

ON THE RUNNING DOWN OF BATTERIES AS INFLUENCED BY THEIR PERFORMANCE OF MECHANICAL WORK.

By Dr. OLIVER LODGE.

ALTHOUGH there is nothing but what is perfectly well known in the relation between the running down of a battery and the amount of external work it is doing, yet, inasmuch as batteries are not unlikely to be more and more generally used as sources of mechanical power, it may be worth while to answer the question of the Cromer "Student" in your issue of 22nd January somewhat fully.

The correspondent describes an interesting model of an electric hammer driven by a battery, which does about 150 foot-pounds of work per minute, or has about the two-hundredth of a horse-power; and he then proceeds to say that whereas the books tell him that his battery should run down faster when the hammer is stationary than when it is at work, he finds no such result; and he implies, or at least it is not unnatural for him to think, that he would have expected the battery to run down faster while doing mechanical work than while not.

Now the first thing to thoroughly grasp is that the consumption of material in a battery is simply proportional to the strength of current flowing through it; provided, of course, all local action is avoided; it depends on the quantity of electricity transmitted, and on nothing else. The amount of zinc dissolved in every cell of a series battery per ampere hour is accurately known, and is 1.21 grammes.

Hence any cause which increases the strength of current hastens the running down of the battery; and any cause which opposes the current retards the consumption of material. Now the performance of mechanical work of whatever sort, by a current, necessarily sets up an opposition E M F and weakens the current, as may be proved, and was proved by Helmholtz in 1847, as follows:—

Let E be the electro-motive force of a battery, supposed constant; and let C be the current flowing round a circuit of total resistance R, resistance also being supposed constant. Then, by definition of E M F, the "horse-power," or work done per minute by the current, is E C.

As the current flows round the circuit heat is generated, and this heat was found by Joule experimentally to equal R C² per unit of time.

Now if we first suppose that there is no working machine in the circuit—i.e., no machine actually at work—stationary machines there may be as much as one pleases, and they may be holding up weights; but they must not be moving either in the way of raising or lowering them, neither must there be any chemical decomposition going on, or any form of activity other than that already considered in the battery; I say, given all these conditions, it follows, by the conservation of energy or the first law of thermo-dynamics, that

$$E C = R C^2 \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

an equation which asserts, when we compare it with the Ohm's law definition of R ($R = \frac{E M F}{C}$), that through-out the circuit, under the supposed circumstances, there is no E M F, but E.

But now make another supposition: Suppose a working machine, or a decomposition cell, or some other form of activity, introduced into the circuit, whereby the current shall be made to do work—raising weights, for instance, or turning machinery—and let the horse-power of this machine be called P. Then no longer can we equate the power of the battery with the heat produced; we are compelled to take into account every form of energy which is being developed, mechanical or chemical as well as thermal, and so our equation becomes—

$$E C = R C^2 + P \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

And if again we compare this with the Ohm's law definition of R ($R = \frac{E M F}{C}$) we find that E is no longer the sole or effective E M F in the circuit, but that the total E M F is $E - \frac{P}{C}$; that is, there is an opposition E M F, of strength $\frac{P}{C}$, and it is natural to consider this opposition E M F as set up in and by the moving machine; or in and by the decomposition cell, if such it be that has been included in the circuit, in which latter case the opposition E M F is known as polarisation. And be it noted that it matters not whether decomposition goes on in a special cell or in one of the battery cells—wherever it goes on it subtracts its full quota of E M F from the current, and is equally well called polarisation.

It is plain then that, since by an active machine the total E M F of the circuit is diminished while its resistance remains unaltered, it follows that the current must be weakened. And inasmuch as the wear of the battery depends simply on the current, the wear of the battery is likewise reduced by the activity of the machine.

It is easy enough to write down an expression for the strength of the current in terms of the power which the machine is exerting, i.e., the work it is doing per second, by simply solving equation (2); and it is

$$C = \frac{E}{2R} \left\{ 1 + \sqrt{1 - \frac{4RP}{E^2}} \right\}$$

which shows that the greatest possible mechanical power obtainable by perfect appliances from the given circuit is $\frac{E^2}{4R}$; and that when this is obtained an equal amount is expended in generating waste heat. Moreover it shows that the consumption of material in the battery under these circumstances is exactly half what it is when the machine is held stationary and not allowed to work, and that no slower battery-wear than this half-rate is possible, so long as the machine is really worked by the battery and is not driven by some outside power; but that any faster wear is easy, up to the maximum, when the machine is stationary, of $\frac{E}{R}$.

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ternal power 0 and internal or waste power $\frac{E^2}{R}$;

The minimum rate of wear is $\frac{E}{2R}$, corresponding to external power $\frac{E^2}{4R}$ and internal or waste power $\frac{E^2}{4R}$.

But if the mechanical power obtained be small and insignificant compared with that put forth by the battery, as is always the case with small size models which can never be efficient and economical motors, then the rate of wear is so nearly equal to its maximum value $\frac{E}{R}$ as to be indistinguishable from it except by careful measurements.

Just one point before closing. No more work is called for from the battery whether a solenoid be sustaining a weight or keeping a piece of iron magnetised, or whether it is doing no such thing. Under all stationary circumstances the whole of the energy is frittered away as heat in the coil: the mere holding up of the weight or keeping a magnet excited involves no direct expenditure of energy. For a weight may be supported by a pillar, or a magnet may be struck into permanence by hardening it and fixing its molecules.

But a weight may also be supported by a man, or by a jet of water, and a magnet may be maintained by a constant current flowing round it: is there no expenditure of energy here? Do not the things get tired?

Yes, in truth they do, and there is expenditure of energy, but not in holding the weight or maintaining the magnet; it is all expended in bye-issues, it all reappears as heat. If we knew no simpler plan of keeping a weight supported than by putting a man to hold it up, like Atlas, we should have to pay him his day's wage and keep him working, wastefully generating heat; but we do know a simpler plan—we use a prop. Similarly, as we know no simpler means of maintaining a powerful magnet than by keeping a current constantly flowing round it we have to keep such a current flowing, although we feel that it is really all running to waste, and that a simple prop would be a far better plan. This, however, is the present state of our ignorance; we know no prop for magnetism of any real strength. Here is a field for discovery; the field-magnets of twentieth-century dynamos will probably be permanent ones, with the initial magnetic susceptibility of the softest iron, struck into the magnetic rigidity of the hardest steel.

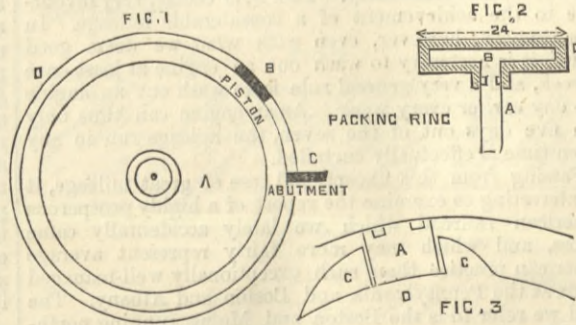
OLIVER LODGE.

University College, Liverpool, January 29th, 1886.

ROTARY ENGINES.

THE construction of various types of rotary and so-called rotary engines has recently been described in our columns, but the subject will bear further consideration. The rotary engine has always been an attraction for inventors. They have pursued, it as the belated traveller follows an *ignis fatuus*, ever since the days of James Watt, and there is no reason to believe that they are nearer success now than they were half a century ago. We propose in the following article to explain the reason why, from our point of view, our acquaintance with rotary engines as they have existed in metal and on paper is extensive, and consequently what we have to say may be regarded as the outcome of practical knowledge of the subject.

It will be found that almost without exception inventors of rotary engines have attempted to run their engines at a very high velocity. One of the advantages which they always claim is that the rotary engine is not only smaller, but very much smaller than any other engine of the same power. This is the principal reason why rotary engines have not been successful. In a word, the principle on which they have been constructed has been wrong. A great point in the rotary engine is that the continuous motion of the piston permits it to be run at a very high velocity, but inasmuch as the diameter of the circle described has always been small, the high piston speed has been accomplished by a high velocity of rotation. This would be of no consequence were it not that, as "R." has very clearly explained, there must be a reciprocating member in every rotary engine; and to work a stop or abutment at 500 or 1000 strokes per minute is as bad, or worse, as to work a piston and crank shaft at the same rate. The proper way to construct a rotary engine is to make the piston move through a large circle at a moderate speed of rotation. This has never been tried in practice. Until it is, no really successful rotary engine will be constructed. To illustrate our meaning we append a sketch. The



centre or body consists of a disc A. To this is joined a piston B, shown in cross section in Fig. 2. An abutment is moved in and out by suitable mechanism. The piston revolves in a ring D. Inside this is a continuous slot in which A revolves, steam-tight, by means of two packing rings, as shown in Fig. 2. Of course, it will be understood that this is a purely ideal sketch. Let us assume now that the diameter of the ring is 20ft., its width 24in., and the depth of the piston, measured radially, 3in., the area of the piston will be 24 x 3 = 72 square inches. The circumference of the circle described by the piston will be, omitting fractions, 62ft. Let the revolutions be sixty per minute, then 60 x 62 = 3720ft. per minute. Let the

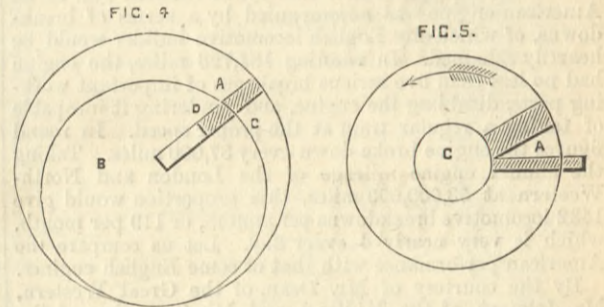
average pressure be 50lb. on the square inch, then $3720 \times 72 \times 50 = 406$ -horse power. The space occupied

by such an engine would not greatly exceed that filled by the fly-wheel alone of an ordinary horizontal engine of like power. The design, too, is one of the most convenient that could be adopted, for the engine would stand against the wall. Smaller machines might, indeed, be bolted to a wall and have their axes coupled to a line of shafting by a universal or other flexible joint. The travel of the abutment would be very small—only 3in. It will be seen almost at a glance that this engine, as far as size and shape are concerned, has everything to recommend it. At sea, for instance, the saving of space and of weight secured by its adoption would be enormous.

Next let us consider what are the objections to be urged against it. In the first place, as it would be practically impossible to keep the centre of the main axis in the centre of the ring "cylinder," the piston must be secured by some flexible device to the disc. This may be done in various ways, as for example that shown in Fig. 3. Here the piston is dropped, so to speak, into a notch in the edge of the centre disc, the sides of which notch are shown by C C. There are, of course, obvious objections to such a plan, but it provides a remedy for the difficulty which we have raised, and equivalent, but really practical devices will readily suggest themselves.

