

ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING AT THE INVENTIONS EXHIBITION.

No. XIII.

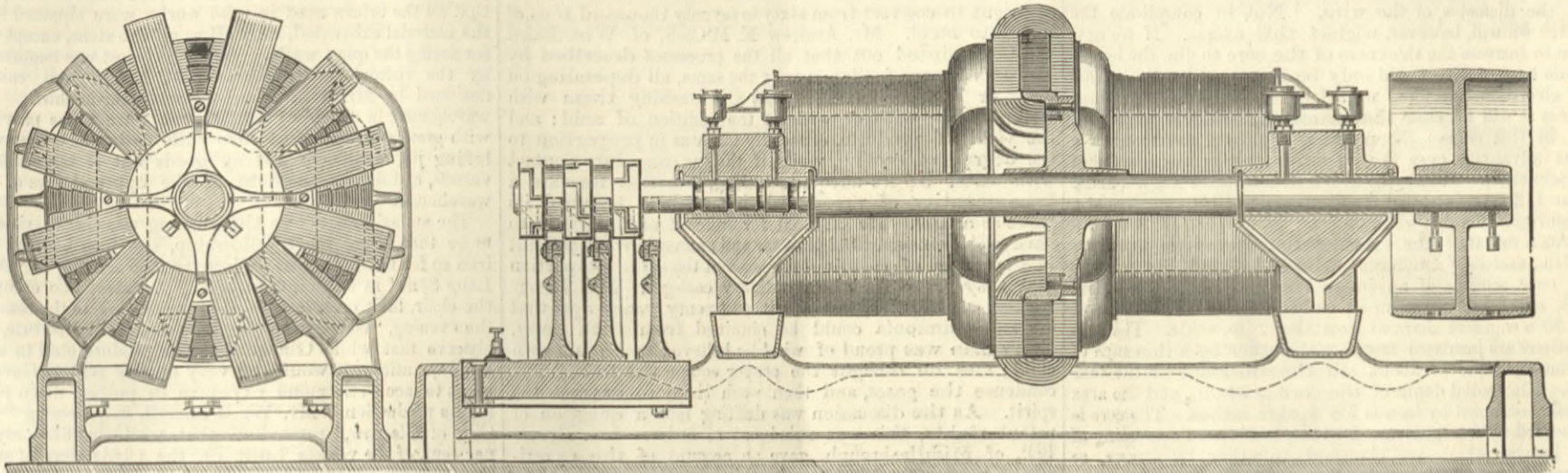
The exhibits of the Anglo-American Brush Electric Light Corporation are amongst the most interesting at South Kensington. The improvements noticeable in the dynamos manufactured by the Corporation are in character similar to those introduced within the last year or two by other manufacturers, but, of course, different in detail. A large number of machines both for arc and incandescent lighting is shown. The improvement in the former consists chiefly in the substitution of wrought iron for cast iron in the armature core, whilst the incandescent lighting dynamos are a distinct advance over the original Schuckert machines, which they resemble in general arrangement. Taking the arc machine first, we find that the old Brush field magnets have been retained without any alteration. The armature, however, has been entirely re-designed. By the courtesy of the Corporation we are able to illustrate the new 56-light machine in the annexed engravings, Figs. 1 and 2. The frame and field magnets are the same as used in the original 40-light dynamo, and the magnet cores, as well as the pole-pieces, are made of cast iron. The core of the armature consists almost wholly of soft wrought iron. There is a central cast iron ring with four lugs projecting inwards, to which are bolted the ends of the four driving arms, as clearly shown in Fig. 2. On to this ring is coiled insulated iron tape of the same width as it is intended to make the inner portion of the core; but H-pieces are inserted in those places where

the Thomson-Houston field is purposely made weak, as explained in our last article—and partly to the cutting out of idle coils. The total weight of copper on the armature is 270 lb. As regards the density of copper in the armature conductor, there is some slight difficulty in determining the way in which to calculate it. Since the whole of the current passes through those coils which at any given time happen to be in the position of best action, the density ought to be calculated on this basis. On the other hand, some of the coils are temporarily coupled parallel, and others are cut entirely out of the circuit. The density of current in these latter is *nil* for the time being, and that in the coils coupled parallel is half of the density in the series coils. If we take the mean between these three conditions, we find that the density in the Brush armature should be calculated in the same manner as in an ordinary Gramme armature, that is, on the assumption that half the total current circulates continuously through each coil. Reckoned on this basis, the density of current in the armature is only 930 ampères per square inch, the total current given by the machine being 10 ampères. At first sight it may be somewhat surprising that the density is fixed so low; but on closer inspection the reason will be obvious. With cylindrical armatures, and especially with those modern types where only one layer of wire is wound around the core, the cooling surface exposed is very large in comparison with the volume of copper that is heated by the current, and it is therefore quite safe to allow a fairly high rate of heating, or, in other words, a large current density. With the Brush armature the case is different. Since there are twenty-two layers of wire in each coil, the

Gramme armature in the shape of a ring of large diameter. Herr Schuckert, of Nürnberg, was probably the first who thought of improving the ordinary cylindrical armature by giving it the shape of a flat ring. This arrangement must have seemed advantageous for two reasons—in the first place, by increasing the diameter of the armature we obtain a higher speed of the wire at the same number of revolutions per minute; and in the second place, we expose nearly the whole length of armature conductor to the influence of the polar surfaces, instead of only half its length, as in the original Gramme armature. It would therefore seem as if the electro-motive force obtainable per yard of wire should in disc machines be double that obtainable in cylinder machines; and in the original Schuckert, Gülcher, Pilsen-Joel, and other early types of disc machines, it can be clearly seen that some such idea was uppermost in the designer's mind. There is a tendency to provide large polar surfaces so as to bring as much wire as possible under the influence of the poles, and the discs have therefore been made very deep radially and very narrow; whilst the pole-pieces were extended on either side of the magnet core, forming long segments curved to the same radius as the disc, and almost completely enclosing it. Modern practice, however, has shown that all this is wrong. The electro-motive force does not depend on the extent of the polar surfaces, but simply on the total number of magnetic lines of force which can be made to pass through the armature core. How the lines enter and leave the core is quite immaterial, and an extension of polar surface, if it does not increase the total number of lines, is perfectly use-

FIG. 1

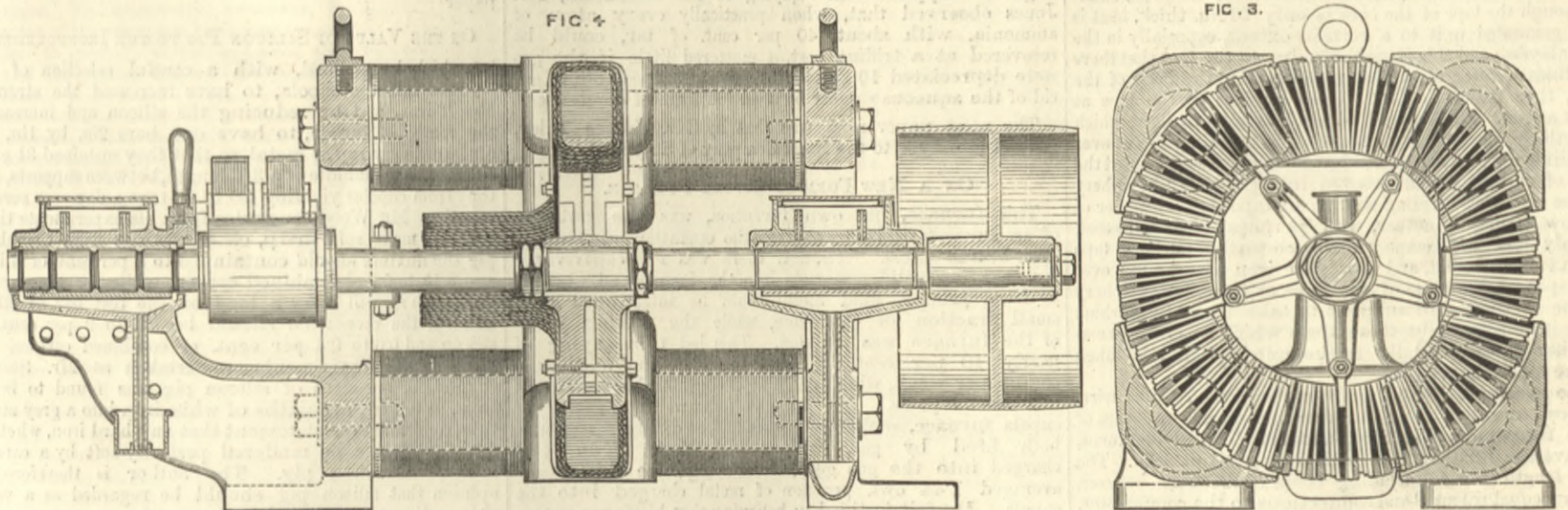
FIG. 2



NEW FIFTY-SIX ARC LIGHT DYNAMO.

FIG. 4

FIG. 3



THE VICTORIA DYNAMO.

the coils are to be wound, the centre bar of the H-piece being of the same width as the tape. In the machine under consideration there are twelve coils, and consequently twelve H-pieces to each convolution of iron tape. The internal width of all these pieces is constant, but the external width measured along the circumference varies with the distance from the centre, the pieces near the outer periphery being somewhat wider than those nearer the centre, as is indicated in our illustration by the saw-cut lines. The portions shaded dark represent those parts of the core which are not occupied by H-pieces, and the surface of which is consequently below the external surface of the coils. In these parts of the core layers of air and iron alternate, whilst within the coils the whole space is filled by the iron of the tape and H-pieces, and by a thin tape of insulation, which occupies about one-seventh of the total space. The connection between the coils, commutator, and field magnets is the same as in the old form of Brush machine, and, being generally known, needs no further description. We are, however, able to give the more important electrical data of this machine. The core of the armature is 4½ in. deep and 2½ in. wide within the coils, and 7½ in. over the projections without the coils. Each coil consists of twenty-two layers of .083 wire, having thirty turns to the layer. There are therefore 7920 turns of wire on the armature counted all round. The mean perimeter of each coil is 19.5 in., and the total length contained in these 7920 turns is about 4300 yards. At 650 revolutions a minute the external electro-motive force is 2700 volts, being at the rate of one volt for every 1.59 yards of conductor on the armature. As compared to the Thomson-Houston machine, this is a very good performance, and is probably due partly to the strong field—

mass of copper contained in it is very large in comparison with its exposed surface, and if we were to allow the generation of heat per cubic inch of copper to take place at the same rate as in cylinder armatures, the heat so generated could only be carried off by the cooling effect of the surrounding air after the coil had attained a temperature so high as to injure the insulation. The exposed surface of each coil is about 90 square inches, whilst through its resistance about 100 watts are transformed into heat. This is at the rate of .9 square inches for every watt, and on comparison with cylindrical armatures it will be found that this proportion is about the same in most modern machines. The cores of the field magnets are of oval section, 5 in. thick by 13 in. wide, having an area of 60 square inches, and the pole pieces of segmental form are part of the same casting. Each of the four coils exciting the magnets is 17 in. long, and consists of twenty layers of ninety turns each of .134 wire. The total length of field magnet wire is about 7500 yards, weighing 1200 lb., and the resistance of the four coils coupled in series is 14 ohms. The exciting power on each of the two horseshoes is 36,000 ampère-turns. The total weight of copper on the machine is 1470 lb., producing an electrical output of 27,000 watts, which is at the rate of 18.4 watts per pound of copper. The weight of the complete machine is 47 cwt. Its commercial efficiency is given by the Corporation as 73 per cent.

The other type of dynamo manufactured and exhibited by the Corporation is the Victoria machine used for charging accumulators, feeding incandescent lamps, and large search lights. This dynamo we illustrate in Figs. 3 and 4. It is a continuous current machine, with a

less, and may even do harm by bringing poles of opposite sign so close to each other as to cause a serious leakage of lines across the nearest points, with a corresponding loss of electro-motive force. In modern disc machines the pole-pieces have consequently been considerably reduced, and it has as a further consequence been found possible to increase the number of poles from two, as employed in the earliest machines, to four, six, and even eight, with a corresponding increase of current. As we have already touched upon this point in our article No. XI., we need not enter into the question again. It is, however, desirable to say a few words about the comparative merits of disc and cylindrical armatures. Experiments have proved that the number of lines of force which can be induced to go through a given armature core is a limited quantity, however much we may increase the magneto motive force or exciting power on the field magnets. The maximum number of lines is simply proportional to the cross sectional area of iron contained in the core. Now if we have two armatures of equal core area, one a flat ring, the other a cylinder, and if both are wound with the same number of turns, then at equal speeds the electro-motive forces will also be equal. On account of the space required for the internal attachment of the core to the spindle, and the space occupied by the internal wires, the radial depth of the core in both cases cannot as a rule be made greater than a quarter the diameter. In disc armatures a greater radial depth would also be objectionable on account of bringing the internal portions of the pole pieces of opposite sign too near to each other. In order to fix ideas by an example, let us assume that the cylindrical core be 2 in. deep and 6 in. long, whilst the disc core is 6 in. deep and 2 in. long. The external diameter will

in the former core be 8in., and in the latter 24in. If both are rotated at equal speed—revolutions per minute—they will give the same electro-motive force. But the circumferential speed of the disc will be three times as great as that of the cylinder, and the centrifugal force tending to lift the external wires off the core will also be three times as great. For this reason it is in practice found impossible to run disc armatures as fast as equivalent armatures of the cylindrical type, and the necessary reduction of speed produces a corresponding reduction in electro-motive force. We come, therefore, to the conclusion that the disc form, instead of being better than the cylindrical form, is in reality worse; inasmuch as more wire is required to produce a given electro-motive force. It has, however, some practical advantages. In the first place, the speed of rotation is less—always a desirable object, but especially so when the dynamo must be coupled direct to its engine. In the second place, the wire is exposed to the cooling influence of the air on both sides of the disc, instead of only on the external circumference as in cylinder machines; and, moreover, the linear speed of the periphery being somewhat greater, is more effectually cooled. In the third place, the disc armature lends itself readily to the employment of four or more poles, making not only each single magnet less bulky, but also reducing the total weight of the machine in comparison with its output. As regards the question whether the disc ought to be thin or thick, it is easy to see that thin discs require more wire to produce a given electro-motive force. Referring to our previous example of a disc 2in. wide and 24in. in diameter, the length of one turn of wire on it is evidently a little more than the perimeter of the core, which is  $2 \times (2+6) = 16$ in., the excess being due to the thickness of insulation and the diameter of the wire. Not to complicate the matter we will, however, neglect this excess. If we now were to increase the thickness of the core to 4in., the length of one turn of wire would only be increased by 4in., whilst the electro-motive force would be doubled. From these figures it will be clear that thicker discs are preferable, and in this respect the modern Victoria machine has a great advantage over the dynamo originally introduced by Schuckert. The machine we illustrate in Figs. 3 and 4 is the D 2 type, intended for a current of 150 amperes at a pressure of 75 volts, when driven at a speed of 800 revolutions a minute. The external diameter of the armature is 21in., and its circumferential speed 4400ft. per minute. The core consists of an inner ring of wrought iron  $\frac{1}{2}$ in. thick and  $2\frac{3}{4}$ in. wide, upon which is coiled a tape of No. 30 b.w.g. soft charcoal iron also  $2\frac{3}{4}$ in. wide. The convolutions are insulated from each other by a thin tape of insulating paper of about  $\frac{1}{4}$ th the thickness of the iron tape. The radial depth of the core is  $3\frac{1}{4}$ in., and the area actually occupied by iron is 7·8 square inches. The core is supported by five gun-metal arms, each arm consisting of two halves, which are clamped together by screws, as shown in our illustrations. To make the fastening more secure, slots are cut out of the wrought iron ring and part of the core into which the extremities of the arms enter. Although the tape of the core is only  $\cdot 012$ in. thick, heat is still generated in it to a certain extent, especially in the outer layers; and this is probably due to the fact that there the lines of force must pass radially into the body of the core, thus penetrating the broad surface of the tape at right angles. This causes internal currents to flow, which heat the iron in spite of its being so very thin. To get over this difficulty the Corporation have in some cases adopted the plan of cutting circular grooves into the outer periphery of the core, thus dividing the broad tape into a number of narrow strips. Another, and perhaps more effectual, remedy would be to employ a core consisting partly of tape wound as at present, and partly of iron wire wound over the tape. A few layers of iron wire at the outer periphery of the core would be sufficient to take those lines which enter it radially, whilst those lines which enter the armature in a direction parallel to the spindle would be taken by the tape as at present.

