangement by which the compressed air acts as a cushion. The upper portion of the valve chamber is carried outside the main tower, and by means of a valve can be regulated at pleasure. It will be evident that the saving of wear and tear has been greatly reduced by the use of this valve. The indicator diagrams show that the power necessary to lift the valve is less than in the ordinary valve, besides other minor advantages which will be apparent to our readers. From the foregoing principle it will be seen that the compressors are on the principle which is known as the wet air



compressors. This kind of engine, although often used on the Continent, is seldom seen in England. The chief advantages claimed in these engines are the outlet valves, the arrangement for supplying the air cylinders with the necessary amount of water, and with the general arrangement, and specially the proportions of the towers and valves. It may be stated that the improvements have been designed from actual experience gained in working, and by numerous indications to ascertain the most suitable piston speeds, besides observations on the temperature required to reduce the heat of the air consequent on compression. It is now claimed that these engines are giving the maximum effect with a minimum consumption of fuel, and the cost of repairs, owing to the slow speed, is very considerably less than in the ordinary air compressors.

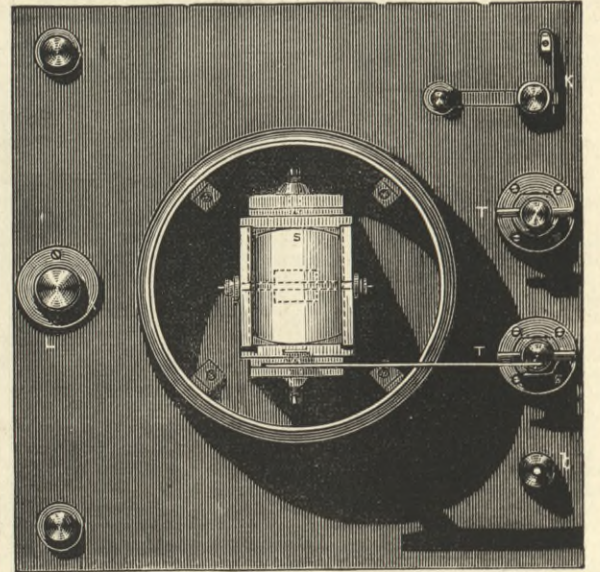
AIR COMPRESSING ENGINES.

THE pair of air compressing engines of which, in this week's number we give an engraving, were constructed by Messrs. R. Bradley and Co., engineers, Wakefield, for the purpose of supplying compressed air for the underground hauling, pumping engines, and coal-cutting machines, at the large and extensive collieries belonging to Messrs. Pope and Pearson, Normanton. The engines are horizontal, the cylinders being 24in. diameter, with a stroke of 6ft., fitted with cut-off valve and graduated indicator plate which can be altered whilst the engines are at work, and a heavy fly-wheel for the purpose of preserving a regular motion. The want that has always been felt in air compressing engines is the long stroke, by means of which the usual waste of air, which is one of the disadvantages of the short stroke engine, is avoided. It will be noticed from the engraving that the pistons of the air cylinders are connected with the steam cylinder piston rods by means of a coupling wrought iron slide block. The air cylinders are 25 1/4 in. internal diameter, with vertical cast iron towers attached, in which are placed the outlet and inlet valves.

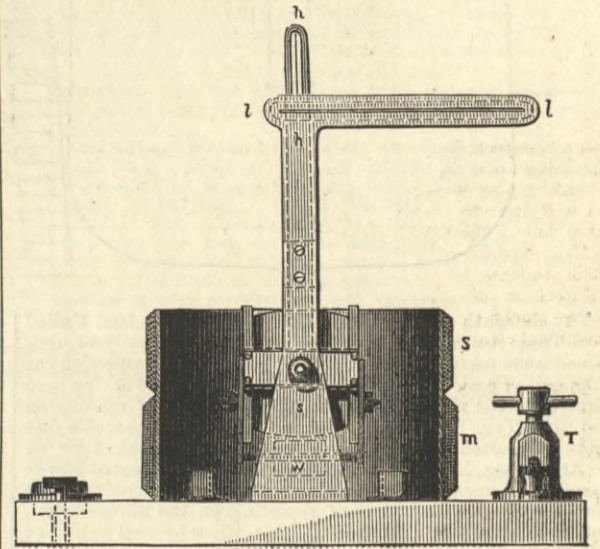
KAPP'S ELECTRIC ENERGY INDICATOR.