A piston moving at 3700ft. per minute will, if it works with any friction, absorb a great deal of power; on the other hand, its leakage at such a velocity will be insignificant. It is for inventors to design a piston which while lightly packed will be steam tight. With first-class workmanship, and clean, dry steam, no packing rings would perhaps be required. The piston may be made of considerable length, circumferentially, and grooved. The loss by leakage will be very small. The disc will have to be made tight in the circumferential slot, and yet the friction must be very little. Here, again, invention and good workmanship are needed; we see no reason to think the difficulty insurmountable. The abutment can readily be made tight, save where it rests against the edge of the disc. As the disc would be very thin, say 1/2in. thick steel plate, the area for leakage would be very small. It is almost impossible to see how it could be made tight by any packing.

If we compare this engine with any of the ordinary types of rotary engine, it will be seen that it has few or none of these disadvantages. Take, for example, an engine with pistons sliding in and out, as shown in Fig. 4. Here



A shows one piston—this has to slide in and out of the central drum B a great many times in a minute while under the full pressure of the steam, and the wear and tear at D and C must be very great, with the result that in a very little time the pistons become so loose that they will rattle in the drums; lubrication cannot be maintained, centrifugal force driving away the oil. Again, if we take the type shown in Fig. 5 it will be seen that the abutment has a long stroke, and consequently cannot be quite closed until the piston has gone some distance, so that all the steam in the space A may be regarded as wasted. Furthermore, the end of the abutment can by no possible means be kept from hammering against the central drum. If it does not come in contact with it the leakage is enormous, because the joint is as long as the piston; if it does, then as the speed with which it moves inwards must be considerable, it must strike a severe blow, and accordingly all engines made on this system which we have seen are noisy to a degree. But besides all this, the wear and tear is much greater near the outer circumference than they are nearer the centre, and so leakage soon takes place next the piston end. "R." has so fully set forth the objections to "line" contacts that we need not dwell on them.

That there are objections to this type of engine sketched in Fig. 1 is indisputable, but it must be remembered that no engineer has ever yet attempted to overcome the mechanical difficulties, the existence of which is sufficiently apparent. If such an engine can be made successfully, the reward of the maker will be very large. It is not too much to say, for example, that the modern marine engine would be supplanted in a very short time. A considerable expenditure of time and money and skill and patience will be needed, but no great success has ever been achieved in mechanics without the expenditure of both.

THE RELATIVE DURABILITY OF ENGLISH AND AMERICAN LOCOMOTIVES.

SOME American writers have lately been striving, by help of arguments founded on very distorted statements of the facts, to prove that American locomotives are, after all, not the overworked, short-lived, and extravagant machines that everyone out of America believes them to be; and that American railroads have really the heaviest traffic, and are the most efficiently and economically administered lines in the world. We only wonder that these writers do not further show their ignorance of the subject by alleging that American trains are faster and safer than any others; and that American railroads have the soundest and most honest systems of finance.

For the present we shall content ourselves by examining a little more closely the facts on which a writer in the *National Car Builder* builds a theory that the

American locomotive is singularly durable. That paper quotes the following statement as to the performance of engine No. 137 of the Boston and Albany Railroad, but significantly enough omits to mention the numerous failures of the engine, and endeavours to give an impression that nothing of the kind occurred, by the following quotation, which we give *verbatim*:—"In doing this enormous amount of work, all the repairs effected on the engine, besides the minor running repairs, was turning the driving-wheel tires once and facing the valves once." This appears to be hardly correct in the face of the following statement of the performance of this engine which appears in another American paper, and which is said to be furnished by the locomotive superintendent of the Boston and Albany road.

"The following are the dimensions and record of passenger engine No. 137, built at the Boston and Albany shops:—

Weight	37 tons 10 cwt.
Cylinders	18in. by 22in.
Driving wheels, diameter	5ft. 8in.
Boiler, diameter	4ft. 4in.
Tubes, 2in. diameter, No.	221
Boiler pressure	160 lb.

"This engine came out of the shop April 23rd, 1883; and was taken in for general repairs October 30th, 1885; having run daily 30 months 7 days, or 921 days, making a total of 184,726 miles.

"During this time the engine lost 12 days for repairs, and deducting this from the total number of days run, the average mileage per day is 203 miles. No repairs were made until April 27th, 1884, when the engine had run 78,812 miles. During portions of the months of April and June, and the whole of the month of May, 1885, the engine ran 400 miles every day, making (with extra trips Sundays) 10,910 miles in May, and a total of 26,740 miles in the above-named months, or an average of 8913 miles per month.

"The twelve days lost and the causes were as follows:—

"April 1st, 1884: One day. Broken equalising beam.

"July, 1884: Four days. Tires turned, one broken driving box replaced, and regulator valve ground.

"July, 1884: Four days and a half. Broken piston-rod.

"May, 1885: Half a day. Broken piston-rod, front cylinder cover and casing.

"September, 1885: Two days. Broken driving box.

"The driving boxes were of cast iron, and in consequence of these failures have been replaced with steel. This record is furnished because it is an exceptional one."

It therefore appears that this much vaunted run of an American engine was accompanied by a series of breakdowns, of which any English locomotive builder would be heartily ashamed. In running 184,726 miles, the engine had no less than five serious breakages of important working parts, disabling the engine, and rendering it incapable of taking a regular train at the proper speed. In round figures the engine broke down every 37,000 miles. Taking the annual engine mileage of the London and North-Western at 53,000,000 miles, this proportion would give 1432 locomotive breakdowns per annum, or 119 per month, which is very nearly 4 every day. Let us compare the American performance with that of some English engines.

By the courtesy of Mr. Dean, of the Great Western, Mr. Johnson, of the Midland, and Mr. Stroudley, of the London and Brighton Railway, we are enabled to supply information of a kind which has never before been made public on this important question. We give the figures in the order of the dimensions of the lines concerned, beginning with the Great Western as the largest. It will be seen that the figures have been put into a somewhat different shape by each of the three gentlemen named. Mr. Dean has had the mileage between shop repairs for the year 1885 of the first twenty engines of five different classes taken out and put together for comparison in the following table:—

Average Mileage of Locomotive Engines between Shop Repairs, Great Western Railway.

Class.	Mileage.		
	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.
Passenger engines—			
7ft. express engines, single driving wheels	71,400	24,000	52,000
6½ft. coupled express engines.	79,600	21,000	54,200
5ft. coupled tank engines ...	94,000	26,000	48,000
Goods engines—			
Six wheels coupled tender engines, 5ft. wheels	68,300	17,300	42,200
Six wheels coupled heavy saddle tank engines, 4½ft. wheels...	55,700	17,000	33,500

It will be understood that these engines have been taken just as they happened to come on the books, and that some were in better condition at the beginning of 1885 than others, and that the repairs named do not refer to breakdowns alone, but to wear and tear as well. We have here a 5ft. coupled tank engine which made 94,000 miles between going into the shops—that is, 2.6-tenths times as many miles as the crack American engine. A 6½ft. coupled express engine beats the American record 2 to 1. Even the goods engines show an average record which compares most favourably with the American.

Mr. Johnson, of the Midland Railway, confines himself strictly to breakdowns. In 1885 there were sixty cases in which an engine was rendered idle for half a day or more. Among the causes was the breakage of crank and straight axles, slide valves, and valve spindles through wear and tear; also cases of hot guide bars, due to neglect on the part of the drivers; and cases where drivers had to give up their trains. Now, the gross engine mileage for 1885 was 43,657,427. The total number of engines 1803. The average mileage, supposing all the engines to have been worked, 24,200. There was one breakdown for every 727,623.7 miles. This includes engines of all kinds. Portions of the line are exceptionally heavy, and the trains

run are the heaviest and fastest in the world. Such a record as this it will be found impossible to beat, or even come near, in the United States.

We come now to the London, Brighton, and South Coast, Mr. Stroudley has supplied us not only with general figures, but with minute particulars of the nature of the casualties which caused the engines concerned to be idle for half a day or more. The particulars apply to the six months, July-December, 1885, and there are over 400 engines on the line. Here are the particulars:—

- July 25.—Engine 228 caused 43 min. delay through eccentric straps getting hot—short of oil—breaking eccentric-rod.
- July 31.—Engine 202 caused 32 min. delay through left-hand crosshead breaking.
- August 1.—Engine 13 caused 24 min. delay through steam pipe flange breaking off.
- September 14.—Engine 38 caused 11 min. delay through tube bursting.
- September 16.—Engine 75 caused 10 min. delay through tube bursting.
- September 28.—Engine 291 caused 8 min. delay through tube bursting.
- September 28.—Engine 256 caused 50 min. delay through crank axle breaking.
- October 9.—Engine 73 caused 28 min. delay through valve spindle cotter coming out.
- October 31.—Engine 100 caused 1 hour 40 min. delay through tube bursting.
- November 9.—Engine 425 caused 2 hours 57 min. delay through broken tube.
- November 14.—Engine 419 caused 2 hours 13 min. delay through tube bursting.
- November 19.—Engine 93 caused 1 hour delay through draw-bar of engine breaking, in consequence of two couplings being put on at once.
- December 2.—Engine 336 caused 57 min. delay through quadrant link breaking. This link had flawed in case-hardening, which was not observed until it broke.

It will be seen that some of these failures are of the most trifling character, and that the majority involved no repairs more serious than plugging a tube. They are not to be spoken of in the same breath with the failures of the American engine. There is not one record of a broken spring as having interfered in any way with the traffic. The eccentric straps, which were allowed to run hot from want of oil, broke the eccentric-rod; but this can hardly be put down as a fair case against the engine, as it had been running perfectly for several years. The crosshead recorded as broken had evidently been strained in putting in the gudgeon, owing to the block going into the jaw for supporting it not having been a sufficiently perfect fit. This crosshead had been working for several years holding on by one side only, but this was not discovered until it broke. It did but trifling damage, but of, course, stopped the engine for the day. The crank axle which broke caused fifty minutes' delay, but did no other damage. The valve spindle cotter was allowed to work out from one of the small engines. This had evidently been taken out for some purpose, and had not been properly secured again. No. 336 engine broke the quadrant link, which, in turn, broke the eccentric-rod. This quadrant link had, as before stated, flawed in case-hardening, but the flaw was not observed until it came asunder. It appears that on the Brighton line they almost never have any failure of the gear of the engine itself, the troubles being confined to broken crank axles and burst or broken tubes. The mileage is not easy to get at in a compact form, because there are seventy-four old engines and 338 of the new type, and it is not fair to include old locomotives, which are being replaced. The total engine mileage for the half-year was 4,986,893, and assuming that all the engines ran alike, which is not fair, however, to the standard engines, these made 4,087,000 during the half-year; or supposing all the engines to be in use, which is not the case, 15,110 miles per engine per half year, or 30,220 per annum—a high average. Supposing the number of breakdowns for the year to be twice that for the six months, or twenty-six, we have nearly 315,000 miles per breakdown. There were, it will be seen from the list, only three accidents, properly so called, namely, one crank axle broken, one link, and one crosshead. These may be compared with the broken piston-rod and broken axle-boxes of the American engine. Dividing the mileage by three, we have one serious breakdown to every 1,362,333 miles run. Can the United States show any truthful record to parallel this?