The armature contains sixty coils of  $\cdot 165$  round wire, each coil consisting of six turns wound on in two layers of three turns each. We have, therefore, in all 360 turns, the average length of each turn being about 13in. The total length of wire, including cross connections between coils of equal potential and connections to the commutator, is about 170 yards, and the corresponding weight of copper is 42 lb. The calculated resistance of the armature is only  $\cdot 0106$  ohms, and the density of current 1800 amperes per square inch. The field magnets consist of four circular bars of wrought iron  $3\frac{3}{4}$ in. diameter, each with a cast iron pole piece shrunk on in the middle. Part of each bar is cut away to form the polar cavity for the reception of the armature, the clearance at the sides being  $\frac{1}{16}$ in. and at the circumference about  $\frac{3}{8}$ in. There are eight coils of exciting wire, each  $7\frac{3}{4}$ in. long and containing four layers of  $\cdot 500 \times \cdot 020$  rectangular wire, through which one quarter of the external current passes, and twelve layers of  $\cdot 095$  shunt wire wound over the main. The eight main coils are coupled four parallel and two in series, and the eight shunt coils are all in series. Each layer of main wire consists of seventeen turns, making sixty-eight turns, and measuring twenty yards to each limb; whilst each layer of shunt wire contains seventy turns, or 840 turns in all, measuring about 420 yards. These lengths are calculated, and the weights corresponding to them are 4·5 lb. and 34 lb. respectively. The calculated resistance of the shunt when warm is 13·5 ohms, and the shunt current is 5·7 amperes. The exciting power on one horseshoe is therefore  $2 \times 5 \cdot 7 \times 840 = 9560$  for the shunt, and  $2 \times 68 \times \frac{150}{4} = 5100$  ampere-turns for the main; total, 14,660 ampere-turns. The density of current is 800 amperes in the shunt wire, and 1920 amperes in the main wire. The latter figure is considerably higher than generally found in modern dynamos. It should, however, be remembered that it is not the density of current *per se* which determines the heating of a coil, but the ratio which its cooling surface bears to the number of watts transformed into heat. It may therefore be quite consistent with good practice to allow rather a large density of cur-

rent in some cases, whilst in other cases a density of less than 1000 amperes may produce excessive heating. In the present case the number of watts transformed into heat is small, notwithstanding the high density, simply because there is only a very short length of main wire on each magnet. On going into figures we find that the main circuit absorbs 315 watts, and the shunt circuit 430; total, 745 watts. The external cooling surface of each of the eight coils is 150 square inches, or 1200 square inches in all, being at the rate of 1·61 square inches for every watt transformed into heat. With this proportion the magnet coils will keep perfectly cool. The total weight of copper used in the machine is 350 lb. for an output of 11,000 watts, or 31·4 watts per pound of copper, whilst every 1·13 yards of armature conductor produce one volt in the external circuit. The complete machine weighs  $13\frac{1}{2}$  cwt.

#### THE IRON AND STEEL INSTITUTE.

THE members reassembled on Wednesday morning, September 2nd, in the Corporation Galleries, Sauchiehall-street, Glasgow, Dr. Percy again presiding. It may be remarked that the room did not prove particularly good for sound; and the arrangement of having the luncheon room adjoining, though convenient in saving time, is not to be recommended when access is obtained through the meeting room.

The subject of Mr. W. Jones's paper—the recovery of tar and ammonia from blast furnaces—possesses special interest for Scotland, where the furnaces are almost entirely fired with raw coal. Mr. Sutherland, of Birmingham, observed that the tar recovered at Gartsherrie was sufficient to convert from sixty to seventy thousand tons of iron into steel. Mr. Andrew K. McCosh, of Wm. Baird and Co., pointed out that all the processes described by Mr. Jones were fundamentally the same, all depending on more or less cooling the gases and washing them with water, either with or without the addition of acid; and the yield of products, especially tar, was in proportion to the degree of cooling, while, if the gas came into contact with water before adequate cooling, it carried forward a large quantity of vapour, which materially lessened its value as a fuel. He claimed for himself and partner to have first demonstrated that tar and ammonia were present in the gases of coal-fired furnaces in the same proportion that they were found in ordinary coal-gas. Mr. Henry Aitken, of Falkirk, was convinced twenty years ago that tar and ammonia could be obtained from such gases. Every man was proud of what he believed to be his own child; and he thought the proper course was to cool and condense the gases, and then wash them to extract the spirit. As the discussion was drifting into a question of patent rights, this was ruled out of order. Mr. Ernest Bell, of Middlesbrough, gave an account of the experiments made by his firm in this direction, with their results, and described the practical use to which the oil might be applied. In replying to the discussion, Mr. Jones observed that, when practically every atom of ammonia, with about 40 per cent. of tar, could be recovered at a trifling cost, it mattered little if the gas were depreciated 10 per cent.; but it was possible to get rid of the aqueous vapour by a certain form of condenser.

The next paper read was that by Mr. James Riley, general manager to the Steel Company of Scotland,

#### ON A NEW FORM OF CUPOLA FURNACE.

This furnace, his own invention, was the outcome of an earnest desire to shorten the operation of making open-hearth steel. Though there was no contrivance for charging solid materials into the furnace so cheaply as hand labour, fluid metal could be introduced in a small fraction of the time, while the cooling down of the furnace was avoided. This led to a saving of nearly 10 per cent. in time, equal to one additional charge per week, while effecting a considerable saving in fuel and repairs. He brought forward two types of cupola furnace, similar in principle but different in form, both fired by gas, with forced blast. The coal charged into the gas generator during nine shifts only averaged  $\cdot 144$  cwt. per ton of metal charged into the cupola. He felt justified in believing that his furnace was also suitable for extensive iron foundry practice, where continuous melting is required, and also to Bessemer steel works where fluid metal is not available, while, inasmuch as the flame can be made to a considerable extent, oxidising or reducing at will, the composition of the metal need not be changed during the melting.

During the discussion Mr. John Head, of Landore, raised a laugh by observing that a furnace like one of Mr. Riley's had been put up there in 1861, only there was no cupola. Mr. Windsor Richards said it was natural to try and shorten the Siemens-Martin process, by which only one charge could be melted in twelve hours, and he had every confidence in Mr. Riley's success. An endeavour was now being made to charge the few Siemens furnaces at Eston with molten metal taken directly from the blast furnaces. Mr. Snelus said he was making arrangements at the West Cumberland Works, where there were plenty of converters, but only two 16-ton Siemens furnaces, to take molten pig to the converter, where the silicon would be more or less completely blown out, and then transfer it to the Siemens furnaces for completing the operation. While the Bessemer process was finished in a few seconds, the Siemens took so much longer that there was time to modify matters and alter the result.

Sir Henry Bessemer, on being called upon by the President, said that in all probability Mr. Riley's furnace would be successful. He thought it was not necessary at the present time to make an apology for Bessemer steel, and drily added that he had heard that orders for Siemens steel were not unfrequently supplied with another material. But he did not know one physical test by which it could be ascertained by which of the two processes a given plate had been made.

Mr. F. W. Webb said that he had made at Crewe, not merely 1000 boilers of Bessemer steel, as stated by Sir

Henry Bessemer, but about 3000, working at pressures of 120 lb. to 190 lb., and over 2400 of them were for locomotives. He had also put to work a few boilers of Siemens-Martin steel, without any failure in either case. His experience was that well-made mild Bessemer steel could be quite as much depended upon as the Siemens-Martin. He preferred the latter when a hard metal was required, because the hardness was combined with a greater amount of elasticity. There had not been more than one broken tire during the past year, on a mileage equal to a journey round the world every four hours and ten minutes, to a mile and a-half for every second, or to ninety miles for every minute.

Mr. Riley, in replying to the discussion, observed that his furnace differed from all others devised for the same purpose in being fired by gas. He incidentally expressed the opinion that if the basic process was to be a success, it must be performed, not in the Bessemer converter, but in the open-hearth furnace, where the phosphorus first went off into the slag, which was skimmed off.

In the afternoon the members were divided and subdivided among the Govan Ironworks—commonly spoken of as "Dixon's blazes," from the flaring pipes where the excess of gas is consumed—Thompson's, Denny's, Napier's, and Elder's shipbuilding and engineering yards; the Caledonian Railway and Glasgow—Dubs'—locomotive works, Singer's sewing machine factory, recently erected at Kilbowie, and driven by a 100-horse power Corliss engine, and the new dock works at Greenock. Reserving the latter for more extended description, it may here be mentioned that the contractors, Messrs. Waddell and Sons, have executed in round numbers 1,500,000 cubic yards of excavation, of which 567,000 were in rock, and that all the bricks used in the works were obtained from the material excavated, as well as all the stone, except that for facing the quay walls. Great interest was manifested by the visitors in the travelling bridge and caisson designed by Mr. Kinipple, the engineer-in-chief. The warehouses, in course of construction, are to be provided with grain elevators, and also with hydraulic cranes with luffing jib, capable of lifting goods out of the holds of vessels, and delivering them at the upper storeys of the warehouses.

The annual banquet in the evening was characterised by more than usual good fellowship, the men of steel and iron so far unbending as to join in the singing of "Auld Lang Syne" in Scotch fashion. Dr. Percy, who occupied the chair, took occasion, while responding to the toast of the evening, "Success to the Iron and Steel Institute," to observe that while Glasgow could produce steel in such large quantities, it would be very unwise for any Government to incur enormous expenses in putting down plant for its production. Mr. W. Whitwell, in proposing "The City of Glasgow," remarked that, while in 1879 only 47 per cent. of the vessels built on the Clyde were of steel, they now amounted to 100 per cent.

On Friday the meeting first heard Mr. Charles Wood's paper

#### ON THE VALUE OF SILICON PIG TO THE IRONFOUNDER,

in which he claimed, with a careful selection of pig charged into the cupola, to have increased the strength of soft iron, and by reducing the silicon and increasing the combined carbon, to have cast bars 2in. by 1in. out of the ordinary run of metal, so that they sustained 31 cwt., or more, in the middle of a 3ft. length, between supports, and that from cupolas yielding 60 to 70 tons a day over several months. Mr. Wood concludes from his experiments that:—(1) To make soft, sharp, clean castings from Cleveland pig the mixture should contain 2·6 to 3 per cent. of silicon and 0·15 to 0·1 of combined carbon, while for heavy castings, such as will carry a load on the test bar of 30 to 31 cwt., the proportion should be 1·8 to 2 per cent. of silicon and 0·6 to 0·4 per cent. of combined carbon. In some further experiments undertaken at Mr. Stead's suggestion, one-sixth of silicon pig was found to bring back, as it were, five-sixths of white iron into a grey state, thus confirming the statement that any hard iron, whether scrap or pig, can be rendered perfectly soft by a careful mixture of silicon pig. The author is therefore of opinion that silicon pig should be regarded as a valuable adjunct to the founder, and every ton made be carefully set apart for special use, instead of being returned to the blast furnace. Mr. Wood concluded by advocating as careful an examination of foundry as of forge pig, to ascertain what amount of foreign elements may be combined with it without diminishing the strength of the castings.

The President, observing that the paper contained some important observations, said that thirty or forty years ago silicon was regarded as the great enemy of the blast furnace manager and every one connected with the iron manufacture, especially the unfortunate puddler. So much iron went to waste that he did not make a proper amount by his charge, and the ironmaster did not get what he expected.

Mr. T. Turner, of Sheffield, whose experiments had been referred to in the paper, said that the amount of silicon added to the pig to increase its tensile strength must depend upon the other elements present; and it remained to determine the limit. The addition of silicon to pig iron not only rendered it more fusible and more readily poured, but also made it softer, sounder, and stronger, while at the same time increasing its resistance to crushing strain.

On the other hand, Mr. E. J. Riley contended that the less silicon there was in pig iron the better; as the silicon went up the carbon went down, so that with 20 per cent. of silicon there was no carbon. Mr. J. E. Stead agreed with Mr. Riley that the less silicon there was the better, provided the carbon be kept in the graphitic condition. Silicon, if added to white iron, or iron deficient in silicon, caused the carbon to assume the graphitic condition, and made the iron very soft, the strongest iron for foundry purposes being that which contained just sufficient silicon to prevent the combination of the carbon with the iron. Mr. John Gjers observed that glazed pig might be used to

advantage in melting down a lot of hard scrap, but no founder would adopt such a mixture for an important casting. The desirable composition of both forge and foundry pig had long been known, but the difficulty was to obtain it in the furnace. Mr. Windsor Richards thought that the silicon should be low for a strong casting, the great strength of cold blast iron being due to a low percentage of silicon.

The next paper read was by Mr. J. H. Biles, of Messrs. Thompson's Clydebank Ship and Engine Works.

#### NOTES ON SHIPBUILDING.

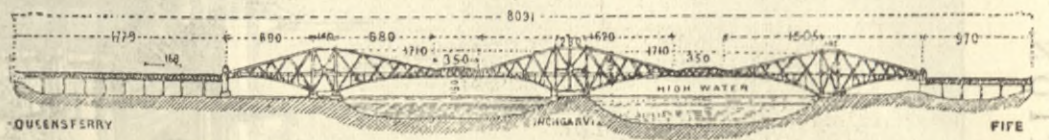
Mr. Biles said he read them as one "in the thick of the work," chiefly with a view to elicit profitable discussion on the use of steel in shipbuilding. Mr. Biles started with the proposition that there were two questions to be considered in undertaking to build any ship—the constructive possibility and the commercial desirability—of which the former had become a certainty and the latter had often been demonstrated. He undertook to show that on the Clyde a relative price of steel to iron had been reached, where, for a given size, the cost is equal, with an increased carrying capacity in favour of the steel. With the necessary modification of design, a steel ship could now be constructed with as much certainty of success as one of iron. With Lloyd's 20 per cent. reduction, and the last new substitution of twentieths of an inch with steel for sixteenths of an inch with iron in thickness, the reduction, allowing for difference of specific gravity, was about 17 per cent.; but certain restrictions brought the amount of material actually saved per cent. to 13.9 in 1500-ton, 13.7 in 2500-ton, 13.5 in 3500-ton, and 13.3 in 4500-ton vessels. Steel would ultimately become the staple material for shipbuilding, because of the larger-sized plates for a given thickness, involving less laps and butt strips, less rivetting, scrap, and labour. Comparing the weights and prices of iron and steel, a ship could be built on the Clyde according to Lloyd's published tables at least as cheaply in steel as in iron. Consequently the advantage to the latter was obvious, if weight-carrying power is of any commercial value. It also followed that the steel ship must be cheaper per ton of dead-weight carried. Two objections had usually been urged against steel ships, the first of which was that, as steel is so ductile, ships built of it are less rigid than those of iron, and will soon begin to work. At Clydebank, twenty-eight steel ships, of great variety as regards size, and representing over 50,000 tons, had been built, without any structural defect due to material having been reported. The second objection was that steel corrodes more rapidly than iron. It was, indeed, certain that if an iron ship be not watched and carefully coated, she would soon receive considerable injury. But it was also certain that, if properly coated and watched, an iron ship is practically indestructible. It seemed, therefore, to be much more a question of relative care necessary to protect the material, than the relative amount of corrosion which will go on if no care be taken; and if a little extra care were required, it could not be anything like a set-off against all the other advantages. The Admiralty, however, having discovered that most of the corrosion that has come under their notice was due to galvanic action between the black oxide or scale and the metal, treated all their outer bottom plating, floors, and lower plates of bulkheads, in a dilute acid bath to remove the scale. Messrs. Thomson had devised a fast running wire-brushing machine, which, after the acid-bath, burnishes the surface of the plate, an operation which did not cost more than 1s. per ton over the whole of the ship. Another method of meeting this objection to steel was to galvanise the plates most liable to corrosion, and it had been pointed out by Mr. Denny that unless something of this kind be done it will not be possible to take full advantage of steel having higher tensile strength than that at present in use. This question of corrosion had a similar bearing in ships to that in boilers, for it was certain that if the liability to corrosion is the same in both thick and thin plates, there must be a thickness beyond which it would not be advisable to reduce, however high a tensile strength of the material. If galvanising can be successfully and generally applied, this minimum would be much reduced, and the increase in tensile strength much further extended. At present the extra cost was its chief drawback; but if higher tension steels be adopted, some of the saving in cost due to them must go to pay for galvanising. The author urged that as Lloyd's insist on a breaking strain of 28 to 32 tons per square inch on a reduction of 20 per cent. in the thickness in passing from iron to steel, it would be only fair to insist on iron passing similar tests, but with the limits of strength reduced in exactly the same proportion as the thickness of steel has been reduced. In a paddle boat now being built by Messrs. Thomson, there were no reverse bars on the floors, the floor plates being flanged, thus saving one leaf of an angle and all the rivets connecting the reverse bar to the floors. This flanging was extensively adopted at Clydebank for all bracket and intercostal work, instead of plates and angles, for bulkhead plates, where flanging the plates was substituted for angle stiffening. For thin plates the flanging was done cold, but hot for plates above ½ in. Z frames, extensively used, were cheaper than the ordinary method of frame and reverse, when of the same depth and thickness as the frame. In the National line steamship America all the steel contributing to longitude strength above the lower deck, which is practically at the neutral axis, was made of a tensile strength of from 32 to 36 tons; all below it from 27 to 31 tons.