THE energy indicator, illustrated by the accompanying engravings, was exhibited at Professor Adams' *convegazione* at King's College on the 3rd inst. It consists of a coil of high resistance wire pivotted on horizontal centres, and capable of oscillating in a plane at right angles to the plane of the winding. This coil is inserted as a shunt between the main leads, and is therefore traversed by a current, the intensity of which is proportional to the electro-motive force between these leads. Another fixed coil *m* wound in a horizontal plane carries the main current and surrounds the shunt coil, as will be seen from our illustration. The tendency of the main current is to set the shunt coil so that its magnetic axis coincides with the axis of the main coil. This tendency is partly resisted by the weight *w*, which tries to keep the shunt coil in the position shown in the drawing. In consequence of the two forces acting at a right angle to each other, the coil takes an inclined position, and the geometrical tangent of the angle of inclination is a measure for the product of the shunt and main current, that is for the elec-

trical energy flowing through the instrument. The shunt coil is provided with an index arm having a slot and fine wire *h h* stretched across it. This wire, when the index arm is deflected, moves in front of a fixed slot *l l*, and thereon indicates directly the tangent of the deflection. Thus an evenly divided scale is obtained. In order to increase the range of the instrument, a



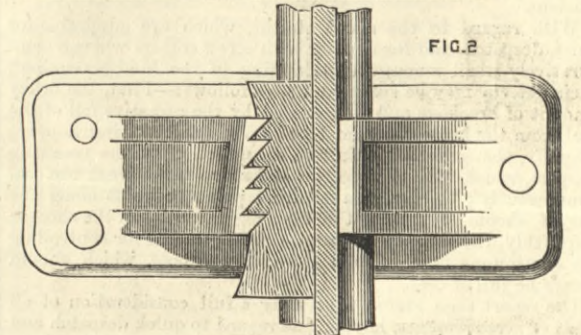
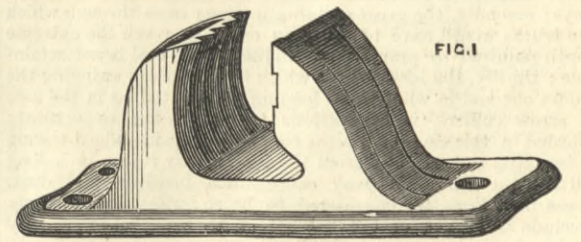
second shunt coil *S* of nine times the resistance of the coil *s* is added. These two coils are coupled in series, but by depressing a key *K* the large coil can be short circuited. To avoid any magnetic effect from the coil *S*, one half of it is coiled one way and the other half the opposite way. *T T* are the terminals of



the main wire, *t* the terminal for one of the ends of the shunt wire, the other end being permanently soldered to one of the main terminals. A spirit level *L* serves to set the instrument horizontal. The energy indicator is made by Messrs. Crompton and Co. Chelmsford.

THE EXPRESS RAILWAY CHAIR.