The Boston and Albany engine appears to have been run continuously on both week-days and Sundays, and therefore presumably without washing out. The water must have been very good; and, indeed, we understand that in parts of New England engines can be safely run for months without washing out, the boiler being filled up and blown off occasionally. This is, of course, very favourable to the achievement of a considerable mileage. In this country, however, even with what we deem good water, it is necessary to wash out an engine at least once a week, and a very general rule is to wash out an engine one day earlier every week. As an engine can thus only run five days out of the seven, the mileage run in any given time is effectually curtailed.

Passing from this exceptional case of great mileage, it is interesting to examine the report of a highly prosperous American railroad which we lately accidentally came across, and which may more fairly represent average American practice than such exceptionally well-managed roads as the Pennsylvania and Boston and Albany. The road we refer to is the Boston and Maine, running northward from Boston to Portland and New Brunswick. The length of the line is not stated in the report, but the annual receipts are at the rate of £25,000 per week, and rather more than half the gross receipts are derived from passenger traffic. As each passenger was carried an average distance of 13.1 miles, and no less than 15,587,000 passengers in all were carried, it is evident that, unlike most American roads, and like all English roads, the Boston and Maine has a considerable local passenger traffic; 2,132,000 tons of goods were conveyed an average distance of 53.7 miles. This is probably somewhat further than the average on English roads, but the average for both passengers and goods is near enough to make a fair comparison of the cost of locomotive power, &c., on the Boston

and Maine and on English railways generally. In order to fairly compare English and American railways, an American line having, like our own, local traffic and short hauls, must be taken. This done, we find that the annual mileage per locomotive is very much the same in both countries, and that in speed, consumption of fuel, and mileage between repairs, the English engines have a considerable advantage.

The average annual mileage of each engine on the Boston and Maine is 23,787 miles, which is less than 2000 miles per month, presenting an instructive contrast to the exceptional results obtained on the Boston and Albany. On the London and Brighton Railway also, with local traffic and short hauls, it is, we have seen, 30,222 miles per annum.

This report is equally calculated to throw cold water on the figures given by the *National Car Builder* as to the marvellous mileage made by American engines between repairs. The Boston and Maine possesses 207 engines, and the report summarises the annual repairs effected as follows:—

Renewed entirely	19 engines.
Thoroughly rebuilt	6 "
General repairs	72 "
"More or less repairs"	111 "

Total number repaired 208 engines.

It will thus be seen that every single engine had been in the shop during the year for more or less serious repairs, and that no less than 12 per cent. of the engines had been renewed entirely or thoroughly rebuilt. It also appears that 97 out of 207 engines required either complete renewal, rebuilding, or general repairs during one year. The average mileage between very heavy repairs may, therefore, be taken at $\frac{207}{97} \times 23,787$ miles, or 50,762 miles, and the average mileage between more or less serious repairs may be taken at $\frac{207}{208} \times 23,787$ miles, or 23,675 miles.

If the terms "general repairs," and "more or less repairs" are used in the sense in which they are understood in this country, American engines certainly do not appear to be as durable as those built here, though the mileage run between repairs is not always a sure criterion. Many engines are sent into the shops here before it is absolutely necessary, on the principle that a stitch in time, &c. They would no doubt run a considerably longer mileage, but the boxes are beginning to knock, and the valves and pistons are blowing slightly, and the tubes leak occasionally, and some of the stay heads are getting burnt; the engine will, therefore, burn rather more fuel and stand a chance of breaking down on the road. In order to avoid any such risk it is just as well to take the engine in and put it in first-rate order. The mileage between repairs is thus curtailed.

It is hardly necessary, however, to analyse figures to ascertain whether American locomotives are as durable as those built in this country. When we find that the English engine has larger crank-pins, larger axle-box journals, larger crossheads, larger piston rods, larger motion pins, larger springs, and larger wheels, and is generally throughout built more substantially, and more carefully and accurately finished, it is evident that, leaving on one side the smaller number of revolutions made per mile, the larger bearings and more careful finish must make the English engine more durable under similar conditions. As regards the boiler work, the comparison is even more in favour of English practice. The plates are thicker, and therefore allow a greater margin against corrosion; the joints are stronger, and therefore not so liable to leak and furrow; the rivetting is hydraulic instead of hand or steam, and the boiler as a whole is better made, the workmen being more skilful, the tools better, and the standard of excellence higher. In what shop in Great Britain could sixteen men be counted caulking a locomotive boiler under test? Yet such a sight excites no surprise in the yard of one of the best American builders.

Many features in the design are, apart from any question of proportions and workmanship, favourable to the superior durability of the English engine. In American engines the axles are plain round bars with loose collars, and are shouldered down for the wheel seat. Such an axle, though cheaper to make, is not nearly so trustworthy as an axle forged to shape with solid collars, the middle of the axle being smaller than the journals, and the latter smaller than the wheel seat. Such an axle, with fillets of large radius, at every change of diameter has no point at which the strains are concentrated, and therefore is not liable to break at any one point. The sharp shoulder where an American axle enters the wheel is, on the contrary, a weak point, and must inevitably shorten the safe mileage of an iron axle, and render the use of steel highly dangerous. The part of the axle forced into a wheel with a pressure of 80 tons must necessarily be under a considerable compressive strain from which the rest of the axle is free. A little reflection will show that torsional and cross-breaking strains thrown upon an axle in service must also exist in the axle head. In English engines the additional compressive strain is provided for by the increased diameter in the wheel seat; but in the American axle, the part exposed to the greatest strain is the smallest in diameter, and is provided with a sharp shoulder as if to further invite a failure.

The great number of parts, and the insecure manner in which they are attached to one another, is another weak feature about an American engine. The coupling and connecting-rod ends are almost invariably fitted with straps, bolts, and keys, which are troublesome to fit up and repair, are very liable to fail suddenly, and weigh more than English solid rod ends with considerably larger bearing surfaces. The link motion presents the same increased number of initial points of failure. The eccentric sheaves are not keyed to the axle, but are merely secured by set pins, which are, of course, liable to slip. The eccentric rods in like manner are only secured to the eccentric straps by friction, the rod and strap being clamped together side by side by bolts working in slotted holes. This arrangement is rather more convenient for adjusting the length of the

great number of parts, and the insecure manner in which they are attached to one another, is another weak feature about an American engine. The coupling and connecting-rod ends are almost invariably fitted with straps, bolts, and keys, which are troublesome to fit up and repair, are very liable to fail suddenly, and weigh more than English solid rod ends with considerably larger bearing surfaces.

The link motion presents the same increased number of initial points of failure. The eccentric sheaves are not keyed to the axle, but are merely secured by set pins, which are, of course, liable to slip. The eccentric rods in like manner are only secured to the eccentric straps by friction, the rod and strap being clamped together side by side by bolts working in slotted holes. This arrangement is rather more convenient for adjusting the length of the

rods, but the rod may slip, though the bolts and nuts are intact. The usual manner in which this connection is made on English engines is more expensive to make, but is far more secure. The expansion link in American engines is generally made in two main parts—front and back—bolted together with distance pieces top and bottom. This construction has been long abandoned here, and a solid link is rightly regarded as less liable to failure though more expensive to make. The rocking shaft introduces yet another piece into the American link motion, and as it obliges the expansion link to be hung on one side, it entails a further disadvantage. The strain on the die block is also taken on one side. These additional parts and defective methods of meeting the working strains must, under equal conditions, increase the chances of failure. It may, however, be urged that the superior accessibility of the valve chest placed in American engines on top of the steam chest outweighs all the disadvantages enumerated. This argument might have had some weight before the advent of portable machines for facing valve seats. While the outside steam chest is more accessible for hammer, chisel, and file, it presents no advantages over the valve chests of even inside-cylinder engines where a machine is used. It has, moreover, several palpable disadvantages. The steam is more exposed to condensation, the steam and exhaust passages are longer, and the front end of the engine is somewhat heavier, as no part of the metal of the steam chest serves to brace the cylinders together, as in English engines.

American critics generally urge that English engines are too rigid for roughly laid tracks or sharp curves. It is perfectly true that the good permanent way of most of our great main lines renders the use of equalising levers and bogies unnecessary, but both these devices are very freely used wherever it is deemed they diminish the wear and add to the easy riding of the engine. On the North London, Metropolitan, Metropolitan District, London, Tilbury, and Southend, Highland, and Great North of Scotland lines, every engine has both equalising levers and bogie. With the exception of the London and Brighton, every important railway in the kingdom has a large proportion of engines fitted with some form of flexible wheel base. Moreover, most of these engines are fitted with Adams' bogie, which compares very favourably with the various American bogies and pony trucks tried here under similar conditions. As the springs used here are longer than those generally employed in America, they are probably more flexible, and it is safe to conclude that their greater weight makes them more durable. Judging from the numerous broken axle-boxes on the Boston and Albany engine, this mishap is not always caused by the tension of the spring, the only point that can be urged against the English practice.

American critics who have never seen an English locomotive invariably seem to imagine that the plate frame is more rigid laterally than the bar frame. The exact contrary is the case. It is obvious that a plate 20in. deep and 1in. thick is stiff vertically and very flexible laterally; while a rectangular iron bar 3½in. wide and 3in. deep will be very much more rigid laterally than the plate frame. As the vertical flexibility in all engines is supplied by the springs, the greater vertical flexibility of the bar frame confers no advantage, and renders it difficult to lift the engine without breaking the frame above the axle-box rubbing pieces. The lateral flexibility of the plate frame is, however, a very valuable feature, and in one case that came to our knowledge enabled six coupled rigid wheel base engines to work safely over sharp curves and badly-laid crossings, where American Moguls were frequently derailed. The idea that English engines are too rigid for rough roads is a mistake, and probably originated in the fact that the original English engines for the Grand Trunk of Canada were built by a firm who had little experience in building locomotives, and none whatever in making provision against the effects of a Canadian winter. It would be as unfair to judge English bridge builders of the present day by the Victoria Bridge at Montreal. Our knowledge of both bridges and locomotives has increased considerably in the thirty years that has elapsed since the Grand Trunk was built by Robert Stephenson and other pioneers of railways.

The use of inferior methods of construction, some of which have been explained above, reduces the cost of labour in building an American locomotive. The use of steel instead of copper for inside fire-boxes, cast iron instead of wrought iron for wheel centres, and iron instead of brass for tubes, enables American builders to effect a considerable economy in the price of the raw materials of a locomotive. Fire-boxes made of English Siemens-Martin steel are, however, in successful use in Canadian locomotives, and it is evident that where the absence of lime in the water renders the use of steel possible, fire-boxes of that material can be made more cheaply here than in America. Iron tubes are of course largely used by English railways for partly worn-out engines, and if the user of the engine desires the cheaper material, it can be used in the new engine. It will probably never be possible to make a satisfactory cast iron wheel in this country; but as far as we know there is no reason why locomotive builders should not generally imitate Mr. Webb's example, and use cast steel wheel centres. At least one firm in Sheffield makes an excellent steel wheel, tough, strong, homogeneous, and free, of course, from bad welds.