In the absence of Mr. B. Baker, M.I.C.E., the secretary read a portion of Mr. Baker's paper

#### ON THE FORTH BRIDGE,

in which the author says that the chief desiderata in the biggest railway bridge ever proposed are durability, strength, and rigidity under express trains and hurricane pressures; facility and security of erection, high quality of material and workmanship, with economy in first cost and maintenance. These were met by a steel cantilever or continuous girder bridge, each span of 1710ft. being made up of two canti-

levers 343ft. deep over the piers and 40ft. at the ends, projecting 680ft., and a central girder connecting them 350ft. in length. The bottom members consist of a pair of tubes tapering in diameter from 12ft. to 5ft., spaced 120ft. apart, centre to centre, at the piers, and 31ft. 6in. apart at the ends; and the top members of a pair of box lattice girders, tapering in depth from 12ft. to 5ft., spaced 33ft. apart at the piers, and 22ft. 3in. at the ends. Each tube has a maximum gross sectional area of 830 square inches, and each girder a maximum net sectional area of 506 square inches. Upon each cylindrical masonry pier is bolted a bed-plate carrying a skewback, from which spring vertical and diagonal columns and struts. The former are 12ft. in diameter, and from 368 to 468 square inches in sectional area, the latter being flattened tubes. Horizontal wind-bracing of lattice girders connect the tubes forming the bottom member of the cantilevers, and similar vertical wind-bracing connects the vertical and diagonal tubes, so that the whole structure is a network of bracing capable of resisting stresses in any direction and of any attainable severity. The rolling load provided for is—(1) trains of unlimited length on each line of rails weighing 1 ton per foot run; (2) trains on each line made up of two engines and tenders, weighing in all 142 tons, at the head of a train of sixty short coal trucks of 15 tons each. The wind provided for is a pressure of 56 lb. per square foot striking the whole or any part of the bridge, at any angle with the horizon, the total amount on the main spans being estimated at no less than 7900 tons. In practice, only two trains, weighing 800 tons in all, would be on this length of bridge at the same time; so the wind pressure—if such a hurricane as 56 lb. per square foot could ever occur—would be ten times as great as the train load. Under the combined stresses resulting from the test load in the worst position, and the heaviest hurricane, the



maximum stress on the steel will not exceed 7½ tons per square inch on any portion of the structure, and on members subject to great variation in the intensity and character of stress the maximum will not exceed 4 tons per square inch. For tubular columns and struts 34 to 37-ton steel, with an elongation of 17 per cent. in 8in., is specified, and for tension members 30 to 33-ton steel, with 20 per cent. of elongation. The quality of steel supplied by the Steel Company of Scotland and the Landore Company will stand the Admiralty temper tests, and is admirably adapted for bridge construction. In making the tubes the plates are heated in a gas furnace and bent hot, between dies, in a powerful hydraulic press, the slight distortion in cooling being corrected by pressing cold. After bending, all four edges are planed and the plates built up into a tube. Travelling annular drill frames surrounding the tube, fitted each with ten traversing drills, bore the holes at once through plates, covers, and stiffeners, so that when again fitted in place for erection, every piece comes into exact juxtaposition. Similar travelling drill frames deal with the lattice box girders, every hole being drilled as the machine advances. Generally the plant designed by Mr. Arrol for drilling the innumerable holes in the 42,000 tons of steel work for the main spans is of signal merit and efficiency, and well worthy the attention of practical engineers. For certain parts of the Forth Bridge steel is used of a higher tensile strength than is at present considered admissible either for ships or boilers, experiments having shown that steel with a tensile strength of from 34 to 37 tons per square inch offered a decided advantage over very mild steel, when compressive stresses and the flexure of long columns were concerned. In the compression members of the Forth Bridge the steel is subject only to a steady pressure of varying intensity, and a quality of steel was adopted which combined perfect facility in working with a high resistance to compression. Although an increased tensile strength is accompanied by a decidedly increased resistance to flexure in columns and struts, the latter is not proportional to the former. At least one-half of the 42,000 tons of steel in the Forth Bridge it is in compression, so that the importance of gaining an increased resistance of 60 per cent. without any sacrifice in the facility of working, and safety belonging to a highly ductile material, can hardly be exaggerated. Sheared edges are a more fruitful source of fracture than partial tempering. All the bent plates are made red-hot, thus eliminating the effect of the shearing before planing. Those plates which are not heated have the edges carefully planed so as to leave no trace of the shearing, and the plates so treated, whether 30-ton or 37-ton steel, stand all the desired tests. Experiments on the resisting power of different classes of iron and steel to repeated bendings indicate that the superiority of low-tension steel is considerably greater than the increased ductility would indicate.

Mr. Biles' and Mr. Baker's papers were discussed together, as they both bore upon the suitability and application of steel to constructive purposes.

Mr. E. A. Cowper praised the machine tools at the Forth Bridge works, especially the drilling machines and an automatic machine for cutting slots in plates. He added that all the plates are planed on all the edges, and that the rivetting is done as much as possible by hydraulic machinery.

Mr. James Hamilton, of Messrs. R. Napier and Sons, said his firm's experience of steel, as extensive as that of Mr. Biles' firm, corroborated almost all the figures in that gentleman's paper. Where the superior strength of steel could be turned to account, it was preferable to use that metal; and if this were true of land structures, it had all the more force as regards ships, carried about on the ocean as an incubus. He, however, disagreed with Mr. Biles as to reducing Lloyd's thickness of butt strips, which he thought were not destroyed by punching.

Mr. Windsor Richards, who characterised Mr. Biles' paper as an excellent one, and the first read before the Institute that did not ask for a reduced price of plates, would like to know how large its author would like to have plates to be handled in the shipyard, because he could accommodate him up to 50ft. or 60ft. long by 5ft. wide.

Mr. Wales was applauded on expressing the opinion that it would be unsafe to allow the limit of strength in plates to go much above 32 tons per square inch, as the heating, especially at the edges, by hot rivets, and the gradual cooling might cause fracture.

Mr. Martell, of Lloyd's, said that notwithstanding his reputation of being an obstructionist, he was much in favour of steel for shipbuilding, and believed it would quite supersede iron at an early date, because it was a tested material, and the work of each plate was perfectly well known. An exhaustive inquiry had enabled him to set at naught two scares that had been raised with reference to the new metal, viz., that steel ships were deficient in structural resistance, and that they were liable to rapid deterioration from oxidation.

Mr. James Riley, on being pressed by the chairman to speak, complained bitterly "that no one would tread on the tail of his coat." He was expecting a fierce attack on steel, but all the evidence was in its favour, the only moot point being as to the limit of strength. His own opinion was that 32 tons should not be exceeded, while he would prefer to keep to 30 tons for boiler plates, especially if large.

Mr. Martell added that Lloyd's maximum was 32 tons—for framing 33 tons—which, he hoped, would never be exceeded.

Mr. Biles replied on the discussion that the question of butt strips was one rather of economy than structure.

His firm used plates 16ft. by 5ft., and varying from ¼ in. to ½ in. thick; but there would not be much difficulty in working plates half as large again. They used steel from 32 to 36 tons without any fracture from heating and gradual cooling. In a collision a ship was dinged in, but there was no crack at the rivet seams; and he would prefer a larger number of light keelsons for local support, to fewer heavy keelsons.

Owing to want of time, three papers, viz., those by Mr. von Bergen on "A New Pyrometer," by Mr. Flower on "Tin-plate Manufacture," and by Mr. Blair on "Accessory Products of the Blast Furnace," were left over to the next meeting. The usual votes of thanks were passed, at the instance of the President, Sir H. Bessemer, Mr. Walker, of Leeds, Mr. Edward Williams, Mr. E. A. Cowper, and Mr. Jas. Riley.

In the afternoon excursions were made by special trains to the Glegarnock Steel Works at Kilburnie, Young's paraffine oil works at Addiewell, and to the historical Carron Ironworks.

The works of the Carron Company, on the river Carron, two miles north of Falkirk, are a mile from Grahamston on the North British Railway, and the same distance from Larbert on the Caledonian Railway, being connected by branch lines. The works were among the first established in Scotland, and are now the oldest in active operation, having been founded in 1759, and having had associated with them Dr. Roebuck, Smeaton, Watt, and Symington; and it is here that Cowper's blast-heating stoves were first applied in Scotland. The works gave the name to "carronades," lighter than the ordinary cannon, and much used in close naval engagements. On the present writer happening to remark to a gentleman not wholly unconnected with a leading metallurgical organ that among his earliest reminiscences was the word "Carron" cast on one of the most ordinary appliances of domestic economy, making a great impression on his juvenile mind, he replied that a similar article had made on him a very great impression indeed, when he unfortunately let it fall on his toe.

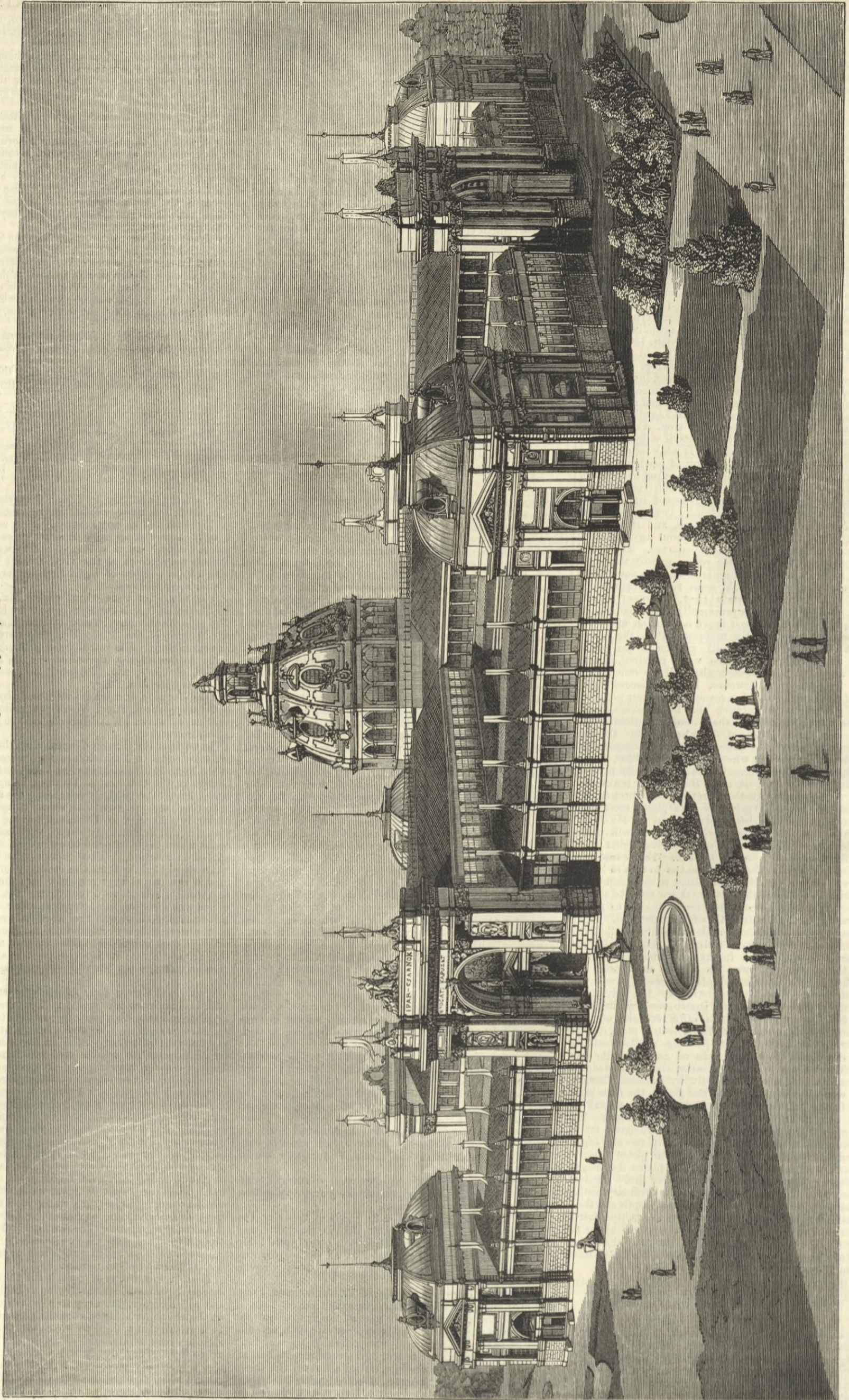
There are at Carron four blast furnaces 50ft. high and 16ft. in diameter at the boshes. Two are closed by bell and cone, and two others are to be raised to 70ft., and also closed at the mouth. The gases, besides heating the stoves and firing the boilers, are used in the other departments for all purposes for which coal was formerly employed. There are three blowing engines, one beam with air cylinder 102in. in diameter by 10ft. stroke, and the others vertical, with air cylinders 18in. in diameter by 4ft. stroke.

The works are now being reconstructed, and provided with every modern appliance for insuring economy and excellence of production, so that their ancient reputation will not only be worthily sustained, but probably also surpassed. In the foundry two pits are being lined with cement. So large are they as to raise a doubt whether the future castings can ever be conveyed to their destination. When complete the works will be provided with six circuits, one of high-pressure water pipes for the hydraulic cranes and other appliances, another of low-pressure water pipes for extinguishing fire, &c., a third of lighting gas pipes, a fourth of gaseous fuel conduits, a fifth of steam pipes, and a sixth of small gauge tramways connected from floor to floor by hydraulic lifts.