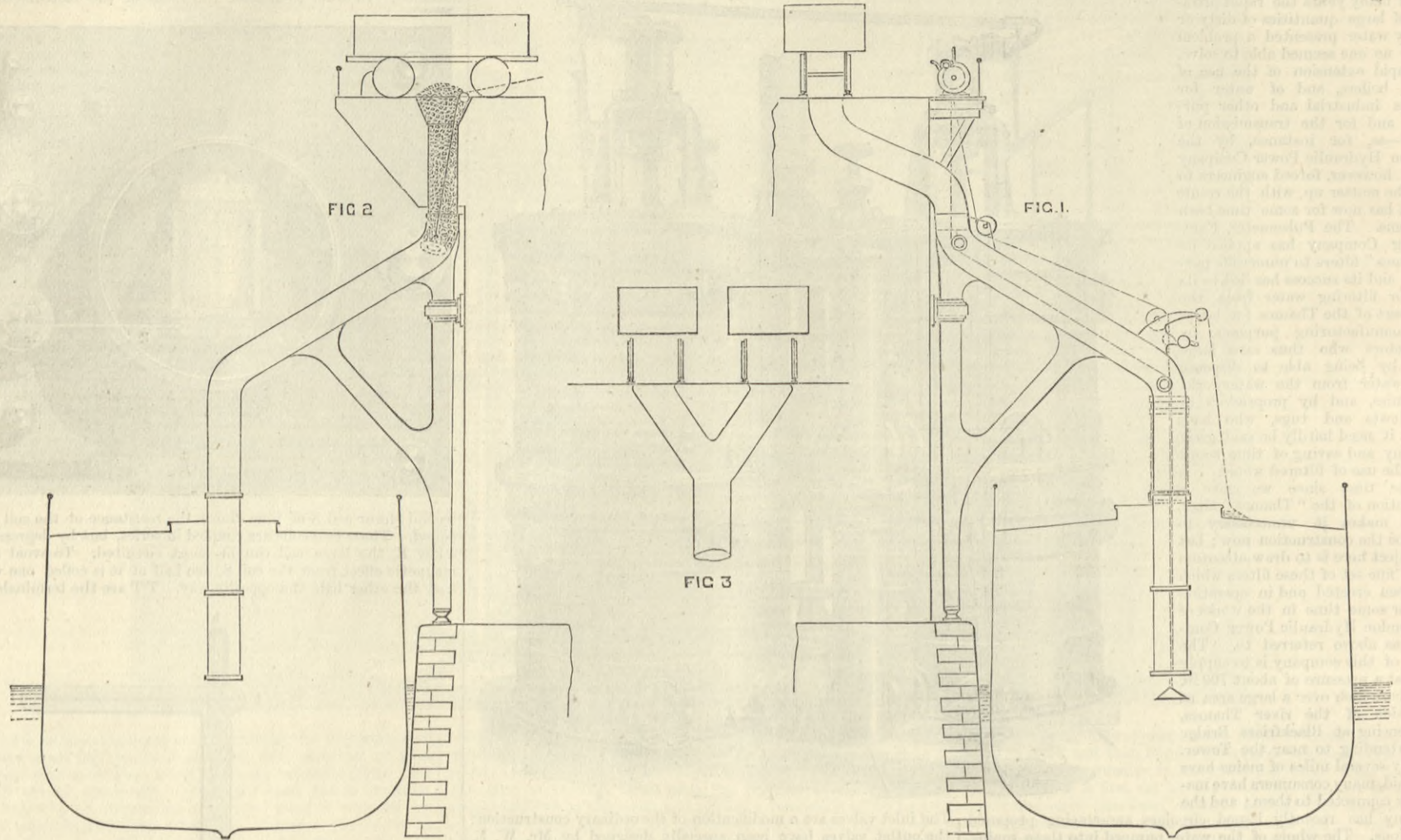
THE railway chair illustrated in the accompanying engraving is now being tried on the Great Northern Railway, where we understand it has given satisfaction. On one side of the chair the jaw is shaped to fit the bottom of the rail, and has a plain smooth face; on the other side the jaw tapers towards one end, making the opening between the two jaws of wedge shape. On the face of this latter jaw there are some serrated projections or teeth which run in a vertical direction. These projections or teeth are inclined at such an angle that instead of tearing the key when being driven they tend to facilitate its



passage, and when the key or wedge—which is correspondingly tapered—has been driven into the chair, it is found that these teeth have penetrated into the wood, or otherwise the wood has protruded into the notches; and as the faces of the teeth are at right angles to the web of the rail and drift way, they directly oppose any tendency of the key to slip back and fall out; whilst on the other hand, as the key is of taper shape, it cannot possibly pass through the chair in the opposite direction, therefore it remains permanently fixed in one position for a very considerable period. The chair is made by the Express Railway Chair Company, King-street, Leeds.

WESTMACOTT'S COAL SHIPPING MACHINERY.

MESSRS. SIR W. ARMSTRONG, MITCHELL & CO., NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE, ENGINEERS.



THE sixteenth annual report of the North of England United Coal Trade Association, issued at the close of last year, contained some useful information and suggestions respecting the shipment of coal. The attention of the committee having been directed to the very imperfect methods at present existing on the River Tyne for shipping coal in good and merchantable condition, consulted Mr. Percy Westmacott, of the firm of Sir W. G. Armstrong, Mitchell, and Co., Limited, and requested him to examine the various staiths and shipping apparatus on the three northern rivers with a view of reporting on the whole subject, and suggesting some improved mode whereby coal would be shipped in better condition. Mr. Westmacott's report is now published, and though we do not propose to give it *in extenso*, we think some extracts from it will interest many of our readers, more especially as at the present time the subject is receiving increased attention in regard to the economical use of coal, and the prevention of a great deal of the reckless waste which has so long existed in the neighbourhood of our collieries.