We therefore see no reason why English locomotive builders should not continue to be able to produce a more durable locomotive at a lower price than our American cousins, as the great cost of wages and materials must always counterbalance the saving effected by the use of inferior materials and methods of construction.

THE ELECTRIC LIGHTING ACT.—At a general meeting of the Electric Lighting Act Committee, recently held at the offices of the Anglo-American Brush Electric Light Corporation, Belvedere-road, Lord Thurlow in the chair, a resolution was adopted, on the motion of Viscount Anson, approving the action of the Executive, and expressing satisfaction at the announcement that Lord Rayleigh had, at the request of the Executive, agreed to introduce the Bill drafted by the committee into the House of Lords.

THE VYRNWY MASONRY DAM.
The design and construction of masonry dams of large dimensions is perhaps not a matter of great professional importance to English engineers, as they are not often likely to be called upon to build them at home or abroad. The masonry dam is, however, a subject of much interest, and the graphic and analytical investigation of the conditions of its stability, as well as of the nature, intensity, and direction of the stresses in its materials due to insistent or impressed forces, have often provided attractive food for speculation and determination. The most

a matter very much of taste. Calculations may be made on the assumption that a dam is of material flexible through a limited range; but such calculations are, except as ingenious checks, of little use, inasmuch as so great an excess of weight must be employed to prevent the initiation of any of the stresses which would occur on the assumption of even an almost unassignable amount of motion that the results of such calculations are wholly ignored in the final practical considerations.

French engineers have been called upon to design and construct some very large dams, including some of early date, which, to a great extent followed the earlier

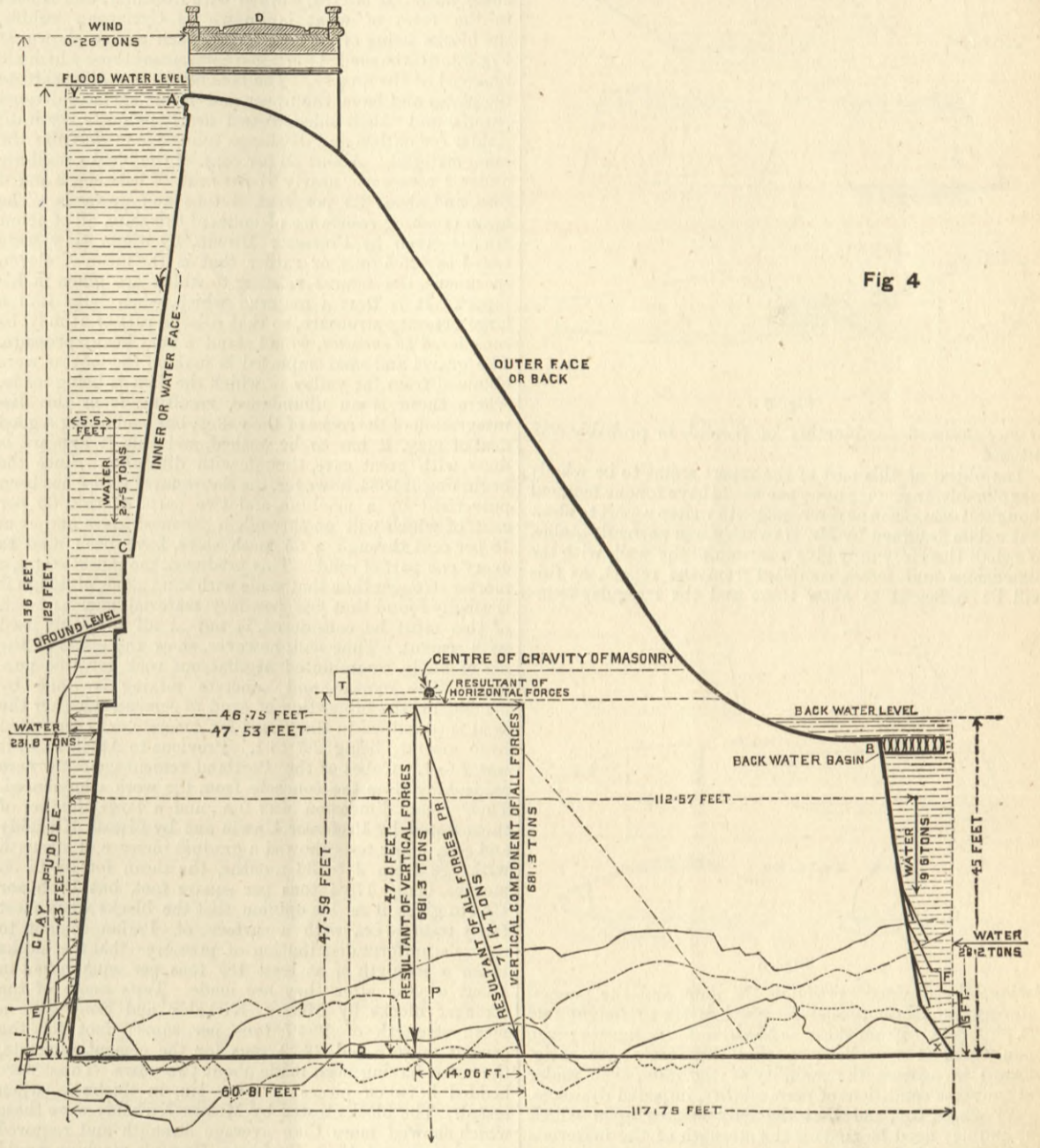
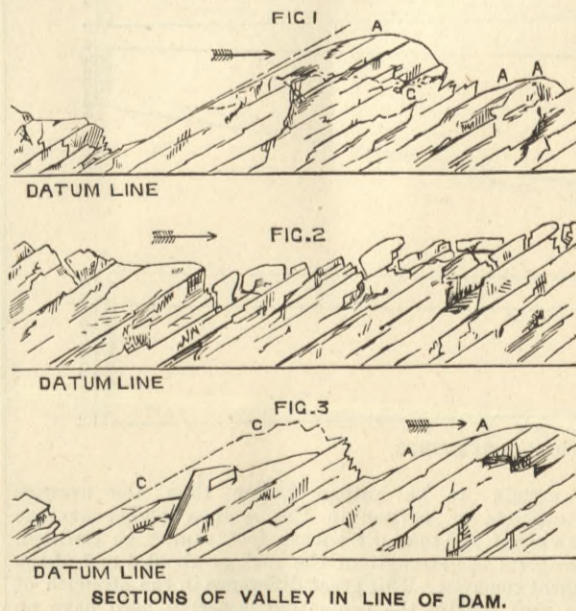


Fig 4

THE VYRNWY DAM.—SECTION SHOWING MAGNITUDE AND DIRECTION OF STRESSES AND CONTOUR OF FOUNDATION.

complete investigations that have appeared in English upon the subject have been those which are published in THE ENGINEER, and of these we may instance the illustrated articles by Mallet based upon the previous investigations of MM. Sazilly, Graeff, Conte, Grandchamps, and Delocre,* and by whom many proposals were made and some difficult points solved by means of an ingenious assumption. Rankine also devoted attention to the subject in THE ENGINEER.†



SECTIONS OF VALLEY IN LINE OF DAM.

An important paper, by Mr. Guilford Molesworth, entitled, "Notes on High Masonry Dams," with translations from the French of observations by M. Bouvier, was published in the Roorkee College professional papers on Indian engineering in 1883, contained a *résumé* of the researches of Delocre, Graeff and others, and showed that within certain limits the form of the section of a dam was

Spanish dams, which were large, successful, and enormously heavy. In later times came the Furens* and Settons† reservoir dams, the former closing a valley and forming the Rochetaillée reservoir upon the torrent of the Furens, which is an affluent of the upper Loire. This dam impounded water to a depth of nearly 165ft., but its length is only about 680ft. Dams of similar section were subsequently built; one upon the Ban, an affluent of the Gier, near St. Chamond, and another, the Ternay, near Annonay.

The Furens reservoir dam was one of the first built in accordance with the researches of M. Delocre, its section being original, and having hollow curved faces at both sides. It is built of rubble masonry laid in random courses, but every block set with and jointed with minute care. In design and construction it has an interesting bearing upon the Vyrnwy dam now being built for the water supply of Liverpool, and in the history of which a much to be regretted phase has occurred.

The Vyrnwy dam was designed by Mr. Thomas Hawksley, P.P.I.C.E., and the construction commenced under him, with Mr. G. F. Deacon, M.I.C.E., borough waterworks engineer, of Liverpool, as resident engineer. It seems, however, that some agreement was made between Mr. Deacon and some of the Council, which enabled him to disregard Mr. Hawksley's wishes as to the method of construction or the workmanship, and to act as though he were joint engineer. This at least seems to be the ground of Mr. Hawksley's complaints, and his refusal to be further connected with the work, inasmuch as, if Mr. Deacon's method of executing the work were not found permanently satisfactory, Mr. Hawksley would be held responsible. One result of Mr. Hawksley's retirement has been that Mr. Deacon has been called upon to make a report on the dam. This has been published, and while it deals with the stability of the section, and gives facts as to the nature of the materials employed, it does not seem to answer or refute Mr. Hawksley's allegations, but in some measure to support them. We have from time to time referred to this matter, and in our impression of the 15th January, to the most recent phase, and it is unnecessary to add anything further to the matter as a dispute, or to the accusations made on either side; but we propose to say

* THE ENGINEER, vol. xxvi., 1868.
† THE ENGINEER, 6th January, 1872.

* THE ENGINEER, 11th October, 1867.
† THE ENGINEER, 13th August, 1875.

a little concerning the method of construction, the materials used, and the difference between these and those which Mr. Hawksley would, it is said, employ. Mr. Deacon's report we shall not reproduce, as, although an able report, the greater part of it is occupied in showing, by means familiar to everyone interested in hydraulic masonry, that the section designed by Mr. Hawksley is satisfactory in every respect, and has a very large factor of safety under any conditions,

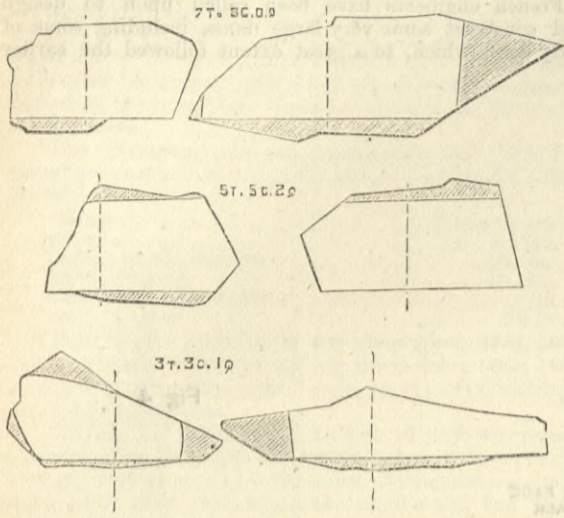


Fig. 6

or any assumed combination of possible or probable conditions.