The foundry work, as of yore, is still the speciality. Intricate castings are made perfectly true, of only ⅜ in. thickness, and with a surface, due only to a coat of charcoal blacking on the moulds, that leaves absolutely nothing to be desired. It is related that a Yankee once brought over a casting, including some letters, and asked if the firm could come up to that. They did not know, but they would try; and they actually produced from the original a sharper casting, which they sent over to the States in triumph, and heard no more from their visitor. At a feast of fruit, perhaps the most elegant of the many

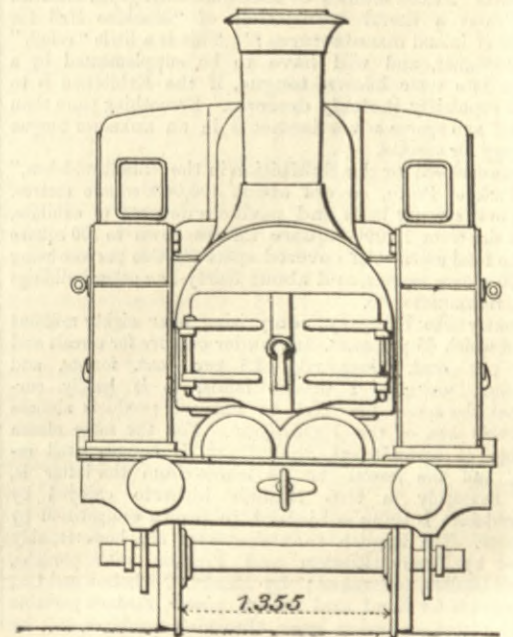
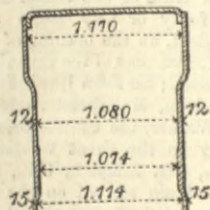
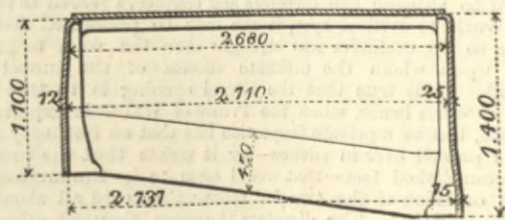
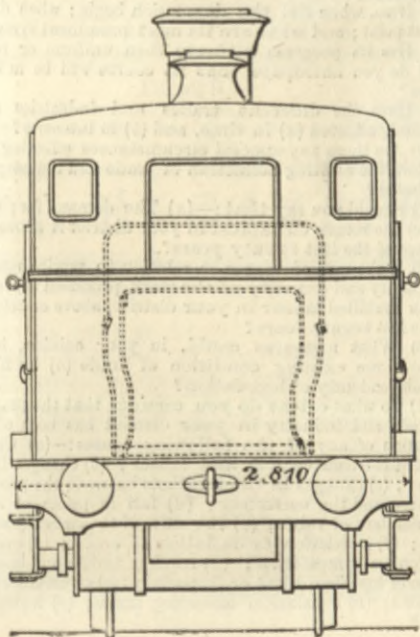
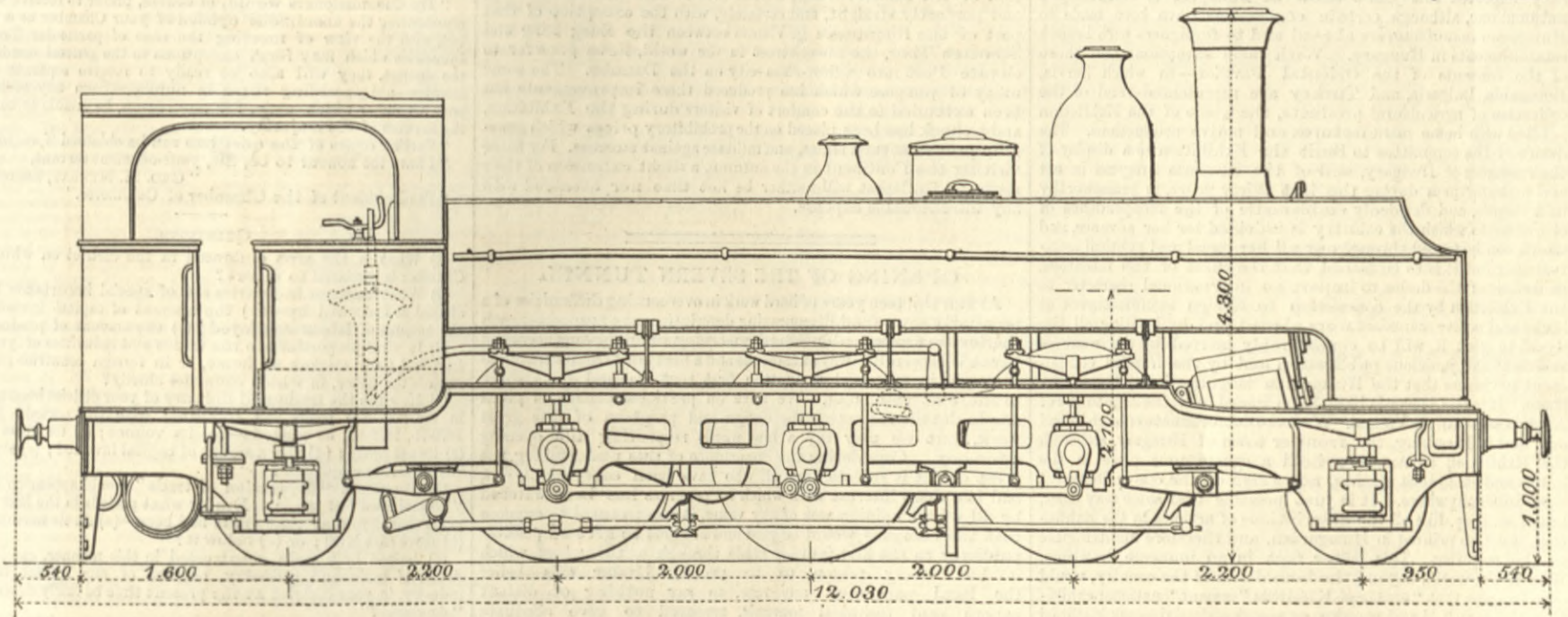
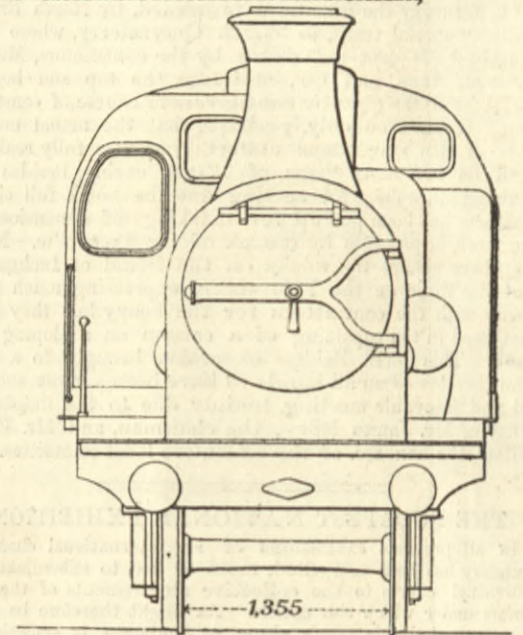
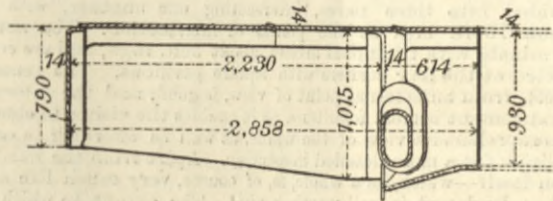
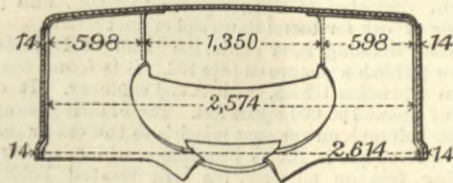
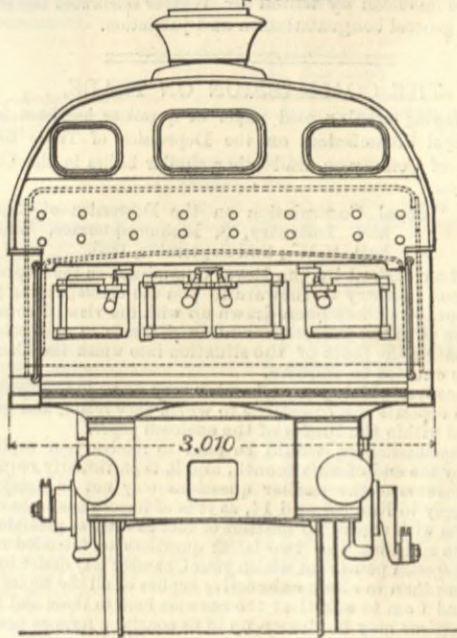
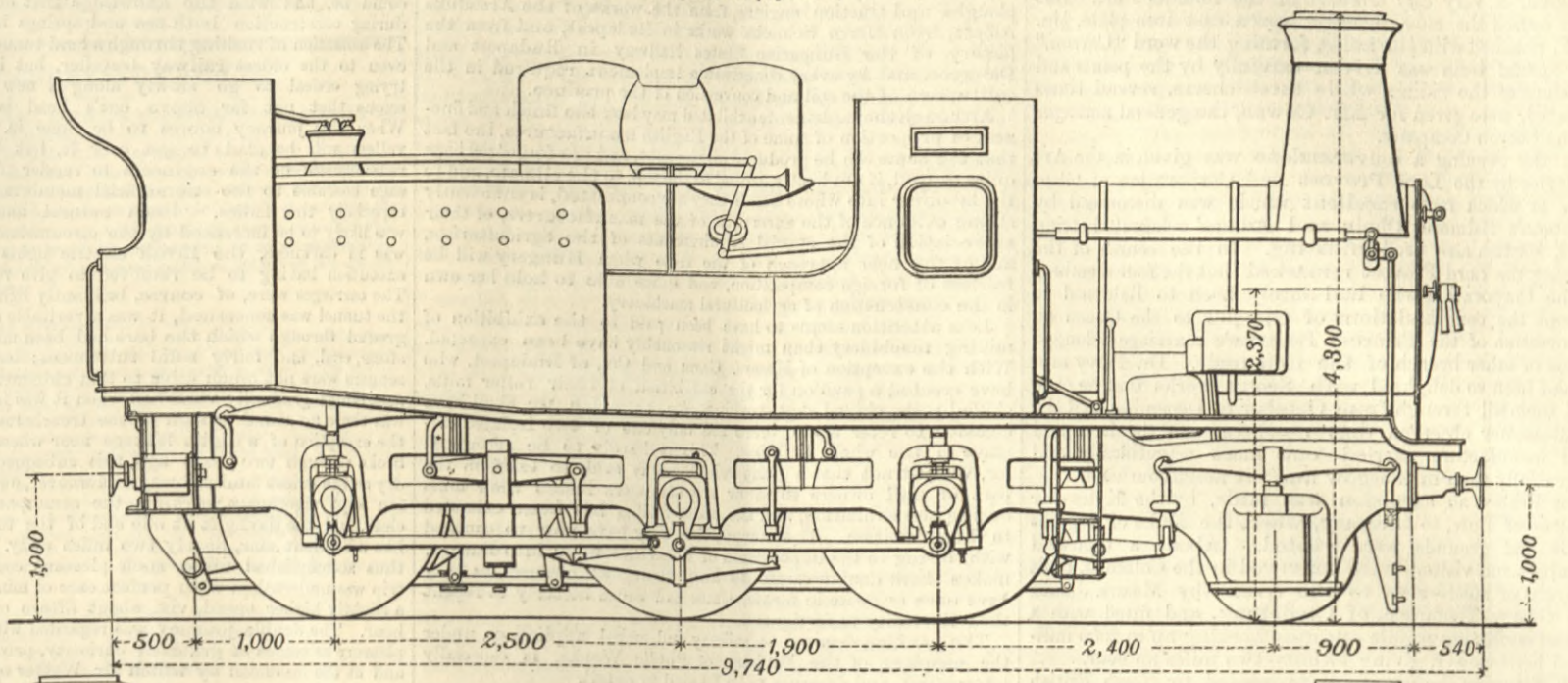
THE BUDAPEST NATIONAL EXHIBITION.

(For description see page 198.)



BELGIAN STATE RAILWAYS—EXPRESS PASSENGER ENGINES FOR STEEP GRADIENTS.

(For description see page 204.)



hospitable demonstrations during this Glasgow meeting, were shown copies of this celebrated casting, as well as card baskets, and a plaque, with a basket of fruit, "Carron," a very *chef d'œuvre* of the founder's art. But what caused the most interest was a cast iron plate,  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. thick, punched with  $\frac{3}{16}$  in. holes, forming the word "Carron." The special train was driven carefully by the points and crossings of the siding, while three cheers, several times repeated, were given for Mr. Cowan, the general manager of the Carron Company.

In the evening a *conversazione* was given in the Art Galleries by the Lord Provost and Corporation of Glasgow, at which most excellent music was discoursed by Lambeth's Balmoral Choir and Adams' celebrated string band, Scottish airs predominating. In the course of the evening the Lord Provost remarked that the four members of the Corporation who had lately been to Balmoral to present the congratulations of Glasgow to the Queen on the occasion of the Princess Beatrice's marriage belonged to one or other branch of the iron trade. Dr. Percy said he had been so delighted with Scott's works that he once read them all through from October to December, and Sir H. Bessemer observed that nowhere was the iron and steel manufacture carried out more scientifically and successfully than in Glasgow and the neighbourhood.

On Friday an excursion was made, by the Kyles—or straits—of Bute, to Inverary, where the Duke of Argyll's castle and grounds were visited. About a thousand members and visitors were conveyed in the Columba, built entirely of steel—even to the rivets—by Messrs. James and George Thompson, of Clydebank, and fitted with a pair of oscillating paddle engines working up to 2000 indicated horse-power, giving twenty-two miles an hour.

On Saturday the members proceeded, by North British Railway special train, to South Queensferry, where they examined the plant put down by the contractors, Messrs. Tancerd, Arrol, and Co., and also the top and bottom members of the gigantic cantilevers in course of construction. It was then only, perhaps, that the actual magnitude of this stupendous undertaking was fully realised, with its two clear spans of 1710ft. each. Besides the drawing-office floor for setting out the work full size, a platform has been put up for marking off dimensions on the work in progress by means of the theodolite. Many members visited the works on the island of Inchgarvie, and also those on the Fife shore, expressing much sympathy with the contractors for the heavy loss they have sustained in the capsizing of a caisson on a sloping clay bank. This Forth Bridge excursion brought to a close what is allowed on all hands to have been a most successful and enjoyable meeting, mainly due to the indefatigability of Mr. James Riley, the chairman, and Mr. W. G. Millar, the hon. sec. of the executive local committee.

#### THE BUDAPEST NATIONAL EXHIBITION.

In all previous exhibitions of an international character, Hungary has been compelled, more or less, to subordinate her individual efforts to the collective requirements of the dual régime under which she exists. As might therefore be naturally expected this year's show at Budapest is essentially a national one, although certain concessions have been made to Hungarian manufacturers abroad and to foreigners with branch establishments in Hungary. With these exceptions and those of the contents of the Oriental Pavilion—in which Servia, Roumania, Bulgaria, and Turkey are represented—and of the collection of agricultural products, the whole of the Exhibition is filled with home manufactures and native productions. The desire of the committee to limit the Exhibition to a display of the resources of Hungary, and of the immense progress in art and manufactures during the last thirty years, is praiseworthy to a degree, and decidedly emblematic of the independence of character to which the country is indebted for her advance, and which can be traced throughout all her social and political institutions; but it is to be feared that the effect of this intention, as well as of the desire to impart an international character to the Exhibition by the concession to foreign manufacturers at home and native manufacturers abroad, and by inviting all the world to visit it, will be considerably marred by the want of sufficient and judicious publication and by the implied compliment to visitors that the Hungarian language is understood by them. It is said placards have been issued in all the large towns of Austria, especially in Vienna. We were not fortunate enough to find one, and in Pressburg, the frontier town of Hungary, although the Exhibition at Antwerp held a conspicuous place in the hotels and steamboat station, not a sign of the one in Budapest was visible anywhere. It is just possible that some may exist, but if so, they, like all the descriptions of articles in the Exhibition, must be printed in Hungarian, and therefore unintelligible to the majority. This latter fact in an immense drawback. Who in the world, beyond the boundaries of the country, would ever imagine that "országos Kiallítás" meant "national exhibition," or that "A hazai munka és mezőgazdasági gépek kiállításának" was a literal translation of "Machine Hall for exhibitions of inland manufactures?" This is a little "rough" on the foreigner, and will have to be supplemented by a translation into some known tongue, if the Exhibition is to obtain the popularity it richly deserves. Something more than "tradition" and sparse advertisements in an unknown tongue are necessary for success.

The space enclosed for the Exhibition in the "Stadt-wildchen," or Hyde Park of Pesth, covers about 300,000 square metres. There are over seventy halls and pavilions devoted to exhibits, varying in size from 16,000 square metres down to 100 square metres, the total amount of covered space for this purpose being over 66,000 square metres, and about thirty-five other buildings for offices, restaurants, &c.

In a country like Hungary, comprising over eighty millions of acres, of which 65 per cent. are under culture for cereals and roots,  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. vineyards, 28 per cent. forests, and  $\frac{5}{8}$  per cent. water and waste lands, it is hardly surprising that the space devoted to natural products absorbs a considerable area of the Exhibition. For the same reason the display of agricultural machinery is equally well represented, and the lesson to be learnt from the latter is, that the monopoly in this branch hitherto enjoyed by English producers is being subjected to severe competition by native labour. The English manufacturers are, however, ably represented by Messrs. Ruston and Proctor, with ploughs, reapers, self-binders, and rakes; by Messrs. Nicholson and Co., with implements for hand and steam power, Foster's portable engine with patent expansion gear, thrashing machines, &c.; by

Messrs. Robey and Sons, with portable engines, double flour mills, &c.; by Messrs. Marshall and Sons, with straw-burning portables, &c. But against this small contingent are ranged no less than seventy-five native manufacturers represented by steam ploughs and traction engines, from the works of the Archduke Albert, from Herr Schlick's works in Budapest, and from the factory of the Hungarian States Railway in Budapest and Diósgyör, and by every conceivable implement required in the cultivation of the soil and conversion of the produce.