It appears that all the principal shipping staiths in the counties of Northumberland and Durham are upon the gravitation system, and Mr. Westmacott divides them into two classes, viz., balance staiths and shoot staiths. These are not described in detail, as it is assumed that the members of the Association are acquainted with their construction and working; but it is broadly stated that the former admit of the least breakage of coal, and that the latter are capable of shipping the greatest quantity in a given time. Theoretically, to lower a truck of coals bodily from off the high-level rails into the hold of a vessel until the truck comes to rest close to the bottom of the vessel or upon the body of cargo coal, gives the least amount of breakage possible; but practically the system cannot be carried out, because, in the first place, the size of trucks prevents them as a rule from being lowered through the hatchways; secondly, the great distance in many cases through which the trucks would have to move in order to reach the extreme depth required to prevent an undue fall of coal is not attainable; thirdly, the loss of time which takes place in swinging the trucks out and in when rapid loading is essential, as in the case of screw colliers, is too serious; fourthly, the opportunity afforded in this class of staiths for careless or ill-judged timing in breaking out the coal from the trucks may result in a long fall for the coal, and may cause much breakage and dust. These objections are considered to be so serious as to entirely preclude all chance of the balance staith being made properly efficient.

With regard to the shoot staiths, which are admirable for quick despatch, and for dealing with screw colliers where a comparatively small amount of trimming in the hold is required, their defects may be summed up as follows:—First, the heavy amount of breakage and dust caused by the excessive fall of the coal from the bottom of the truck upon the receiving hopper; secondly, the generally defective construction of the receiving hoppers, which with their angles and sharp turns break the coal unnecessarily; thirdly, the fall from point to point along the line of shoots; fourthly, the tapering inwards of the shoots; and fifthly, the absence of proper arrangements for controlling the continuous flow of coal down the shoots, which should always be full of coal.

The report then states that after a full consideration of all kinds of arrangements, having due regard to quick despatch and economical working, certain definite conclusions have been arrived at. These conclusions are embodied in the following series of suggestions:—(1) It is considered inexpedient to attempt to adopt any plan in this district that is not based on the gravitation system. (2) Looking at the large amount of capital expended upon the present staiths, their rails, and their approaches, it would be most desirable in making any alterations or modifications to interfere as little as possible with the present structures. (3) It is desirable, if possible, to construct such a plan for saving the breakage of coal as shall be applicable, or can be attached, to all kinds of existing staiths. (4) It is

observed that coal is not materially injured if it be allowed to gravitate in a continuous unbroken mass through a smooth shoot or spout tapering slightly outwards, and having no obstructions, sharp corners, or angles. (5) A cylindrical spout is considered to be the best form to adopt, and it should be capable of being extended from the receiving hopper on the rail level in an unbroken form right down to the bottom of the hold of a vessel. It should be so constructed that it can readily be shortened as the body of coal rises in the vessel, and as it would not be possible in all cases to make the spout of a straight form, the bends, where necessary, should be rounded to a good radius. (6) The spouts should be made to swing sideways, and may be carried by means of a jib or derrick, or some simple contrivance. (7) The receiving hopper should be made as shallow as practicable, with smooth sides and rounded corners. (8) In order to enable all the hatchways of a vessel to be filled with coal at one and the same time, and thus expedite the loading of steamships, the adoption of movable spouts, and hoppers which can be adjusted to the varying distances of hatchways in vessels, are recommended where practicable. (9) (This is considered the most important feature in the whole scheme.) The control of the flow of the coal into the hopper and through the whole length of the spout should be entirely in the hands of the man on the rail level, whose duty it is to see to the emptying of the trucks; the men on board the vessel should only have the power of stopping the flow of coal when it comes too fast upon them. By this arrangement it will be seen that if the man on the bank has proper and handy means for regulating the flow of the coal down the spout, he can be made responsible for keeping the coal in the receiving hopper always at such a level that all undue breakage from the fall of coal from the trucks may be avoided, and thus the present serious amount of breakage due to the careless emptying of the shoots can be abolished. (10) In order to save the first breakage of coal in filling the spout when commencing to load, a simple contrivance is introduced, consisting of a plug attached to a wire rope, which is let down by the attendant on the bank as the coal is run into the spout. As soon as the plug passes the bottom of the spout, it can be unhooked and the wire rope drawn up. (11) It is proposed to regulate the flow of coal through the spout by means of a flap or valve at the bottom of the spout, to which a wire rope will be attached, passing up to a winch or similar contrivance placed at a convenient position for the attendant on the high level. By means of a grip arrangement, acting only in one direction, the men in the vessel will be able to pull up the flap or valve and thus stop the flow of coal at any moment, but they will not be able to open it again. For the convenience of working and for the saving of hand labour and time, it is preferred to work all the motions about the spout by means of power, hydraulic by preference; for instance, the swinging of the jib, where a jib or derrick is required for carrying the spout, the raising and lowering of the telescope portion of the spout, and the regulating of the flap or valve at the bottom. It is important to be able to swing the end of the spout readily, because by so doing the attendant can move the spout from end to end of a long hatchway and assist the trimmers materially. The report is accompanied with outline sketches illustrating the application of a continuous spout to a side-tipping staith and to an end-tipping staith. These we reproduce above. Fig. 1 shows the method of carrying the flow of coal through a cylindrical spout from the rail level, and the means whereby the men on the deck of a vessel can stop the flow of coal at will. Fig. 2 illustrates the means of filling the spout on first charging, by means of a plug, as described in this report. Fig. 3 shows an arrangement for discharging from two lines of rails on an end-tipping staith. In both cases the spouts are shown attached to, and swung from, a crane. The whole arrangement, as will be seen, is exceedingly simple, and will doubtless be a great improvement upon the appliances at present in operation. It has been patented by Mr. Westmacott.