The object of this part of the report seems to be wholly inexplicable, inasmuch as no one would have for one moment thought it other than supererogation to write a report to show that a dam designed by Mr. Hawksley was perfectly stable. We shall therefore only give a section of the wall, with the dimensions and forces, compiled from the report, as this will be sufficient to show these and the irregular founda-

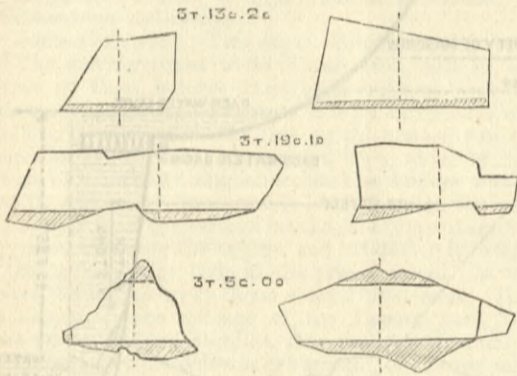


Fig. 5

tion, the drained portion of the dam, and the general intercepting drain tunnel T, which is 4ft. in height and 2ft. 6in. wide. From these sections and the figures given upon them it will be seen that the forces are insignificant as against the stability of the dam, even under very adverse conditions of permeability, impeded drainage, heavy winds, &c., and that the only matter upon which any inquiry need be made is the strength of the materials used; their relative strength or resistances to compression or crushing; the method of building, including the forms of the blocks of rock used; and the relative quantities of the materials of different characteristics. Upon these we find a good deal of information in Mr. Deacon's report.

would not be anything like sufficient to move it even if it were on a floor comparatively smooth and not cemented, as will be gathered from Fig. 4, which shows the resultant of all the forces to have an unusually small angular departure from the vertical. The lines at the foot on either side EF, Fig. 5, show the form of the dam foot when the foundation is at the different levels shown.

The slate of which the dam is being built is quarried about a mile from the dam and brought down by a railway with a gradient of 1 in 30 to the dam in blocks weighing from a few hundredweights to 7 and 8 tons. The specific gravity of the slate is 2.72, or about 2.06 tons per cubic yard. It is hard, worked with difficulty, and is used in the form of what is known as Cyclopean rubble, the blocks being of various forms, such as are shown at Fig. 5 and 6, the shaded portions representing those which are removed at the quarry. The face blocks are all worked to templates and have the upper and lower surfaces dressed parallel and "their sides dressed nearly or quite vertical." Ashlar for outlets and discharge tunnels is made from the same material. About 46 per cent. of the blocks used are under 2 tons each, nearly 21 per cent. of between 2 and 4 tons, and about 33 per cent. 4 tons and upwards. The mean crushing resistance of cubes of this slate, all of about 3in., is given by Professor Unwin, by whom they were tested as 823.5 tons, or rather that is the mean of eleven specimens, the figures relating to which are given in his report. It is thus a material which, when built into a large masonry structure, so that a large part of it may be considered as *encastré*, would stand a very heavy pressure. The gravel and sand employed in making the mortar were obtained from the valley in which the dam is being made, where there is an abundance, resulting from the disintegration of the rocks of the valley, but containing a good deal of clay, it has to be washed, and this, it appears, is done with great care, though with difficulty. Since the beginning of 1884, however, the slate quarry refuse has been pulverised by a machine, and two parts of this, 60 per cent. of which will go through a 20 mesh sieve and even 18 per cent through a 65 mesh sieve, have been used to every one part of sand. This produced, the report states, a mortar stronger than that made with sand alone, although it is usually found that fine powdery material, such as much of this must be considered, is not at all advisably used with cement. Time will, however, show the effect of the use of finely comminuted argillaceous rock for this purpose. The mortar and concrete mixing is done by machinery, the proportion of sand to cement, whether the sand is contained in the gravel for concrete or is separated from mortar, being 2.5 to 1. Previous to April, 1884, it was 2 to 1. Cubes of the Portland cement concrete were made daily from the concrete from the work commenced. Their mean dimension was 9in., and a large number of them tested by Professor Unwin and by Messrs Kirkaldy and Son. The tests showed a gradual increase of strength with age from 2 to 36 months, the mean for 32 to 36 months, being 170.4 tons per square foot, but Professor Unwin gives it as his opinion that the blocks when most fairly tested—i.e., with a surface of Parian cement to secure a uniform distribution of pressure—that the blocks reach a strength of at least 187 tons per square foot in about a year after they are made. Tests made of the stronger blocks by Messrs. Kirkaldy and Sons gave a mean strength of 284.7 tons per square foot for the cement mortar and 224.9 tons for the cement concrete, the cubes having been made about two years. These were bedded between pieces of pine $\frac{1}{2}$ in. in thickness when tested. The blocks tested by Messrs. Kirkaldy were those which showed more than average strength and required greater pressure than Professor Unwin's machine would give, but although of abnormal strength, these blocks must be considered as fairly warranting an addition to Professor Unwin's average, but an examination of all the results, and bearing in mind that a test cube

of the blocks are of a large and heavy size, while a considerable proportion of small blocks are also used. The method of building is thus described. "Assuming for the moment that there is a level bed, either of rock or of previously constructed masonry, a layer of cement mortar about 2in. thick, and rather larger in area than the base of the stone to be laid, is placed upon that bed. The mortar is then brushed to a proper figure, and beaten to get rid of air. The stone, with its flat but rough bed, is next lowered by a steam crane, and is beaten down by simultaneous blows from heavy hand mallets. The mortar is of such consistency that during this process it fills every hollow; much of it being squeezed out around the stone and employed for another bed. Other stones are then similarly set with their nearest points close to but not touching the first. The spaces between the stones are next filled in with concrete thoroughly beaten down, and thrust with blunt-ended swords into the narrower spaces. Concerning this Mr. Deacon remarks in a footnote that too much importance cannot be attached to the proper performance of this portion of the work. It is well known that when the materials of concrete are mixed and tipped in large quantities the larger stones tend to leave the smaller, and the water tends to carry down the cement to lower parts. On this account the broken macadam-sized stones are not mixed in the concrete machines; but are brought upon the ground separately. A loose layer of concrete 2in. to 3in. thick is first thrown down; the broken stone is scattered over it, and the latter is thoroughly beaten into the former until the cement squeezes up to the surface. Another similar layer is then formed, and so on until the required height is reached. No laminated structure is thus produced, as would be the case if each layer were allowed to set before the next was formed. Under the beating, while all is soft, the stones of one layer interlock with those of another, and the result is much more perfect homogeneity than can readily be attained by any other treatment of concrete with the same proportion of stone. When the interstices are sufficiently large they are built up with smaller stones instead of with concrete only. An idea of the distribution of stone and concrete may be gathered from the fact that an endeavour to find a space between the stones containing a block of concrete 12in. cube has proved futile. There are, of course, both vertical and horizontal layers of concrete of much larger area than this; but their thickness is small. The joints having thus been filled to the level of the first stones laid upon the old work, the remaining inequalities are made up with beaten concrete, upon which other stones, bonding with those below, are set as before in cement mortar. The work within reach of each crane is thus carried on to a height of 6ft. or 8ft. before the crane gauntlet is moved. The joints between the highest stones of each such course are not finished to the level of the stones for three reasons; one being that a more water-tight bond is thus obtained between the new and the old concrete when, some months later, the work is further raised, than when the old concrete is continuous over a large surface; another being that less damage is done to the surface when the men cannot conveniently walk on the concrete, and are almost obliged to step from stone to stone; and a third being that when lying below the level of the stones the concrete is less liable to damage from frost in winter, and is more likely to remain damp in summer. It occasionally happens that stones with small, or somewhat pointed areas, project above those immediately surrounding them. In such cases when, some months after the work has been left to set, the place is again reached, the concrete is not brought up to the higher level, but the projection is dressed down to the height of the surrounding work. The front and back faces of the wall differ from the hitherto described in that the largest and squarest stones are selected for them. All such face stones are draughted to the exact batter required, and have their tops dressed as well as their bottom beds, and their sides squared as may be necessary, to make close vertical joints. In the inner face the ordinary concrete is not used, even where the joints widen out; mortar alone, with broken stone beaten into it, being employed for the first few feet. The object of this is to secure, not additional strength, but the highest attainable water-tightness of the inner face. When treating of the forces acting upon the dam it will be seen that if any part should be more water-tight than another it is the inner face. For this reason the portion of the inner face below ground is lined with puddled clay, while the joints of the upper part are made additionally water-tight."

Whether this mode of building is a satisfactory one remains to be seen, but it is obviously open to the objection that large masses of rock may be brought to bear upon a bed of very different bearing capacity, and that some of the stones are of such a form as to tend to initiate movements of the superincumbent and surrounding materials. Random rubble may, as in the case of the Furens reservoir dam, be perfectly successful when no pieces are large, interstices small, and settlement consequently uniform. But with Cyclopean random rubble the case may be very different. If a large or long block rest either at its centre or at one end upon the small area of the upper part of a stone of such a form as that shown at Fig. 5 and marked 3, tons 5, and depend for the rest of its support upon the concrete or mortar, which from the system of building may be in considerable masses, the result will possibly be fracture of the stone so supported; for although the pressure may be very small as compared with the crushing resistance of the concrete, the difference in the rigidity of the support of the materials may possibly be sufficient to cause unequal distribution of load. Unequal settlement may, it has been urged, also result from the system of building, and this may be supposed to be the more probable from the result of the use of stones which have their upper or side surfaces at angles considerably divergent from the horizontal or the vertical respectively. The tendency of the load upon the material resting upon surfaces such as these is to cause it to slide down them, and to produce cracks in it. This may be the more readily imagined by reference to the form of block shown at

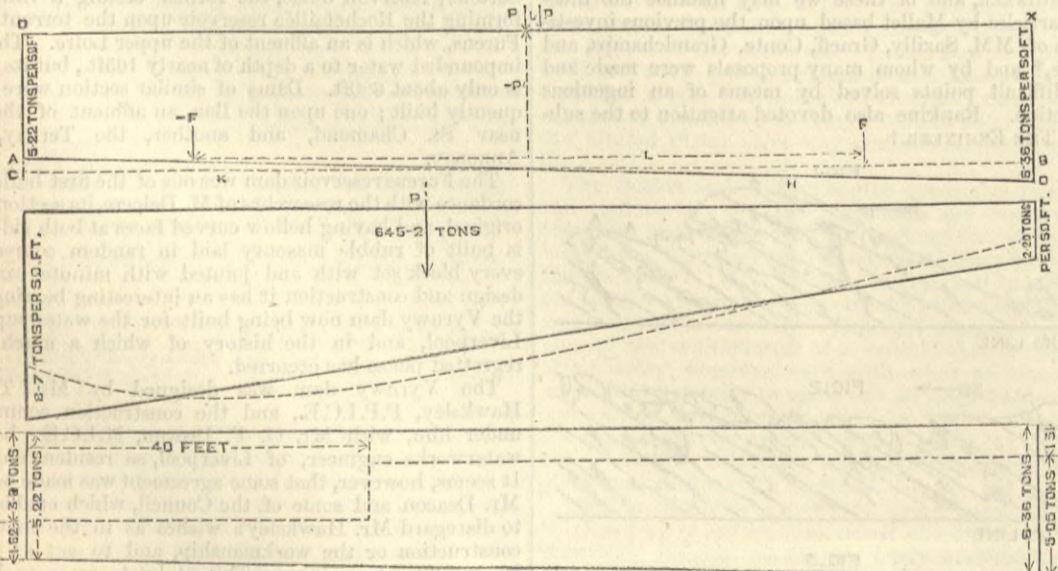


Fig. 7—DIAGRAMS OF VERTICAL PRESSURES.