Although the implements exhibited may lack the finish and fineness of proportion of some of the English manufactures, the fact that the same can be produced on the spot, and are found perhaps quite as well, if not better, suited to the soil, to the climate, and to the labourer into whose hands they are committed, is sufficiently strong evidence of the enterprise of the manufacturers, of their appreciation of the special requirements of the agriculturists, and of the near approach of the time when Hungary will be fearless of foreign competition, and quite able to hold her own in the construction of agricultural machinery.

Less attention seems to have been paid to the exhibition of milling machinery than might reasonably have been expected. With the exception of Messrs. Ganz and Co., of Budapest, who have erected a pavilion for the exhibition of their roller mills, chilled rolls, chilled shot, turbines, &c., to which we shall have occasion to refer again, there are only one or two isolated displays in the whole building. This is hardly to be accounted for, were it not that a great reluctance is said to exist on the part of mill owners to allow any strangers inside their mills during the exhibition, and the same feeling has been extended to the exhibition. The competition they have now to contend with, owing to the importation of American flour into Europe, makes them doubly careful to keep their own counsel, as they have once or twice in former times had cause bitterly to repent their liberality to foreigners.

The pavilion devoted to railway and naval appliances, under the auspices of the Ministry of Public Works, is especially interesting, and deserves to be treated in detail.

The display of timber in the grounds gives ample proof of the variety and wealth of the forests in Transylvania, Slavonia, and Croatia. There are larch stems 144ft. long, with a diameter of 2ft. 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ ft. from the butt; others 110ft. long, with a maximum diameter of 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ in., tapering to 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ in., and gigantic specimens of oak for barrel staves and cabinet work.

The main building is, of course, the "Hall of Industries," of which we publish a picture on page 196. It is from the design of Herr Christian Ulrich, architect and engineer. It contains an area of about 160,000 square feet. The building is supported on lattice columns, on the same principle as the cattle market in Vienna. The style is Italian Renaissance, which, owing to the hall being free on all sides, has been treated boldly. The weight of ironwork is about 10 lb. per square foot. The main portion of the structure consists of two halls, each divided into three naves, intersecting one another, with a dome 150ft. high at the points of intersection. The naves terminate with triumphal arches, about 50ft. high, and are connected at the four corners with square pavilions. The general effect, from an external point of view, is good, and the internal arrangement is most felicitous, as it enables the visitor to obtain a comprehensive view of the whole, as well as affording an easy division for a more detailed inspection. Apart from the Exhibition itself—which, as a whole, is, of course, very much like any other, Budapest is well worth a visit. The extent to which it has increased in the last ten years is marvellous. The completion of the quays, the erection of new buildings, such as the Elevator, the Opera House, new stations, &c., and the construction of the Radial Strasse, a little over a mile and a-half long, and perfectly straight, and certainly, with the exception of that part of the Ringstrasse in Vienna between the Burg Ring and Schotten Thor, the finest street in the world, have gone far to elevate Pest into a first-class city on the Danube. The same unity of purpose which has produced these improvements has been extended to the comfort of visitors during the Exhibition, and a check has been placed on the prohibitory prices which generally prevail at such times, and militate against success. For those visiting the Continent in the autumn, a slight extension of their route to Budapest will neither be lost time nor attended with any unreasonable expense.

#### OPENING OF THE SEVERN TUNNEL.

AFTER thirteen years of hard work in overcoming difficulties of a peculiarly severe and discouraging description, the tunnel beneath the Severn was opened on Saturday morning, when the engineers and Great Western Railway authorities and a party of friends travelled through in a special train, the first that crossed from shore to shore at this point. We have on previous occasions given ample details respecting the design and progress of this great work, but we may say a few words respecting the opening ceremony. Considering the importance of this undertaking, the great credit it reflects upon all who have been carrying it out, and the deep interest with which its progress has been watched by all whose opinion was of any value, it was natural to suppose that the company would be glad and anxious to give all possible publicity to the first journey made through a tunnel of which it has every reason to be proud. Under this belief the local papers, at any rate, to say nothing of distant papers and technical journals, prepared to give adequate descriptions of the tunnel and the journey, but to the keen disappointment, not only of the papers but of the whole neighbourhood, all press representatives were excluded. No reason for this course was assigned, and as it would be absurd to suppose the directors and engineers feared to expose their work to critical eyes, it can only be presumed that the desire to be exclusive was stronger than the wish to gratify those upon whom the ultimate success of the tunnel will depend. It is true that the formal opening is to take place some months hence, when the Prince of Wales is expected to officiate, but as a private inspection like that on Saturday could not be passed over in silence—for it means that the tunnel is an accomplished fact—that would seem to be the more appropriate occasion of the two for telling the world all about the success achieved. The directors, however, thought otherwise, and limited the pioneer party to officials and special friends. For their benefit a train of two saloon carriages was prepared, and among the forty or fifty ladies and gentlemen who assembled at Roggett, at the opening of the tunnel, were Sir Daniel Gooch, M.P., chairman of the Great Western Railway Company, and Lady Gooch; Sir John Hawkshaw, joint engineer with Mr. W. C. Richardson, Mr. Bassett, one of the directors, Mr. Gooch, C.E., Mr. Walker, the contractor, and Mrs. Walker, Mr. Saunders, secretary to the Great Western Railway Company, and Mrs. Saunders, Mr. Simpson, C.E., and the general engineering staff. The train started on the experimental trip at eleven o'clock, and passed through the 2 $\frac{1}{2}$  miles under the river in half-an-hour, the rate being wisely limited to something like nine miles an hour. The engineers were naturally confident in

the soundness of their work, but some of the passengers may be forgiven if they experienced some slight trepidation on finding themselves plunging into an unknown way beneath the widest and most stormy of English estuaries, then almost as full as it could be, and with the knowledge that on several occasions during construction both sea and springs had burst through. The sensation of rushing through a land tunnel is never pleasant even to the oldest railway traveller, but it is a much more trying ordeal to go slowly along a new track, fully conscious that not far above one's head is the rolling sea. When this journey comes to be done in ten minutes, travellers will be glad to get over it, but it required all the reassurances of the engineers to render the half-hour's passage bearable to the non-official members of the party, and especially the ladies. Such natural uneasiness as existed was likely to be increased by the circumstance that the tunnel was in darkness, the Brush electric lights in use during its execution having to be removed to give room for the train. The carriages were, of course, brilliantly lighted; but so far as the tunnel was concerned, it was a veritable *de profundis*. The ground through which the bore had been made is largely sandstone, coal, and fairly solid substances; but the pioneer passengers were not much alive to that circumstance. Doubts and misgivings gradually vanished when it was found that not only was there no sound or sign of the treacherous ocean; but, with the exception of a slight leakage near where a powerful spring broke through two years ago, this subaqueous roadway was as dry as the driest land subway. Moreover, owing to the powerful fan kept vigorously working, the atmosphere was beautifully clear, and the daylight at one end of the tunnel could be seen like a brilliant star, nearly two miles away. The first journey thus accomplished under such pleasant conditions, the return trip was undertaken with perfect ease of mind, and was done at a slightly higher speed, viz., about fifteen or sixteen miles an hour. The double journey was regarded with such feelings of pleasure as comes of gratified curiosity, privilege, and novelty; and at the luncheon by which Mr. Walker celebrated the event, there was general congratulation and jubilation.

#### THE COMMISSION ON TRADE.

THE following circular and paper of questions has been issued by the Royal Commission on the Depression of Trade to the Chambers of Commerce and other similar bodies in the United Kingdom:—

"Royal Commission on the Depression of Trade and Industry, 8, Richmond-terrace, Whitehall, S.W., 2nd September, 1885.

"Sir,—I am desired by the Royal Commission on the Depression of Trade and Industry to forward to you the accompanying paper of questions, which has been drawn up with the view of obtaining information as to the present condition of Trade in this country, and of eliciting the facts of the situation into which the Commissioners are directed to inquire.

"Any answers which your Chamber may desire to return should be written opposite the questions to which they relate, and should be confined within the limits of the enclosed paper.

"The Commissioners would be glad to receive your replies, if possible, by the end of this month, and it is particularly requested that the answers to the earlier questions may not be delayed in order to reply to Nos. 13 and 14, as it is of importance to have the information with regard to matters of fact as early as possible.

"I am to add that the two latter questions are intended rather to suggest special points on which your Chamber may desire to offer observations than to elicit exhaustive replies on all the topics mentioned; and I am to ask that the answers both to these and to the earlier questions may be drawn up in as concise a form as possible.

"The Commissioners would, of course, prefer to receive answers representing the unanimous opinion of your Chamber as a whole; but, with the view of meeting the case of particular Trades or Industries which may form exceptions to the general condition of the district, they will also be ready to receive separate sets of answers—not exceeding three in number—from any sections of your Chamber which may, for any reason, be unable to concur in the answers of the majority.

"Further copies of the questions can be obtained if required.

"I have the honour to be, Sir, your obedient servant,

"GEO. H. MURRAY, Secretary.

"The President of the Chamber of Commerce."

#### QUESTIONS.

- (1) What is the area embraced in the district on which your Chamber is prepared to report?
- (2) What trades or industries are of special importance to that district as measured by—(a) the amount of capital invested; (b) the amount of labour employed; (c) the amount of production?
- (3) In what proportion do the trades and industries of your district find their market at home, or in foreign countries; and, as regards the latter, in which countries chiefly?
- (4) How has the trade and industry of your district been affected in the last five years, as compared with the periods 1865-70, 1870-75, 1875-80, as regards—(a) its volume; (b) its gross value; (c) its net profit; (d) the amount of capital invested; (e) the quantity of labour employed?
- (5) The phrase "depression of trade" would appear to imply a "normal level" of trade. During what periods in the last twenty years should you say that trade had been—(a) At its normal level; (b) above that level; or (c) below it?
- (6) Judged by a scale constructed in this manner, can the condition of trade and industry, or that of any special trade or industry, in your district at the present time be fairly described as "depressed"?
- (7) If so, when did the depression begin; when did it reach its lowest point; and what are its most prominent symptoms?
- (8) Has its progress hitherto been uniform or irregular; and what do you anticipate that its course will be in the immediate future?
- (9) Have the different trades and industries affected been uniformly affected (a) in time, and (b) in intensity?
- (10) Are there any special circumstances affecting your district to which the existing condition of trade and industry there can be attributed?
- (11) Should you say that:—(a) The demand for; (b) the supply of; (c) the return on capital in your district is above or below the average of the last twenty years?
- (12) Is the rate of wages in relation to service rendered, and to the quality and quantity of the work produced (a) for skilled, and (b) for unskilled labour in your district, above or below the average of the last twenty years?
- (13) What measures could, in your opinion, be adopted to improve the existing condition of trade (a) by legislation, and (b) independently of legislation?
- (14) To what extent do you consider that the present condition of trade and industry in your district has been affected by the operation of any of the following causes:—(a) Changes in the relation between capital and labour; (b) changes in the hours of labour; (c) changes in the relations between the producer, the distributor, and the consumer; (d) fall in prices, or appreciation of the standard of value; (e) the state of the currency and the banking laws; (f) restriction or inflation of credit; (g) over production; (h) foreign competition; (i) foreign tariffs and bounties; (l) incidence of taxation, local or imperial; (m) communication with other markets; (n) legislation affecting trade; (o) legislation affecting land?

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TO CORRESPONDENTS.

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

X. W.—We do not know.  
I. E. A.—We shall be glad to see the sketch to which you refer.  
W. J. (Colchester).—The speed of your gig will be less with paddle-wheels than with oars. Assuming it to be five miles an hour, and the paddle-wheels to make 40 revolutions per minute, the centre of effort of the paddle-boards must be on a circle 11ft. in circumference. Allowing about one-fourth for slip, we have 15ft., so that your wheels would have a diameter over all of very nearly 6ft. We fancy you would find this a very inconvenient dimension in a gig drawing only 18in. of water. The area of the floats will depend on the power applied to the crank shaft; 6in. by 12in. wide would probably suffice.

ERRATA.—In the article on the Mail Steamer Ireland which appeared on pages 184 and 185 of our last impression, page 184, second paragraph, line 10 from top, instead of 9:57 read 9:51; second paragraph, line 3, for Mr. Messam read Mr. Messum; line 11, for Mr. Beavis read Mr. Bevis. Page 185, first column, line 11 from top, for each cylinder weighs 3:15 cwt. read 33 tons 5 cwt.; last column, line 5 from the end, for 2½ hours read 2½ hours.

COAL GRINDING MACHINE.

(To the Editor of The Engineer.)

SIR,—Will any reader tell me where I can get a machine for grinding a particular kind of coal as fine as the finest flour? W. D. G.  
September 8th.

WIRE ROPE RAILWAY.

(To the Editor of The Engineer.)

SIR,—I should be obliged if any correspondent would give particulars of elevated wire rope traveller for small parcels, and where same can be obtained. TRAVELLER.

MICA PACKING.

(To the Editor of The Engineer.)

SIR,—Would any reader kindly let me know the address of the Mica Packing Company—if there is such a firm as the Mica Company—and if they have a patent for engine packing? J. R.  
September 3rd.

ATMOSPHERIC CONDENSERS.

(To the Editor of The Engineer.)

SIR,—Can any of your readers kindly inform me what proportion of cooling surface and quantity of condensing water to the weight of steam condensed are required in a surface evaporator condenser? N. H.  
September 4th.

CURVED BRESSUMERS.

(To the Editor of The Engineer.)

SIR,—I have some shops to erect, two of which at corners have curved fronts. They are semicircular, and 13ft. 0in. radius. The party-wall carries the straight ends of the wrought iron bressumer, and I am allowed only two cast iron columns besides under each. The curved girders have to carry four storeys, in brickwork, and I have no idea what strength they ought to be, nor can I find any rule in any of several books on strains which I possess. There is obviously not only a breaking strain of the ordinary kind, but a twisting stress as well. Is the girder to be treated as continuous? Which is the best place to put the columns? A reply will very much oblige a  
Hammersmith, September 7th. BUILDER.

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DEATH.

On the 4th inst., at Baddesley Vicarage, Atherstone, Warwickshire, WILLIAM YOLLAND, C.B., F.R.S., &c., Lieut.-Colonel late Royal Engineers, of 14, St. Stephen's-square, W., in his 76th year.

THE ENGINEER.

SEPTEMBER 11, 1885.

SIR LYON PLAYFAIR'S ADDRESS.

THE address delivered on Wednesday by Sir Lyon Playfair, on taking the chair at Aberdeen as President of the British Association, does not possess sufficient technical interest to entitle it to a place in our columns. It is, from beginning to end, a more or less extravagant laudation of pure science. It deals with a great many subjects of general interest, such as the relations of science and the State, science and secondary education, science and the Universities, science and industry, and abstract science a condition of progress; but in all cases science is lauded as the be-all and end-all of meritorious human existence.