AMERICAN NOTES.

(From our own Correspondent.)

THE demand for iron and steel has been declining slowly during the past six months, in all of the principal markets of the United States. Prices have exhibited but little variation during that period, excepting in steel rails. The competition has enforced a partial restriction of production, and at the present time upwards of half the producing capacity is temporarily idle, for the purpose of stock taking and repairs. There is but little inquiry for large lots of iron, and no interest manifested in the market. The heavy railway requirements which have been the mainstay of the American iron trade for many years have almost disappeared, and in their place a retail trade has sprung up, made up of orders for from 100 to 500 tons, chiefly for repairing purposes, side tracking, and the like. Steel rails are to be had at 30 dols. for fall and winter delivery, but at this very low price there is scarcely any demand. During the first six months of the year 1200 miles of road were laid. The productive capacity is equal to the requirements of 10,000 miles. Hence it is that prices are low. Rumours prevail of a suspension amongst the Bessemer rail mills, and of some sort of a combination by which a restriction can be agreed upon. It is not likely that this will be accomplished. The best situated Bessemer companies say that those that can run ought not to be asked to remain idle, to assist those not well situated. The western mills are charging from 33 dols. to 35 dols., but they have the advantage of lower freight rates in north-western markets. Some twenty odd roads are being constructed, running from ten to 100 miles in length. The prospects for railway building are fair, notwithstanding the present depression. The Presidential campaign is on hand, and this divides the attention of the people. The question of protective tariffs is the all-absorbing one in politics. There will be a bitter struggle on the part of revenue reformers for lower duties.

The crop outlook, according to the latest authentic advices, is exceedingly flattering. The railroads are looking forward to an enormous tonnage; the returns of sixty of our leading lines show an increase in gross and net earnings as compared to last year, but these returns are not always reliable; yet the general condition of our railway system is good.

The decision of the Supreme Court of the United States on the constitutionality of the greenback is giving rise to the organization of the banking interests, for the purpose of taking such steps as will secure a judicial decision in conformity with the accepted opinions amongst financiers as to what constitutes money. This, with the coming tariff issue, will form abundant material to enable the politicians to drag the people this way and that.

No. 1 pig iron is selling at tidewater ports at 19.50 dols. to 20.50 dols.; No. 2 foundry, at 18 dols. to 19 dols.; gray forge, at from 16 dols. to 18 dols.; average, 17.50 dols.; Bessemer and spiegelisen are dull; merchant iron is selling at 1½c. to 2c. per lb.; ordinary boiler plate, 2½c. An order of 10,000 tons of structural iron has been placed this week with the New Jersey Iron and Steel Company.

Our brokers are not hopeful of any activity in the iron trade this year. There are more mills and furnaces than there is any possibility of keeping engaged. The anthracite coal production for the first six months this year was 12,000,000 tons. It is expected that the production for the next six months will be 18,000,000 tons. The region can produce 40,000,000 tons this year. A combination of the companies controlling the region keeps prices at from 4.50 dols. to 5.50 dols. per ton. All of our chief coal-producing regions are busy, but wages are low, and strikes are threatened.

The commercial failures for the past six months show an increase over last year, and for the second quarter of the year the amount of liabilities is double that of the corresponding period last year. The reduction of the public debt for the fiscal year just closed was 101,000,000 dols., and for the preceding year, 138,000,000 dols. The Treasury has 205,000,000 dols. in gold coin and bullion.

Western Pennsylvania continues to be greatly excited over the development of natural gas fuel, and at the present time there are between thirty and forty wells being bored in and around Pittsburgh, each one of which is expected to yield an enormous flow of gas. Engineering and metallurgical enterprise have not yet determined the extent of the utilities to be derived from this new fuel, but there is much to be said in its favour, and very little to be said against it.

The lumber interests are suffering from an over production of lumber; too many logging camps, too active competition, and too