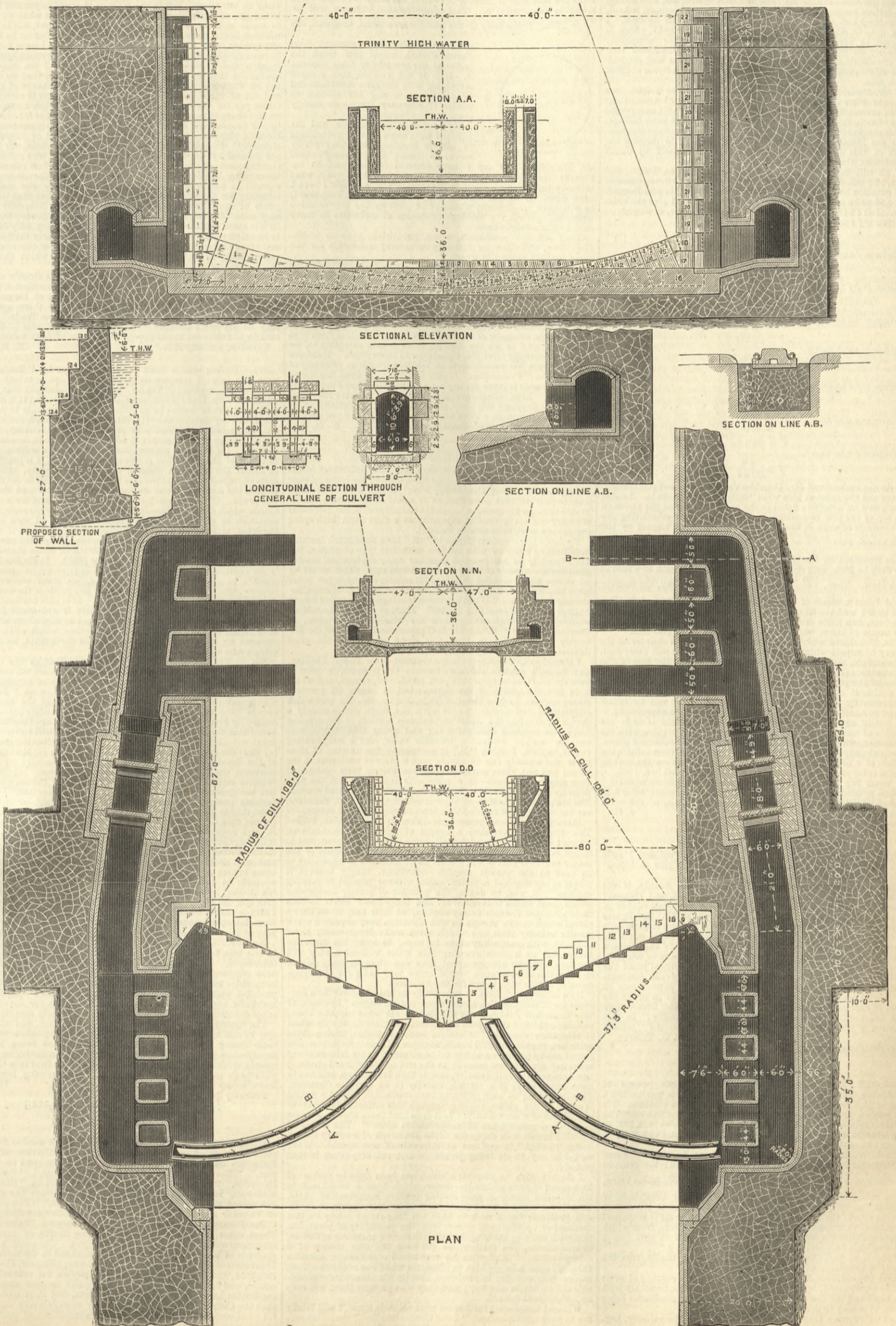
The rock forming the valley and the foundation of the dam is clay slate of the Caradoc group of the lower Silurian system, to some extent traversed by beds of Bala volcanic ash. Figs. 1, 2, and 3 illustrate the dip of the strata, the direction of which is towards the future reservoir. The arrows indicate the direction of the striae found upon the upper projecting outcrops A A, and either of glacial or drift origin. All dislocated blocks of the slate have been removed, and where the outcrop of one bed much exceeded in height that of the next it was cut, as shown in Figs. 1 and 3. Thus formed, the foundation varied in level across the 117.75ft. width of the dam foot to the extent shown in Fig. 4; and thus the bed may be said to be so joggled that no imaginable force would cause the dam to slide. The forces which will be visited upon it

is certain to be rather better than the average of concrete or mortar in the wall, a higher average than about 200 tons per square foot cannot be credited. This gives the strength of the rock as about 4 to 1 of the cement concrete. This great difference in the strength of the rock and of the cementing materials need have no modifying effect on the strength of the masonry as a whole, unless the method of construction imports conditions under which the feeble strength of the concrete may initiate destructive strains in the large pieces of rock employed by giving it a support which is not uniform. Whether this is likely to be so may be gathered from Mr. Deacon's description of the way in which the work is done. Figs. 5 and 6 give a fair idea of the shapes of the blocks employed, and the figures already given show that a large proportion

SECTIONS OF LOCK, ROYAL ALBERT DOCK EXTENSIONS.

MR. ROBERT CARR, M.I.C.E., ENGINEER.

(For description see page 109.)



the vestry to revert to a scheme proposed twelve years ago by Mr. Abernethy, C.E., the total cost of which (including purchase of site) would be about £27,500, or (its supporters urge) "about half" the cost of Mr. Mellis' scheme. Although unsuccessful with the vestry, the dissatisfied members of that body will have another opportunity of urging their views at the Local Government Board inquiry, which will have to be held before the matter progresses any further.

LITERATURE.

A Catechism of the Steam Engine in its Various Applications in the Arts; to which is added a Chapter on Gas Engines and another of Useful Rules, Tables, and Memoranda. By JOHN BOURNE, C.E. New Edition. London: Longmans, Green, and Co. 1885. 610 pp.

MESSRS. LONGMANS, GREEN, AND CO. have done well to publish a new edition of this catechism, for it is a book which is very useful to a large number of readers and learners. The earlier edition had many friends; and seldom as the catechism form is met with in modern books, it is one which has the advantage of causing the author to place before himself a number of definite questions, and thereby to give the book greater clearness, order, and system in treatment of its subjects. It has also the advantage of rivetting the attention of the reader. We may assume that Mr. Bourne's catechism of the steam engine is sufficiently well known as a book useful to students to make it unnecessary for us to do more than record the appearance of this edition, which is in many respects a great improvement on that which preceded it. It is rather larger, has new engravings, bringing the book down to the recent times of Webb's compound locomotive, new compound pumping engines, and marine engines and boilers of the large and torpedo types. In style, the book, to some extent, remains a book of a bye-gone generation, but the author has done well what few writers like to do, namely, strike out a lot of their older writing for the insertion of the new. This, however, must be done in engineering works, or they became useless. We can recommend the book to-day, in its new form, as the old form recommended itself years ago, to another generation of readers and learners; but having said so much, we must remark upon a few points we have noted in perusing it. On page 16 is—"Q. Then if mechanical power cannot be lost, and is being daily called into existence, must not there be a daily increase in the power existing in the world? A. That appears probable unless it flows back in the shape of heat or electricity to the celestial spaces." This is very unsatisfactory, although supplemented by the explanation that the source of all mechanical power is the sun, and that the combustion of coal under a steam boiler merely liberates the power which the sun gave out thousands of years before. The ideas concerning force, motion, and power are not made to appear clear in the author's mind by the expressions used, though perhaps they may be; witness "A. No; force is eternal, if by force you mean power, or in other words, pressure acting through space." A curious expression occurs in an answer to a question concerning the greater velocity of a falling body during a succeeding than during the first second. "A. Because there is more of the force of gravity used up in a second when the falling body is moving fast than when it is moving slowly, seeing that the fast body will travel through a larger space in a given time." The matter is, however, made clear by figures afterwards. At page 56 we are informed that "combustion is nothing more than an energetic chemical combination, or in other words, it is the mutual neutralisation of opposing electricities." Concerning Regnault's experiments, showing, for instance, that the latent and sensible heat of steam are not the same at different pressures; it is remarked that these experiments were elaborate and more accurate than heretofore; but "nevertheless it is questionable how far it is advisable to disturb the rules of Watt and Southern, with which the practice of engineers is very much identified, for the sake of emendations which are not of such magnitude as to influence materially the practical result." Fortunately for the credit of the book, the following paragraph is devoted to showing that thirty-three units more are employed in generating steam at 90 lb. than at 15 lb. Anent a paragraph on page 71, it may be remarked that a slide valve is not a sluice valve, though a sluice valve may be a slide valve. The indicator is very insufficiently treated, and the only illustration is of an old form of Richard's indicator.

Chimneys are not properly dealt with. "Q. By what process do you ascertain the dimensions of the chimney of a land boiler? A. By reference to the volume of air it is necessary in a given time to supply to the burning fuel," &c. Reading this and the whole paragraph, we thought we were at last to have the dimensions put before a student in a proper manner, but the author drops this line, and fades away, repeating Boulton and Watt's practice. "A. A punched rivet-hole cannot be of less diameter than the thickness of the plate, else the punch will not pierce the iron, but will be crumpled up." For the information of Mr. Bourne, it may be remarked that this is a departure from the truth on the safe side. In speaking of pumping engines and how to start them, very old practice is dealt with. Locomotives are still open, we learn, to improvement. "Expansion should be carried to a greater extent, and in the case of engines with outside cylinders, and, indeed, in all locomotives, a little air should be forced into the boiler to mix with the steam." For all this, Mr. Bourne thinks "the benefits of the compound system, even in land and marine engines, have been greatly overrated, as the economy derivable from the use of high-pressure steam worked expansively has been erroneously imputed to some inscrutable virtue of the compound system, whereas there is no reason to doubt that the same steam used with the same measure of expansion in simple engines would have been equally economical and effective." What does Mr. Bourne think of the fact that shipowners have found it necessary to adopt the triple compound engines, or cease running some of their boats? Portable engines are illustrated by an engraving of one in which, with cranks and cylinders in the centre

cylinders and brackets have to be too high, and the brackets having nevertheless small bases, they pull the boiler-plates about, and so the makers' used stay-rods between brackets and cylinders. The same firm of makers, Messrs. Ransome, Sims, and Jeffries, makes a very different engine now; and the portable engines made by Messrs. Clayton and Shuttleworth about twenty years ago, we may remind the author, were not precisely of the pattern made to-day. Steam ploughing is not satisfactorily illustrated by an engraving—Savory's system. Mr. Bourne is still fond of the gaseous jet or stream method of propulsion, and thinks it will come into use; and "although general incredulity will attend such a declaration, it is the incredulity of ignorance which has invariably attended all improvements not yet accomplished." The chapter on gas engines is new and useful. The author assumes the prophetic concerning steam engines, and their being superseded by simpler thermo-dynamic engines, but does not "discern in any of the projects which have been hitherto propounded the combination of the necessary qualities to effect this great amelioration." What the author specially means by a "thermo-dynamic engine," or by one which is more thermo-dynamic than present engines, he does not venture to say. It must not be a combined gas, air, and steam engine of the Siemens type, with hot cylinder and regenerator, "the line of advance must be in a different direction, and the innovation, when it comes, will astonish by its obviousness and simplicity." Oh, do tell us, Mr. Bourne; but if you will not, and if some fellow, after a time, comes along with it and startles the world, do not step forward and say, "I told you so."