With much of the address we cordially agree; to portions of it we cannot help taking exception. The defect of the address is that its author exaggerates the value of what is commonly known as science. He exalts that to the position of master, which is, after all, only a servant. Nothing can be more certain, indeed, than that a great deal is taught now which possesses no value of any kind. Formerly there existed a society "for the diffusion of useful knowledge." In the present day there exists dozens of institutions for the diffusion of useless knowledge, and the worst of the matter is that the acquisition of this useless knowledge prevents the student from acquiring that which would prove really valuable to him. "Industrial applications," says Sir Lyon Playfair, "are but the overflowings of science welling over from the fulness of its measure." This is a pretty sentiment. Is it true? We think not. What is the true value of abstract science? "Few," says the President of the British Association, "would ask now, as was constantly done a few years ago, what is the use of an abstract discovery in science?" We are among the few. It would be as proper to assert that the sand dug up by the gold miner must necessarily possess value, as it is to say that because a discovery is "scientific" it must be useful. Every year, almost every day, new discoveries are made, but the vast majority of them possess no worth whatever as means of promoting the happiness or the welfare of the human race. In no single instance has the man of pure science, entirely unaided, done anything to make mankind richer, or happier, or better. In every instance we find that discoveries have had their value imparted to them by men of a very different type, and only too often the man of science follows slowly and heavily in a track first marked out by the much despised practical man. A host of examples might be cited. The puddling furnace was invented by a man who knew nothing of science. To Trevithick and George Stephenson science was but a name. Bessemer was in no sense of the word a scientific man when he devised his steel process. Cartwright, the inventor of the power loom, Arkwright, the inventor of the spinning mule, knew nothing at all about science. Indeed, it was not until the arts had made very considerable progress that science in the modern acceptance of the term was ever heard of. Let it not be supposed that we underrate the value of pure science; we fully admit that it has value, and great value too; but it is not everything, and to assert that to it we owe an enormous debt; that we have to thank it for all our industrial and social progress, is to make a demand on our credulity which we flatly refuse to honour. The whole thesis of Sir Lyon Playfair's address may be summed up in his own words: "Abstract discovery in science is the true foundation upon which the superstructure of modern civilisation is built, and the man who would take part in it should study science, and if he can, advance it for its own sake, and not for its applications." We have here a proposition of tremendous dimensions; but we seek in vain through the address for any attempt to prove its truth. We earnestly protest against the assertion that men should seek to advance science for its own sake and not for its applications. This is one of the clap-trap sentiments of the age. There is nothing about science or knowledge of any kind in the abstract which makes it worth while to acquire it for its own sake. Its entire worth depends on its power of adding to the general store of happiness, comfort, or goodness of mankind. In a word, science is only valuable because it may be made useful. When we have learned that light requires 700 years to traverse the distance between a given star and the earth, we have gained nothing. An error of a century in the statement would in no way affect a mortal for good or ill. But the knowledge that sound travels in air at the rate of 1090ft. in a second, while light travels at 200,000 miles, becomes of value the moment it is utilised for signalling purposes, as described, for example, in another page. To minds of a certain type, however, the storing up of scientific facts, or so-called facts, gives intense pleasure—a pleasure similar to that enjoyed by Mrs. Toodles, who bought things she did not want at auctions because they "might come in handy some time or other." We have no desire whatever to interfere with men of this calibre. By all means let them go on picking up facts—turning over tons and tons of sand, and possibly finding now and then a speck of gold. But we protest that this is not the highest end that education can attain, and that a fearful amount of time may be and now is wasted in cramming young minds with information as likely to prove useful in after life as a knowledge of the art of skating would be to a Hindoo. It is but just to Sir Lyon Playfair to say that he admits that, even without the aid of what is now known as science, men contrived to make some progress in the arts. "By the end of the fifteenth century," he says, "many important manufactures were founded by empirical experiment, with only the uncertain guidance of science. Among these were the compass, printing, paper, gunpowder, guns, watches, forks, knitting needles, horseshoes, bells, wood-cutting and copper engraving, wire drawing, steel, table glass, spectacles, microscopes, glass mirrors backed with amalgam of tin and lead, windmills, crushing and saw mills. Those important manufactures arose from an increased knowledge of facts around which scientific conceptions were slowly concreting." It is to be regretted that the speaker did not go on to say what abstract science had done for mankind.

One of the prominent defects in the address which we are criticising is that it jumps to conclusions without supplying the smallest scrap of evidence that those conclusions are justifiable deductions from proved facts. Take the following for example:—"Switzerland is a remarkable illustration of how a country can compensate itself for its natural disadvantages by a scientific education of its people. Switzerland contains neither coal nor the ordinary raw materials of industry, and is separated from other countries which might supply them by mountain barriers. Yet by a singularly good system of graded schools, and by a great technical college at Zurich, she has become a prosperous manufacturing country." This is pure assertion. Sir

Lyon Playfair ought to have gone on to show in what way the great technical school at Zurich has helped Switzerland. The principal trade of this agricultural country is in cheap watches, wood carvings, and silk, and we are not aware that the technical schools have promoted these industries in the slightest degree.

On one point we thoroughly agree with Sir Lyon Playfair. It is that the system of teaching the upper and middle-classes now in vogue is far from being satisfactory. For years and years little but classical lore was imparted. There is now danger that everything under the sun will be taught. The curriculum of some schools which we could name is simply ridiculous. It is beyond question that there is growing up in our midst a generation of smatterers, who, knowing a little of everything, know nothing well. Nor can it be otherwise. Time and brains cannot acquire the information which it is deemed necessary to attempt to impart. The child, the youth, the man, have to run the gauntlet of a crowd of specialists, each of whom pretends to know but one thing well. First, we have the classical master; he knows nothing about French or German. Next comes the professor of foreign languages, who knows French and German, and nothing else. Then comes the professor of chemistry, who teaches that and nothing else. Then the lecturer on biology, who confines his attention to that subject alone will not extend the list. We find that four distinct brains are found necessary to acquire a competent knowledge of Latin and Greek, French and German, chemistry, and biology; but the single brain of the pupil is expected to hold as much as the four brains of the teachers. No one ever hears of one man teaching a dozen distinct subjects well. If we take a set of examination papers of any importance we shall find that they have been set by several men, and the certainty is that none of these men could answer all the questions set in such a way that he could pass the examination; but the candidate has to get through. This is not as it should be. The tendency of the age is to teach too much—a great deal more than can be learned. "A return," says Sir Lyon Playfair, "just issued on the motion of Sir John Lubbock shows a lamentable deficiency in science teaching in a great proportion of the endowed schools. While twelve to sixteen hours a week are devoted to classics, two or three hours are considered ample for science in a large proportion of schools." We see here nothing that calls for blame. Schools teach as a rule what pays best, and if classics are more useful to the pupil than science they will be taught. Let us take two important professions, the Church and physic. Neither can be entered or practised without a knowledge of classics. In the first modern science does not count at all; in the latter it does not count for a long time after the pupil has entered on his medical studies. Guy's Hospital annually awards two prizes each of the value of £110, that is to say, all the fees necessary for receiving a complete training in medicine and surgery. One of these is awarded for proficiency in classics and for modern language; the other for proficiency in science. But he must know Latin at least as well. It is obvious that if a boy has a turn for the classics, that even sixteen hours a week devoted to their acquisition would not be waste of time if it enabled him to win one of these prizes. As knowledge is accumulated by specialists the range of teaching must increase, and a point will soon be reached, if it is not reached now, when in the struggle to learn the pupil must succumb. Under a proper system no attempt whatever would be made to teach everything; but a judicious selection would be made by the teacher, and knowledge likely to be useless to the pupil in after life would be rigorously excluded. What will best serve one boy's purpose may be perfectly useless to another boy. We by no means advocate a classical education to the exclusion of everything else; neither would we have science, and science only, taught. Nothing of the kind; circumstances alter cases. There is no abstract good of any kind in education; its use lies in the fact that it is a means to an end. What that end may be depends on many things. It may be an improvement in morality or wisdom; or it may be the power of earning a living; or of becoming a great lawyer; a prime minister, or an engineer. But that only can be a successful system of education in the fullest sense that keeps the end to be attained in view, and results in giving the world sound minds in sound bodies.

LONDON AND THE LEA.

THE state of the river Lea is undeniably bad, and it so happens that the sufferings of the contiguous population are attracting a warm degree of sympathy from expectant candidates for Parliamentary honours. Clapton, Hackney, Homerton, and parts adjacent, literally turned out in their thousands last Saturday, and gathered in force on Hackney Downs, to protest against the continued pollution of the local river. The political clubs belonging to the district were strongly represented, in addition to other organisations, and there was a striking display of banners, bearing startling inscriptions, such as "Cholera invited," "Sewage and Starvation," and other lugubrious mottoes. The speeches generally were not remarkable for soundness of judgment, whether viewed from the standpoint of the sanitary engineer or of the enlightened politician. The chairman suggested that if a remedy for the terrible state of the river were not found before next summer, there would be danger of "riot, revolution, and bloodshed." This is not the only threat of revolution that has been launched against the peace of English society during the last few weeks, and this appears to be the recognised method just now for enforcing any desired measure of reform. There is evidently an idea in certain quarters that something of this kind is necessary, in order to quicken the naturally sluggish pace of the Legislature. Unquestionably Parliament has a work to do in reference to this subject. On the same day as the demonstration on Hackney Downs, there was a deputation to the Home-office, in which the Hackney Board of Works took part, it being hoped that the Government would render important assistance in getting the Lea into a wholesome state. But resolutions, demonstrations, and

memorials, have only a limited efficacy, and not even an Act of Parliament can repeal a physical law. The Home Secretary himself may be baffled, and the answer given by the Home-office to the deputation was little more than a confession of helplessness. Nobody seems to know exactly what to do; but everybody that can possibly get away is removing to a distance from that part of the river Lea which lies between Tottenham and the Thames. Here are some two hundred thousand people, all of whom would migrate from the spot if they could, and many of them are living in such fear of cholera that it would be no great wonder if the disease speedily appeared in their midst. The river has lately been flushed by the East London Waterworks Company, with the co-operation of the New River Company, and this has been of service for a time. But water is scant, and sewage is abundant, so that the process of flushing is only of temporary value, and discontent continues rife on the eastern borders of the metropolis. The filthy river is a sore infliction, especially as the stream was at one time a favourite resort on the part of the crowded population resident in its vicinity.

The irascibility—perhaps we ought to say the indignation—of the people who have to inhale the odours of the Lea, and who in many instances are suffering pecuniary loss by its noxious condition, is indicated by the peremptory propositions which they accept as the proper mode of proceeding. A resolution moved by a member of Parliament, and carried unanimously, declares the present polluted state of the river Lea to be disgraceful, as well as dangerous to the metropolis; and the popular will "demands that immediate action be taken to divert all sewage from the river." When this is done of course Hackney may be happy; but the sewage, if diverted from the Lea, must be conveyed elsewhere, and this involves consideration, especially in reference to the recent report of Lord Bramwell's Commission. Another proposition is that the President of the Local Government Board should send down an inspector to inquire into the causes of the present pollution, with a view to the construction of such a scheme of sewerage as shall restore the river to its original purity. This, however, scarcely offers anything very "immediate." A further proposition follows, namely, that in the ensuing Parliament there shall be a Select Committee to inquire into the privileges, powers, and duties of the water companies, the Lea Conservancy Board, and the local authorities, which in any way affect the condition of the river, with a view to such an amendment of the law as shall preserve the river from pollution. All this points to the consumption of a good deal of time, and possibly the expenditure of some money. But it is impossible not to sympathise with the popular demand. A river, once enjoyable and profitable, has become an intolerable nuisance. Thousands of people have to breathe a poisoned air, and many local industries are seriously injured. We must not criticise too nicely the remedies that are proposed. A scandalous nuisance exists, and it is simply lucky for the sufferers that a general election is close at hand. Those who seek the honour of representing the people in Parliament are just now in the right disposition of mind to listen to their complaints. From this fortunate combination of circumstances it may happen that the fearful pollution of the river Lea will serve to inaugurate a better system of dealing with town sewage. Great hopes were entertained some years ago when a Conservative Government came into power, that a law would be passed such as would restore every river in the kingdom to that state of purity that is desired for the river Lea. How far this has come to pass is partly indicated by the statement of Mr. Godfrey Lushington at the Home-office the other day, when he enumerated to the Hackney deputation the many difficulties that stood in the way of any effective remedy, and warned the gentlemen who came before him that "the Secretary of State could not by a wave of his hand, or a stroke of his pen, set the matter right." The deputation evidently wished that he could, and it is just such a summary remedy that East London is now practically demanding.

The discussion of this subject has brought into clearer light the complicated and unsatisfactory system which makes the law itself the shield of mischief. The Lea is a river polluted by Act of Parliament. It is not that engineering skill, or chemical science, cannot make an urban at least tolerable. In respect to the Lea a special clause in the Conservancy Act of 1868 allows the sewage of Tottenham to be discharged into the stream, providing it is first treated by the best known chemical process. Three other towns in the Lea Valley, one of which is Hertford, enjoy a similar privilege. In the case of Tottenham, the Conservators, however dissatisfied with what is being done, cannot take proceedings without the previous consent of the Home Secretary. Ten years ago the Conservators sought this consent and met with a refusal. Last year another attempt was made, and the Home Secretary then decided that the Tottenham sewage was not being properly treated. The Conservators accordingly gave the Local Board notice to amend their works. The answer of the Board was a law suit, but the Conservators gained the day. The time allowed for improving the works has expired, further litigation has followed, and the contending parties now find themselves in the Chancery Division of the High Court of Justice, or will do so at the close of the Long Vacation. In the meantime a contract is in progress for enlarging the Tottenham Sewage Works, the estimate being £15,000. Supposing that a good sewage process has been adopted, and that the works will be sufficiently extensive, we might hope for a marked improvement in the character of the effluent. But the estimated population of Tottenham at the present time is 50,000, and it still grows. In justice to the Tottenham Board it should be stated that in 1867 they supported a scheme, prepared by Sir J. Bazalgette, for the formation of a drainage district comprehending the entire valley of the Lea, the sewage to be taken to Barking Creek. The project was abandoned owing to the impossibility of getting the requisite union among the authorities concerned. A second attempt was made at a later date, the plan being remodelled, but the

requisite parliamentary sanction was not obtained. In 1882 something of the same kind was repeated, but as the united action of no less than fifteen sanitary authorities was requisite, the project broke down through lack of unanimity. As far back as 1869 the Local Board sought parliamentary powers to obtain land for the purpose of treating the sewage agriculturally, but the opposition of the surrounding parishes proved fatal, and the more patriotic members of the Tottenham Board had to defray the expenses out of their own pockets. The latest effort of the Board, apart from chemical treatment, was to support a memorial addressed to the Metropolitan Board of Works, asking that the Tottenham sewage might be taken into the metropolitan system. Last February the answer to this application was given in a form which, while it opened up certain probabilities in the future, was yet for the present a negative. With this review of the facts, it would seem that the Tottenham Board were compelled to go on with the chemical treatment of the sewage, although it might prove to be only a temporary measure. Unfortunately the Board had fallen very much behind in the march of events, and had carried out the deodorisation of the sewage in a very imperfect fashion. We cannot help thinking they might have done greatly better, even with their existing means, had they set to work with determination. As it is, they seem more skilful in their litigation than in the disposal of the sewage. No doubt the plans of the Board have been somewhat checked by the prospect from time to time of some other scheme taking the place of chemical treatment. At last a deficiency in the rainfall, and the enlarged demands of the Water Companies for a supply, have united with a greatly increased population to aggravate the state of the river, and affairs have clearly reached a crisis. Major Laverock Flower, the Sanitary Engineer to the Lea Conservancy Board, has repeatedly stated in his official reports that until a main sewer, similar to that which has been designed by Sir J. Bazalgette, Messrs. Law and Chatterton, and himself, has been carried out, the river Lea below the intakes will remain a polluted stream. Major Flower seems to have little faith in the Tottenham Sewage Works, and looks for the day when the sewage will be carried entirely out of the district. It is rather to be apprehended that with the enlargement of the Tottenham Works there will be an increased nuisance from the sludge. This, although not affecting the river, will poison the atmosphere. In his evidence before the Royal Commissioners, Major Flower stated that there was not sufficient storage-room for the sludge at Tottenham, and an intolerable nuisance was created. The sludge was partly removed by a farmer twice a week, and the remainder was put on the banks of the Lea, where it lost its offensiveness and became like garden mould.

Notwithstanding all the excitement or enthusiasm that now exists with regard to the condition of the Lea, we perceive no immediate prospect of any final and satisfactory change. The state of the river, in all its horrid offensiveness, shows of how little value is the Act of 1868. The Conservators declare that they have done all it is in their power to do; yet so far as the existing results are concerned, it would seem that the river below Tottenham is none the better for all their efforts. The inhabitants of the locality may wait and see what good will come of an enlarged dose of chemicals and an extended series of settling tanks. This ought to accomplish something in the case of a river which is not used for a drinking supply; and if such a scheme were carried out with skill, aided by a liberal expenditure of money, the river must needs be greatly improved in its quality. If the Lea Valley, with its 800,000 inhabitants, is to have the benefit of a combined system of drainage, the question becomes a very large one, and connects itself with the relief of other localities contiguous to the metropolis. The engineer and the chemist will both have to be called into the field. The Metropolitan Board, in an elaborate report which they adopted some few months ago, in connection with the Tottenham memorial, shadowed forth some important changes. The main difficulty, in the judgment of the Board, was the settlement of the existing financial liabilities. But at the same time there was the declaration that if Her Majesty's Government should decide to promote legislation with a view to bringing outlying districts within the metropolitan area, the Board would not be unwilling to undertake the duty of dealing with the sewage of the lower valley of the Lea, as well as that of other outlying districts. When this comes to pass, the system of main drainage connected with the metropolis will, indeed, be vast, exceeding anything that was contemplated when the present works were commenced. Not only the sewage of London, but of a considerable portion of the Outer Ring, will be gathered up and carried away—the question arises, Whither? This is the grand difficulty of the sewage problem, and it would seem that in this matter the engineer must play into the hands of the agriculturist or the chemist. If neither will serve his turn, there is nothing left but the sea; and yet we cannot consent to have the pleasant shores of the sea made foul with the sewage of towns.