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THE ROYAL ALBERT DOCKS EXTENSIONS.

THE engravings which will be found on pages 102 and 103 are the first of several which we shall publish illustrative of very important deep-water extensions now being carried out for London and St. Katherine's and Royal Albert Dock Company by their engineer, Mr. Robt. Carr. Descriptions of the works will appear with further engravings.

PRIVATE BILLS.

ALTHOUGH some slight interruption has been caused by the political complications that have arisen since last week, further progress of a kind has been made with the preliminary stages of Private Bills in Parliament. Several more of these measures have been passed as having complied with the Standing Orders, and a first selection has been made of Bills to originate in the two Houses. The Mersey Railway Bill, which seeks powers to make certain necessary extensions of the Tunnel Railway, the Ship Canal Bill, and one or two of the general railway Bills are among the number allotted to the House of Commons. One Bill is already dead, viz., that of the Blackpool Corporation. To the proposed railway from South Kensington, under Hyde Park to Oxford-street, there are now some signs of opposition, though it will probably not be as general or as vigorous as that offered to the original scheme, largely because the character of the project has been materially changed. On the previous occasion it will be remembered that the chief ground of objection to the subway was that the necessary ventilators would mar the picturesqueness of the park, while the steam and gases emitted would injure the plants and trees. It now appears that no openings of the kind are contemplated. In a report presented to the Kensington Vestry, who are, of course, deeply concerned in the matter, the surveyor states that "the proposed subway will be 10ft. wide by 12ft. high, internal dimensions, throughout the entire length of five furlongs, situate in Kensington, and the crown of the subway will average about 14ft. below the surface of the road. The carriage will be worked on the pneumatic principle—that is to say, by the creation of a partial vacuum—the cars will be blown, as it were, one way, and drawn back by suction the return journey. No openings for ventilation, &c., are proposed; in fact, any such opening would destroy the working principle of the subway; and by the enlarged drawing produced, the committee will perceive that it would be impossible to use the subway as an ordinary railway. In the construction of the subway two shafts would be required to be opened in Brompton-road, the whole of the work being done by tunnelling." The Bill contains clauses dealing with temporary openings, the underpinning of any buildings within 100ft. of the subway, notices of breaking up streets, to acquire vaults projecting under roads and footpaths without being compelled to acquire also the houses to which the vaults belong; compensation, and so on; the proposed capital is £320,000, in 32,000 £10 shares; and it is proposed to limit the toll between Exhibition-road and the Marble Arch to 3d. each person. Looking at the matter as a whole, the surveyor recommends the vestry to approve of the scheme, expressing the opinion that the growth of street traffic will make subways necessary as time goes on; but dissent has been displayed to many of the features of the work, and when the Bill comes before Parliament it will pro-

bably be strongly contested from some quarters. This Bill will originate in the House of Lords.

In connection with the Ship Canal and the payment of interest Bill now before Parliament, some interesting and important facts have been made public at the first ordinary meeting of the Canal Company, held a few days ago. From the statement of the chairman, it appears that so far only three-quarters of a million has as yet been subscribed; but this is not greatly to be wondered at when it is considered that, as the Act at present stands, the shareholders can expect no interest on their money until the canal is made—some years hence. Investors are naturally reluctant to sink their money for so long a period without any return, and the limited amount subscribed is likely to form a powerful argument in favour of the proposal to pay dividends out of capital during construction. If Parliament sanctions this course Messrs. Rothschild, the chairman explained, will be ready to provide the remainder of the capital straightaway, at 1 per cent. Lord Rothschild, when discussing the subject with the directors, is reported to have said: "Don't you believe that we are going to do anything but what is right and economical for you; we are satisfied that the negotiations of the finances of this great national enterprise will do our house great honour, and that we, with the strength of our name and associations, will be able to find all the money that you require." No stronger testimony to the soundness of the undertaking could perhaps, it is thought by some, be given, or surer proof that the necessary money can be obtained; but it is certain that if the present Bill be passed Messrs. Rothschild will not have to do all they are prepared for, for there are hundreds, and even thousands, of people who will be ready to invest larger or smaller sums in the canal if they can at once realise dividends. The Salford Corporation alone propose to subscribe a quarter of a million. And what the Bill proposes is the payment of interest at the rate of 4 per cent. per annum during construction, the total amount, however, not exceeding £750,000. The meeting was attended by considerably over 1000 shareholders, and the Bill was unanimously approved of, after these and other statements had been made.

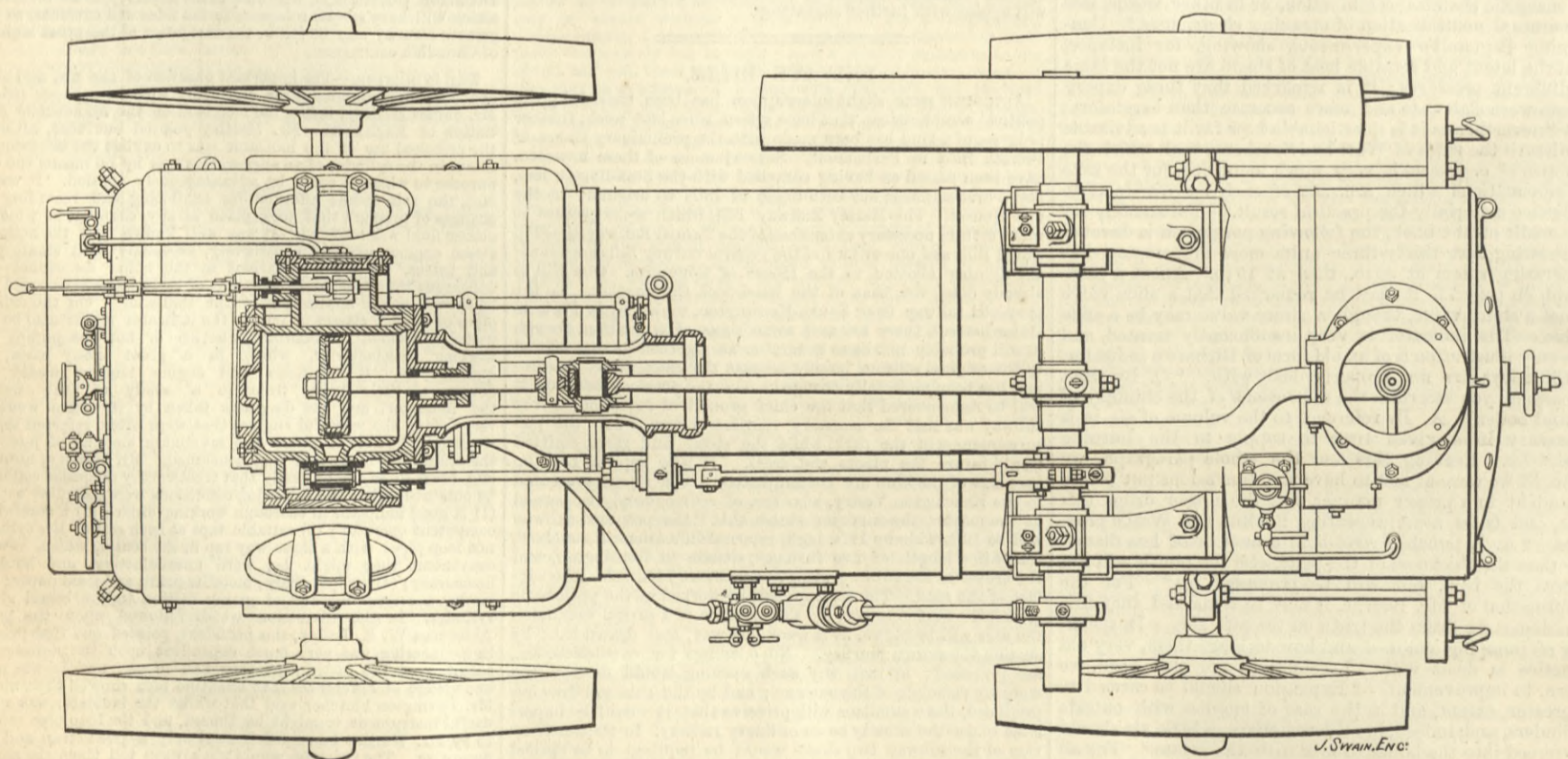
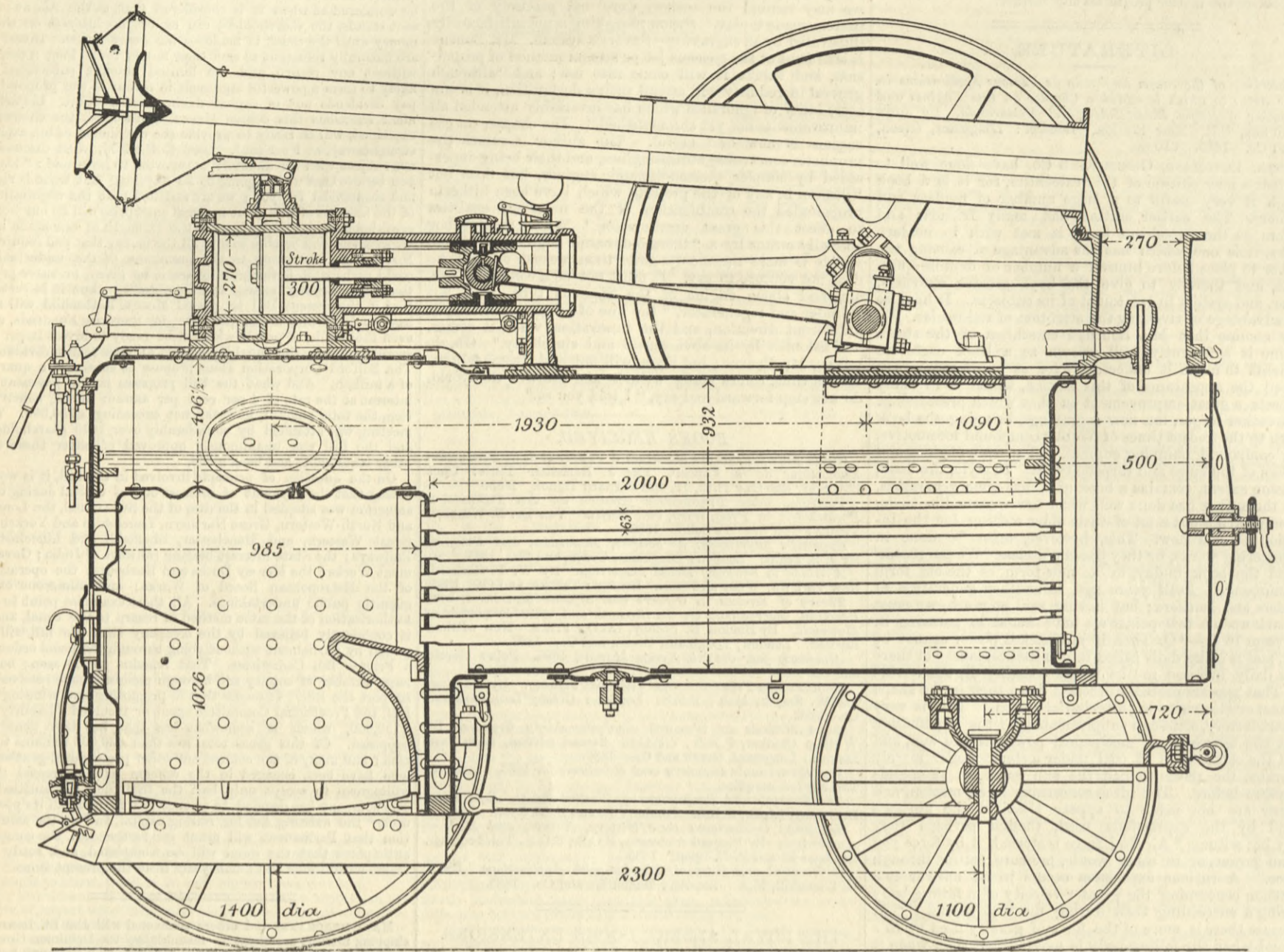
On the question of principle involved in the Bill, it is worth noting that the payment of interest out of capital during construction was adopted in the case of the Suez Canal, the London and North-Western, Great Northern, Lancashire and Yorkshire, Great Western, and Manchester, Sheffield, and Lincolnshire Railways; the State interest-bearing railways of India; Government Works; the Mersey Docks and Harbours; the operations of the Metropolitan Board of Works; and numerous other gigantic public undertakings. All these examples point to the authorisation of the same method in regard to the canal, and it is confidently believed by the company that the Bill will be passed by Parliament without going through the usual ordeal of a Private Bill Committee. That remains to be seen; but a large number of county and borough members have resolved to support the Bill. It seems that in promoting and winning the Bill, the Provisional Committee spent or incurred a liability for £150,000, which is somewhat less than has been generally supposed. Of this gross total less than £30,000 remains to be paid; and many of the counsel and other professional gentlemen who have been engaged in the scheme have expressed their willingness to accept only half the fees they are entitled to. The company has decided to at once put in force all its powers under the existing Act for raising capital, and on the assumption that Parliament will grant its further Bill, the company anticipates that the canal will be completed and ready for traffic within four and a-half years from the present time.