#### FOREIGN v. ENGLISH STEAM ENGINES.

It has come to our knowledge that certain engineers in this country feel themselves aggrieved because we have spoken of the steam engines exhibited at Antwerp in terms of praise. These gentlemen hold, it seems, that if we cannot find fault with what our competitors and rivals abroad produce, we ought to keep silence and say nothing at all concerning them. Others who do not go so far as this, tell us that the Belgian or French purchaser is willing to pay a much larger price than the English millowner is content to give. In other words, the English buyer will not pay for a first-class article and the foreigner will. The result is that the Belgian engine is admittedly better than the English engine. These assertions deserve some attention. We fancy that no defence of our own policy is necessary, but a few words of explanation may be expedient. We are told on the one hand that we should not give the English pur-

chaser a hint that good steam engines are made and publicly exhibited abroad; and on the other, that the reason of the existence of foreign excellence is that long prices are asked and obtained. Now, if the English millowner will not give a long price for an English engine, why should he give a long price for a Belgian engine? It seems tolerably obvious that if the long price argument is sound, it matters not how many intending purchasers find their way to Antwerp. They will in the long run come back to England for what they want. Unfortunately the argument is not sound, and we shall endeavour presently to show that engines are not much dearer abroad than at home. But, setting this on one side for the moment, we proceed to explain that an important function of this journal is to keep its readers informed of what is going on in the engineering world abroad as well as at home. To permit our readers to live in a fool's paradise; to continually praise and laud English practice; to tell makers of engines at home that these are the best in the world, would be an extremely short-sighted policy, the effects of adopting which would without fail make themselves apparent in the loss of reputation for honesty of purpose, which no English journal can live without. We find at home that trade is falling off—going from bad to worse, indeed—and on every hand we are told that the foreigner is cutting us out of the world's markets. Are we to keep silence instead of using all the influence we possess to induce English engineers—English producers in general—to look around them and see for themselves why they are cut out of foreign markets? There can be but one answer to this question. We must speak. We must fearlessly bring the truth before our readers. If a number of firms make in Belgium steam engines better than those made in England by all but a very few firms, it is our duty to tell English makers what is being done while there is time for amendment, so that they can meet the foreigner on his own ground and beat him at all points. Far be it from us to say that Englishmen cannot build the best machinery in the world. But the power of doing this is useless unless it is exerted. The way in which mischief accrues here is not as clearly understood as it ought to be. The facts admit of illustration. Messrs. Crosshead, Bolt, and Co. build up for themselves in the course of years a nice and remunerative business as tool makers, let us say. One of the firm was brought up in the shops of Sir Joseph Whitworth and Company. The firm was fortunate enough to secure the services as leading draughtsman of a gentleman of very extended experience in more than one tool-making establishment. Under these conditions very excellent tools are turned out, and a capital foreign connection is got together. By-and-by, however, it is found that profits are not quite what they were expected to be, and it is tacitly agreed to cut things down all round. The leading draughtsman gets his dismissal. His place is filled by a cheaper man. Less care is taken to finish things well. The weight and scantling of framing is reduced. The various bearings and rubbing surfaces are diminished, and in this way cheap tools are produced and the foreign market gets flooded with them. For a time all goes well. Then the German, the Belgian, or the Frenchman appears on the scene. He produces a much better article for a very little more money, and Messrs. Crosshead, Bolt, and Co., wake up some morning to find that their connection has practically disappeared. If they had kept their eyes open to what the foreign tool makers were doing, if they had believed the statements made by their representatives abroad, all would have been well. As it is all is ill. We paint no fancy picture. It is matter of common knowledge that the English tool trade in South Europe has been all but destroyed by sending out rubbish instead of honestly made tools. Time was when neither Germany, France, nor Belgium could compete for a moment with England in the production of machine tools. That day is for ever passed away. The same thing is true of steam engines. In the construction of these, enormous strides have been made abroad since the Paris Exhibition of 1878. To keep silence concerning this would be simply to commit a breach of faith with our readers. It is our duty to warn the unwary. It is for the engineers of Great Britain to exert themselves, and to prove that no people in the world can supply better machinery than they can.

The statement that foreign millowners will pay more for their engines than can be obtained at home, strikes us as being very remarkable, and needs confirmation. Owing to protection, the Belgian millowner may be assumed to have to pay more for his engines in any case, but why in addition to this he should be willing to pay a further sum for excellence, which the English millowner will not pay, requires explanation. Coal is dearer no doubt in Belgium than it is here, but not much dearer; and if protection tends on the one hand to raise prices, on the other the cost of labour being small, things are pretty nearly balanced; and besides all this there is a very keen competition indeed among Belgian and French engineers. To this competition we are disposed to attribute a great deal of the excellence which we find in the Antwerp Machinery Gallery. Foreign makers say, "Let us make a better engine than our rivals;" English engineers say, "Let us make a cheaper engine than our rivals." There can be no question at all which policy is the wisest—which will turn out the best in the long run. Even in this question of cheapness it is by no means certain that we have the advantage of our foreign rivals. We have already stated that steel engine castings can be delivered by German firms in England at a less price than home makers can supply them for; therefore it is certain that German steam engine makers can beat us on this item. We may cite an actual example of prices, however, which will be more instructive than any general statement. Herr A. Knoevenagel, of Hanover, exhibits at Antwerp a horizontal engine, illustrating a type which he produces in quantity of various sizes. This is a very well made engine indeed, with overhung cylinder, and Rider cut-off valve—or double-beat valves on a modified Corliss system can be had instead by the purchaser. In all respects this appears to be a satisfactory engine, and Herr Knoevenagel has had



THE EFFICIENCY OF AMERICAN STEAM BOILERS.

(Continued from page 188.)

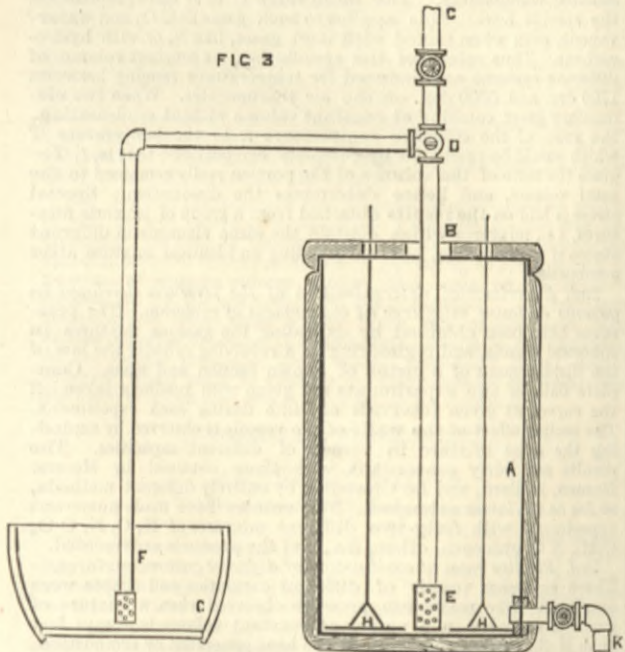
**Barrel calorimeter.**—One apparatus used for testing the quality of the steam was an ordinary barrel resting on Riehle's scales. A quantity of water was put into the barrel and its weight noted. Just before making the experiment the temperature of the water was noted. A steam pipe from the boiler led down to within a short distance of the barrel and was covered with felting. To the end of this pipe a short length of hose was attached. Everything being ready for the experiment, the steam was turned on the hose and allowed to blow into the air until apparently dry steam showed at the end of the hose. This end was then put into the barrel and the temperature of the water allowed to rise from 10 to 20 deg., the water being constantly agitated. The hose was then taken out and the temperature of the water in the barrel noted. The weight was then taken and the pressure of steam during the experiment noted. From this data the quality of the steam was calculated. In making the calculations allowance was made for the water equivalent of the barrel used. The barrel being partly filled with water to the level used in the experiments and its temperature noted, a quantity of warm water of known temperature was added and the resulting temperature noted. Knowing the weights of water used, the equivalent of the barrel was found as follows:—Multiply the added weight of water by the number of heat units lost by the warm water, and divide by the heat units gained by the cold water. This quotient, less the weight of cold water in the barrel, is the water equivalent of the barrel. Allowing the water to remain in the barrel for three minutes made no appreciable change in the temperature, showing that there was but little loss from radiation during each experiment, which did not generally last over two minutes. The following formula was used in making the calculations from data derived while using this apparatus, and an examination of the results will show that they vary surprisingly:—

- $w$  = weight of cold water plus water equivalent of barrel.
- $g$  = heat units corresponding to temperature of cold water, counting from 32 deg. Fah.
- $g_1$  = heat units corresponding to temperature of the mixture, counting from 32 deg. Fah.
- $H$  = heat units—latent—corresponding to the temperature and pressure of steam.
- $g_2$  = heat units—sensible—corresponding to the temperature and pressure of the steam, counting from 32 deg. Fah.
- $w_1$  = weight of water and steam added.
- $\phi$  = water combined in  $w_1$ .

$$\phi = 1 + \frac{1}{H} \left\{ (g_2 - g_1) \frac{w}{w_1} (g_1 - g) \right\}$$

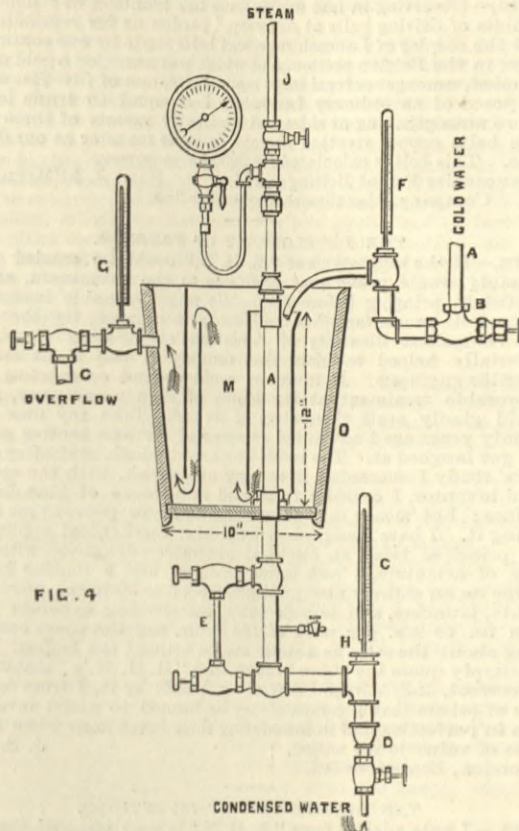
The numerical quantities used in making these calculations were taken from Röntgen's "Thermodynamics"—Du Bois' translation—and are substantially the same as other tables derived from the same source, and were used because they were familiar to the young men making the calculations. The second apparatus used was on the same general principle, and only differed from the first in matters of detail. It is shown in Fig. 3.  $a$  represents a tin tank, high in proportion to its diameter, and heavily covered with

FIG 3



felt and canvas. A tin cover  $b$  fitting over this tank had an opening in its centre for admitting steam or cold water.  $c$  is the pipe from the boiler, branching at three-way cock  $d$ . One branch goes down into the tank  $a$ , and has the rose  $e$  at its lower end. The other branch terminates in the rose  $f$ , in the tank  $g$ , which is kept partly filled with water.  $k$  is the drain pipe and valve for emptying  $a$ . The method of operating the calorimeter is as follows:—The weight of the tank  $a$  is taken. It is then partly filled with water, and the weight and temperature is noted. Steam being off the pipe  $c$ , the three-way cock  $d$  is turned so that  $c$  and  $f$  are in communication. Steam is now turned on  $c$  and passes into the water in  $g$ . As soon as the pipe is heated and clear of any condensed water, the three-way cock  $d$  is turned and the steam allowed to pass into  $a$ . As soon as a sufficient quantity, say 10 lb., has passed into  $a$ , the three-way cock is turned into its original position and steam is shut off  $c$ .  $h$  is an annular perforated plate, having two handles extending through the cover  $b$ , and is used to thoroughly mix the water in  $a$ . The temperature is now taken and also the weight of the tank and its contents. The pressure of the steam is noted, and the experiment is ended. The water equivalent of the tank is determined as for the simple barrel, and the calculations are made in the same way as before. When this and the previous method were used at the same time, the results entirely disagreed. The third method used was one devised by Mr. Barrus, a member of the committee on steam engines, and was used on both boiler and engine tests. Fig. 4 is a sketch of the apparatus. It consisted of a wooden vessel  $o$ , mounted on a frame at the proper height for use. Inside this vessel were two partitions, so that any water passing from the centre of the vessel must pass over one and under the second. In the centre of the vessel was a vertical cylinder  $m$  which confined the coldest condensing water to the centre of the apparatus. The condensing water passed down the pipe  $A$ , through a valve by which the quantity was regulated, and into the cylinder  $m$ , out at the bottom of  $m$ , and out through  $c$ . The pipe  $j$  was connected directly to the boiler or steam pipe from which the steam was to be taken. Below the globe valve is shown a branch pipe, forming a gauge syphon. Below the vessel  $o$  there is attached to the main pipe a glass water gauge  $e$ , and below this there was a globe valve  $d$ , which regulated the discharge of the condensed steam. A short piece of hose was attached, and the condensed water was drawn off into two buckets, set on accurate pairs of Fairbanks' balances. These buckets were partly filled with cold water, and their weights were taken. A quantity of the condensed water was run into one, and before the temperature had risen to 100 deg. Fah., the hose was moved to the other bucket. The weight of the bucket of warm water was noted, and the difference of the weights is the weight of the condensed

steam. The bucket was emptied and partly filled with cold water again. The condensing water, after passing  $c$ , emptied into a tank, which was supported over two barrels. The water could be directed into either at will. The barrels were weighed empty and full, and the difference taken as the weight of the condensing water. The temperature of the condensing water was taken at  $f$ , before going into  $o$ , and at  $g$ , after doing its work. The temperature of the condensed water was taken at  $C$ , and the temperature of the live steam was taken from the corresponding pressure. The method of operating the apparatus was as follows:—One barrel under  $c$  was empty and its weight known, and one bucket was partly filled with cold water and its weight known. Any water passing through  $c$  flowed into the unweighed barrel, and was allowed to escape through a valve at the bottom. The small hose attached below  $d$  discharges into the air. The thermometers and gauge being in place, the valves  $b$  and  $c$  were opened wide and water allowed to flow through  $m$ . The steam valve was then opened, and steam allowed to condense in the pipe, the valve  $d$  being closed. As soon as the water got to a determined level in



the pipe and in  $c$ , the valve  $d$  was opened sufficiently to allow as much water to escape as was condensed. The steam valve was opened wide, and the supply of cold water was regulated by the valve  $b$ , until the desired difference of temperature between  $A$  and  $g$  was obtained. The level of the water in  $c$  should be maintained. This being the case, the water at  $c$  was turned into the weighed barrel, and the hose from  $d$  put into the bucket containing the weighed quantity of water. Readings of the gauge and thermometers were taken every five minutes during the tests. While the barrel and bucket were filling, the others, which we will call 2, were being prepared. Barrel 2 had the valve at the bottom closed, and was weighed. Bucket 2 was partly filled with water, and weighed. Bucket 1 being filled, the hose was turned into No. 2, and No. 1 was weighed, emptied, and again filled with cold water, and weighed. The difference between the first two weighings of bucket 1 is the amount of condensed water. Barrel 1 being filled, the water from  $c$  was turned into barrel 2. Barrel 1 was weighed, emptied wholly or in part, and was again weighed. The difference between the first two weighings of barrel 1 is the amount of condensing water used. When it is desired to end the experiment, the barrel and bucket in use should be changed at the same instant, and weighed, and the steam closed off. One point to be particularly guarded against is the blowing of live steam into the buckets, as in that case the water in the buckets becomes part of the condensing water, and no provision is made for such a contingency. The calculations were made in the following way:—The total amount of condensing and condensed water was determined. The average of the readings of thermometers and gauge was found. Using the same nomenclature as before, with the following addition and change, the quantity of moisture was determined by the following formula:

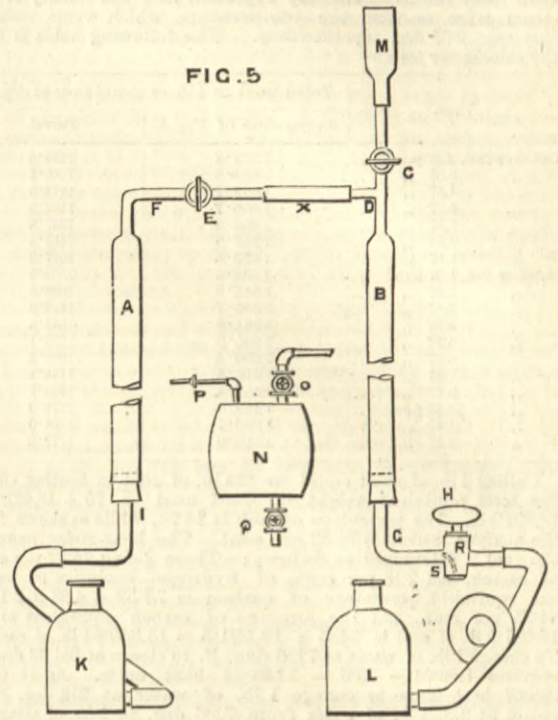
- $g_1$  = heat units corresponding to temperature of condensing water after passing through calorimeter, counting from 32 deg.
- $g_3$  = heat units corresponding to temperature of condensed steam, counting from 32 deg.

$$\phi = 1 + \frac{1}{H} \left\{ (g_2 - g_3) - \frac{w}{w_1} (g_1 - g) \right\}$$

**Quality of gases of combustion.**—The apparatus used for making these tests was loaned by Professor Denton, and a sketch of it is given in Fig. 5. The entire apparatus is mounted on a frame, so that it can easily be moved from place to place. It consists of two glass tubes  $a$  and  $b$ , each of about 120 cubic centimetres capacity, joined together by means of the necks  $d$  and  $f$ , connected by a piece of rubber tubing  $x$ . The neck of  $b$  extends vertically, and has a stop cock  $c$  above the connection with  $d$ , and above this tube is tapered and ground to form a seat for the funnel  $m$ . To the bottom of  $a$  is attached, by means of a rubber cork, a piece of glass tubing  $i$ , to which is attached a piece of rubber tubing, leading to the bottle  $k$ . To the bottom of  $b$  a similar attachment is made, the only difference being that in the tube  $g$  a two-way stop cock  $h$  is fitted. One opening, shown at  $s$ , opens downward, so that the contents of  $b$  can be emptied without passing into  $l$ . The other opening is directly through the cock, and connects  $b$  and  $l$ .  $n$  is a small barrel having a pipe and valve  $o$  for filling it with water,  $q$  a pipe and valve for emptying it, and  $p$  a piece of gas piping with cock, the uses of which will be explained. The method of using the apparatus and making the tests is as follows:—The top of the tube  $b$  above  $c$  is connected with the chimney whose gases are to be analysed. The tubing connecting  $g$  and  $l$  is removed, and  $g$  and  $p$  are connected by means of tubing. The bottle  $k$ , being filled with water, is raised until the water runs through  $d$ ,  $e$  being open, and fills  $d$  to its connection with  $b$ . The cock  $e$  is then closed, and  $k$  is lowered to its original position. The pipe  $o$  connected with a hydrant  $q$  is closed, the cock in  $p$  is opened,  $c$  is opened, and  $h$  is put in such a position that  $b$  and  $n$  are in communication. Water is allowed to run from the hydrant until  $n$ ,  $b$ , and the pipe connecting with the chimney are filled with water.  $o$  is then closed, and  $q$  is opened. The water flows back through  $b$ , and the chimney gas follows. After sufficient gas has been allowed to pass through  $b$ , the cocks  $c$  and  $h$  are closed. The tubing connecting  $b$  and the chimney, and that connecting  $q$  and  $p$ , are taken off, and the bottle  $l$  is again attached to  $g$ . A certain volume of the chimney gas is now confined in  $b$ , and the apparatus can be moved to any convenient place for further work. The cock  $c$  being closed,  $e$  and  $h$  are opened, and the water is allowed to flow back into  $k$  until a certain quantity—say 100 cubic centimetres—of

the gas is in  $a$ . The cock  $e$  is closed, and the gas allowed to assume the temperature of the air. The cock  $h$  is turned so that  $b$  can be washed out,  $c$  is opened, and the funnel  $m$  put on;  $b$  is washed out, and filled with clear water from  $l$ , the cock  $h$  being again turned and  $c$  being closed;  $h$  is now raised until the level of the water in  $a$  and  $k$  is the same, and the reading of the scale on  $a$  is noted. In the apparatus used, the volume was divided into cubic centimetres, beginning at the cock  $e$ , but any division into equal volumes would do equally well, and it is not at all necessary that 100 cubic centimetres, or 100 equal parts, should be used in the calculations. The volume in  $a$  being noted, the cock  $e$  is opened,  $h$  being already so, and the gas is passed back into  $b$ . The cock  $e$  is closed. The funnel  $m$  is partly filled with caustic potash, the cock  $h$  is closed, and the cock  $c$  is opened, until the greater part of the caustic potash has passed into  $b$ ;  $c$  is now closed,  $e$  is opened, and the gas

FIG. 5



again passed into  $a$ , where its volume is again noted, the level of the liquid in  $a$  and  $k$  being the same. As the caustic potash has absorbed all the carbonic acid— $\text{CO}_2$ —in the gas, the difference in readings already taken is the volume of carbonic acid in the gas. The tube  $b$  is washed out and the process is repeated, using pyrogallic acid in caustic potash, and copper chloride in hydrochloric acid. The first of these removes the oxygen, and the last the carbonic oxide— $\text{CO}$ . To determine the amount of air present per pound of carbon, add together the volume of  $\text{O}$  and  $\text{CO}$  and twice the volume of  $\text{CO}_2$ . Divide by the sum of the volumes of  $\text{CO}$  and  $\text{CO}_2$ , and  $\frac{1}{2}$  the quotient is the weight of oxygen present per pound of carbon. This result divided by .23 is the weight of air used per pound of carbon, and this result divided by the percentage of carbon in the coal is the weight of air used per pound of coal.

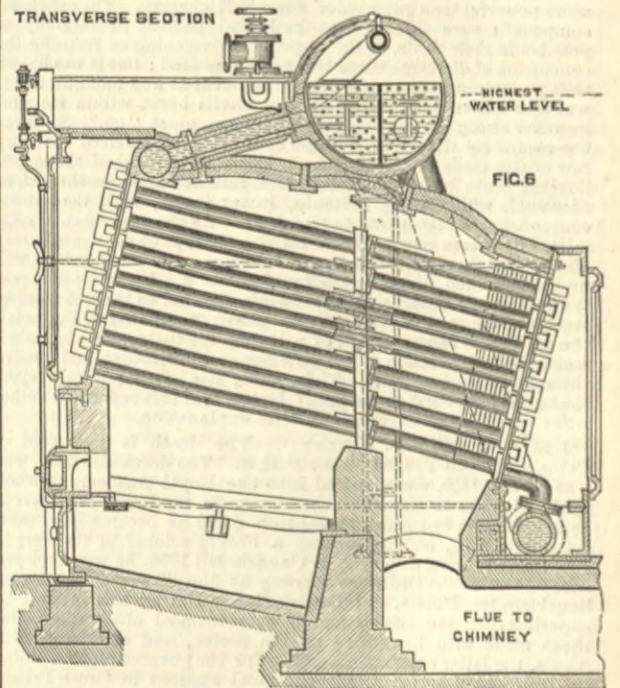
**Making the tests.**—In making the boiler tests, steam was first raised to the working pressure in each boiler, and the fires were then hauled. All wood and coal used thereafter was weighed, and at the end of the test the fire was hauled, any unburnt coal credited to the boiler. Water in the boiler was carried as nearly as possible at one height, and at the end of the test was brought back to the same level as at the beginning of the test.

**Duration of the tests.**—Each test lasted thirty-six hours, except in the case of the Baldwin boiler, where the test was terminated at the end of twenty-four hours. The following are the results of the different tests, together with the results derived from the observed data.

ROOT BOILER.

Before testing this boiler—Fig. 6—the back was boarded up. No other preparations were made for the test, except cleaning the boiler the day before. Ordinary care was taken with the fires, and

TRANSVERSE SECTION



the boiler was treated as in ordinary use. Fires were started at 2.15 a.m., October 2nd, and as soon as the pressure of steam to be carried was reached, fires were hauled, and again started at 3.25 a.m., with a weighed quantity of wood and coal. At 3.25 p.m., October 3rd, fires were hauled, and the test concluded.

Boiler made by Aberneth and Root Manufacturing Company.

Rated horse-power	150
Area heating surface:	
Having water on one side	= 1440 sq. ft.
Having steam on one side	= 360 sq. ft.
Total	= 1800 sq. ft.
Area of grate	= 50 sq. ft.
Steam space (approximate)	= 76.5 cub. ft.
Height of smoke stack	= 44ft. 6in.
Size of stack	= 30 by 30in.
Time of test	= 36 hours
Water evaporated in boiler	= 184,937.3 lb.
Mean temperature of feed-water	= 71.6 deg. F.
Total weight of wood used	= 291.5 lb.
Total weight of coal used	= 18,021.5 lb.
Total weight of ashes	= 2666.75 lb.





of pig iron there is too much metal produced to meet the requirements of consumers. Deliveries are very limited, especially inland, but for the moment large deliveries are being made for shipping.

THE SHEFFIELD DISTRICT.

(From our own Correspondent.)

THE Board of Trade returns for August again disclose, under analysis, an increase of £140 in the exports of iron and steel as compared with the corresponding month of 1884, but a decrease of £1,999,883 for the eight months as compared with the first eight months of 1884.

In steel rails the value has advanced from £202,617 in August, 1884, to £297,538 in August, 1885. The chief increasing markets are Sweden and Norway, from £15,612 to £16,261; British North America, from £15,212 to £50,473; British East Indies, from £19,911 to £129,624.

While these figures concern the whole country as well as the South Yorkshire district, the statistics of unwrought steel and hardware and cutlery are of special interest to Sheffield. In August, 1883, unwrought steel was exported to the value of £103,316; in August, 1884, £82,239; and last month, £80,248.

September usually brings a slight advance in the prices of coal. This has been secured, as usual, by several colliery owners; but it is doubtful if it will be generally obtained before October.

THE NORTH OF ENGLAND.

(From our own Correspondent.)

DURING last week a considerable amount of business was done in Cleveland pig iron at advanced prices, 32s. 3d. per ton being freely given by buyers for No. 3 g.m.b.

Holders of warrants are reluctant to sell at present, and quote 34s. per ton as the lowest price they will accept.

Shipments of pig iron proceed at a satisfactory rate, 20,380 tons having been sent away between the 1st and the 8th of the month, as against 18,865 tons during the corresponding portion of August, and 15,163 tons in July.

There is no improvement in the finished iron trade; in fact, makers have great difficulty in getting specifications to keep their mills at work. Notwithstanding the advance in pig iron, the prices of manufactured iron are still unaltered.

steel trade generally is very dull, especially in respect of rail orders. Steel plate and angle mills are fairly well employed, and prices are maintained at about £7 per ton for plates and £6 12s. 6d. for angles.

The Cleveland ironmasters' statistics for August, issued at the end of last week, show that ninety-five furnaces are now in blast, being two less than in July. The total quantity of pig iron of all kinds made in the district was 206,658 tons, being 4688 tons less than during the previous month.

The total value of exports from Middlesbrough last month—exclusive of coal and coke—was £197,802, being an increase, as compared with August, 1884, of £17,284.

The strike at Sir W. G. Armstrong, Mitchell, and Co.'s works proceeds apace. The men's committee meets daily to manage tactics, and to consider ways and means. Delegates have been sent off to various engineering centres to try to enlist the sympathies of other operatives and obtain subscriptions.

Indeed, everything goes to show that in dictating to their employers whom they should appoint as managers, and whom they should not, and in endeavouring to force their own views, the operatives have entered upon a course from which they will eventually be compelled to retreat with ignominy and loss.

NOTES FROM SCOTLAND.

(From our own Correspondent.)

THE Glasgow pig iron market has been very excited this week, and a very large business has taken place in warrants at an advance in some cases of fully 2s. a ton compared with the quotations of the previous week.

Business was done in the warrant market on Monday at 42s. 8d. to 43s. 5d. cash. On Tuesday forenoon the quotations were 43s. 4d. to 43s. 11d. cash, but there was a reaction in the afternoon, when the market closed at 43s. 1d. cash.

The values of makers' iron are higher in consequence of the upward movement in warrants. Free on board at Glasgow, Gartscherrie, No. 1, is quoted at 47s.; No. 3, 45s.; Coltness, 51s. and 46s. 6d.; Langloan, 48s. 6d. and 45s. 6d.; Summerlee, 47s. 6d. and 44s.; Calder, 52s. and 44s.; Carnbroe, 46s. and 43s. 6d.; Clyde, 46s. 6d. and 42s. 6d.; Monkland, 43s. and 41s.; Quarter, 42s. 6d. and 40s. 6d.; Govan, at Broomielaw, 43s. and 41s.; Shotts, at Leith, 47s. 6d. and 46s. 6d.; Carron, at Grangemouth, 51s. and 47s.; Kinneil, at Bo'ness, 44s. 6d. and 43s. 6d.; Glengarnock, at Ardrossan, 46s. and 42s. 6d.; Eglinton, 42s. 6d. and 40s.; Dalmellington, 44s. and 40s.

Several contracts for new vessels have been placed with Clyde builders since last report, including an order which has been given to Messrs. Murdoch and Murray, Port Glasgow, to build a steel screw tug to be employed at Cape Verde Islands, the machinery of which is to be supplied by a Glasgow firm.

Coalmasters report rather less inquiry this week, but the current shipments of coals are large. At Glasgow they have amounted to

24,712 tons; Irvine, 2856; Troon, 8771; Ayr, 7506; and Grangemouth, 20,542. As the orders slacken, it appears that, notwithstanding the low prices current for a long time, there has been a disposition to undersell, with the object of pushing business.

The Scotch miners sent delegates to the first conference of a national character that has been held for a long time, which took place in Glasgow a few days ago. There was a fair attendance. It was resolved that the eight hours' day be made general from the 14th current, that a demand of 6d. a day of an increase be made from the central Board, and that the miners of Scotland work only five days a week until further orders.

WALES AND ADJOINING COUNTIES.

(From our own Correspondent.)

I NOTICED in my letter of last week a slight tendency in the iron and steel trade towards improvement. This continues, and a more cheerful tone exists, although I must admit prospects have not as yet culminated into certainties.

Much regret is felt that a large firm of shippers and coalowners, Poignestre and Mesnier, have fallen into financial difficulties, and are offering a composition. This, I hope, will be accepted. At present the shipping trade is as bad as it can well be, and the coal trade no better than what I have reported for the last two months.

Singularly enough Swansea enjoys a better trade for second-class steam coal than the other ports, and local collieries are in consequence kept going with some degree of regularity.

The Nettlefolds Company, of Birmingham, are going to restart Rogerston Works, near Newport, as a nut and bolt works.

TENDERS.

HINCKLEY LOCAL BOARD.—WELL SINKING, &c.

THE following are the tenders for well sinking, &c., which were advertised for recently in THE ENGINEER:—

Table with 2 columns: Name and Price. E. Timmins, Runcorn... 998 5 0; R. Speller, London... 570 0 0; E. Turner, Wolverhampton... 545 0 0; W. Taylor, Reigate... 605 10 0; W. Bennett, Bromsgrove... 661 2 0; J. Smalley, Hull—accepted... 427 18 4

SOCIETY OF ENGINEERS.—By permission of Messrs. Westwood, Baillie and Co., arrangements have been made for the members and associates of the Society and their friends to visit the London Yard Engineering Works, Isle of Dogs, E., on Wednesday, the 16th September.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, BRISTOL.—The next session of the college will begin on 6th October. Lectures and classes are held every day and evening throughout the session. In the chemical department lectures and classes are given in all branches of theoretical chemistry, and instruction in practical chemistry is given daily in the chemical laboratory.