MANY MERCHANTS and others connected with the St. Lawrence shipping interest are about to memorialise the Dominion Government as to the necessity for the completion of a thorough hydrographic survey of the river and Gulf of St. Lawrence. Last autumn it appears that a survey was commenced from Quebec, at the instance of the Imperial Government, and work was proceeded with down the Gulf. The *Colonies and India* says, it is hoped that the Dominion Government will also cause a survey to be instituted, which will have special reference to the tides and currents, so that greater security may be felt in the navigation of this great highway of Canadian commerce.

THE INDICATOR.—The important question of the use and abuse of the steam engine indicator was dealt with in a paper read by Mr. James Hartley, before the members of the Manchester Association of Engineers. Mr. Hartley pointed out that, although the principal use of the indicator was to exhibit the behaviour of steam in the cylinder of an engine, this was by no means the only purpose to which it could be advantageously applied. It was, in fact, the sole means afforded for exhibiting and recording the changes of pressure that took place in any chamber in which an elastic fluid was confined. It was well known that the action of steam engines working expansively, especially with small pipes and valves, produced pulsations in the boiler sometimes of a dangerous character, and the extent of these pulsations could only be shown by the application of the indicator. On the delivery pipes of certain classes of pumps the indicator might also be very usefully applied to ascertain whether or not the pumps were working satisfactorily, which, in a great many cases, was questionable. If engineers and engine tenders would only devote a little more time to a study of the use of the indicator, and the diagrams taken by it, there would be very few of the wasteful engines that were often referred to, and we should be able to obtain the maximum amount of power for the minimum amount of fuel consumed. Mr. Hartley, however, laid down most emphatically that trustworthy diagrams could not be obtained unless the following conditions were complied with:—(1) A good indicator in thorough working order; (2) a careful and competent operator; (3) suitable taps at each end of the cylinder, not loop pipes with a three-way tap in the centre, which, however convenient they might be, were unsatisfactory, and liable to inaccuracy; (4) a good, sharp, metallic point, and good paper; and, lastly, a correct method of giving motion to the barrel of the cylinder. In the discussion which followed upon the paper, Alderman W. H. Bailey, the president, pointed out that progress in engineering was very much dependent upon the delicacy and accuracy of the instrument they had to use, and it was in the knowledge of differences that scientific men showed their ability. Mr. Lavington Fletcher said that whilst the indicator was a most useful instrument it might be abused, and the loop pipe referred to by Mr. Hartley he regarded as simply a great trap and very deceptive. The indicator would not always tell them the amount of steam passing through the engine. Very often when a complete test was made a discrepancy of 30 per cent. was discovered; and if any member of that Association could invent some kind of meter which could be applied to the hot overflow of an engine, such an instrument would be invaluable. They must not rest content with the indicator in its present form, and he hoped that someone would try the testing of the heat as it passed out of the engine. Mr. Lewis did not consider the indicator as by any means perfect, and no system of levers could be trustworthy. He thought some instrument might be devised for communicating the motion of the engine direct to the indicator. Mr. Taylor said that for very high-speed engines it was questionable whether any of the present forms of indicators were altogether trustworthy. The primary use of the indicator was that it should record the exact pressure of steam at any particular part of the cylinder.

10-HP. PORTABLE ENGINE AT THE BUDAPEST EXHIBITION.

CONSTRUCTED AT THE WORKS OF THE STATE RAILWAYS, BUDAPEST



HUNGARIAN ENGINE AND THRASHER.

THE wonder is, not that Hungarian manufacturers are beginning to find out that, with the advantages of excellent materials, cheap labour, and high protective duties, they ought to be able to produce agricultural machinery equally, if not better suited to the requirements of their country, than the more elaborately executed and finer finished importations which have so long been almost an English monopoly, but that they did not make the discovery and turn their attention to independent efforts in this direction years ago. It is a significant evidence of the prevailing tendency to free themselves from every semblance of foreign dependency, no less than of the advances achieved in the capabilities of native artisans, that in the workshops of the

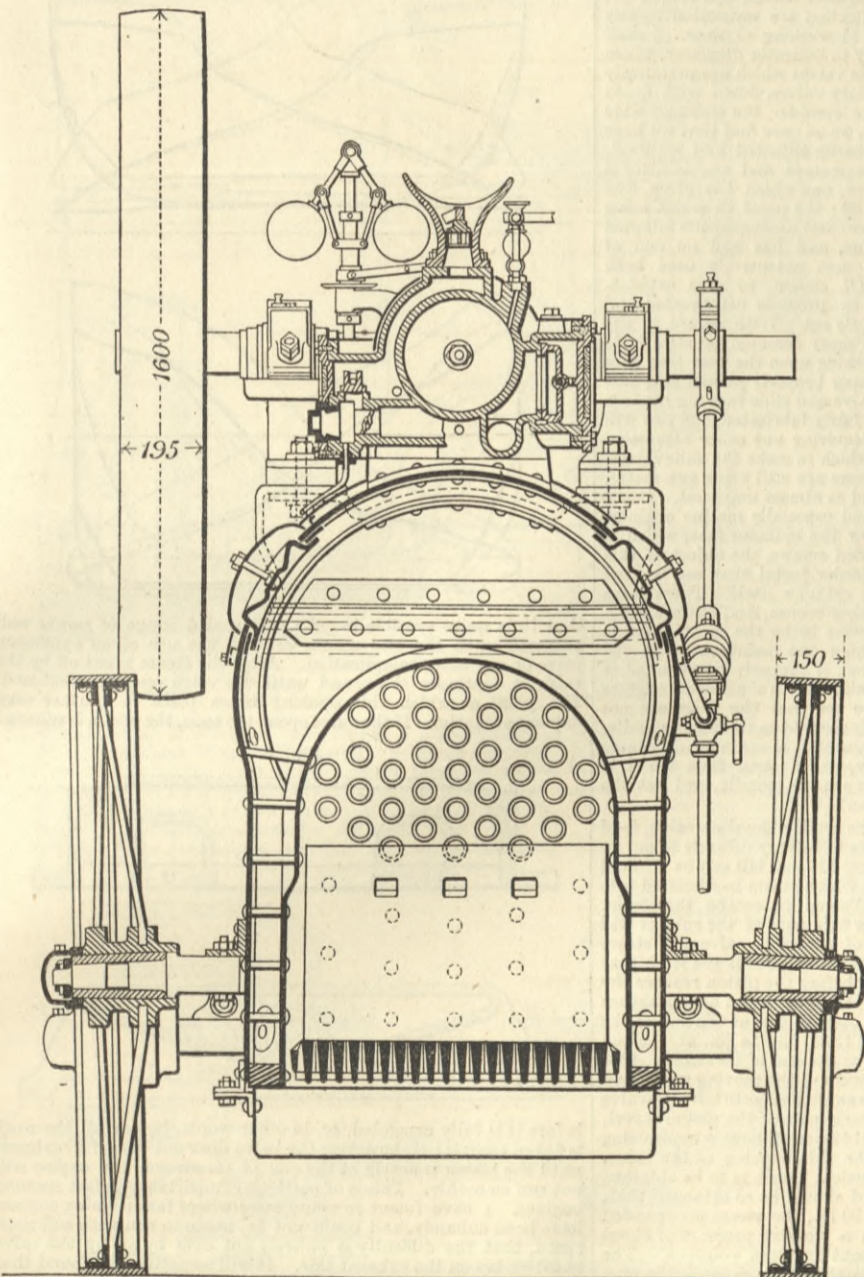
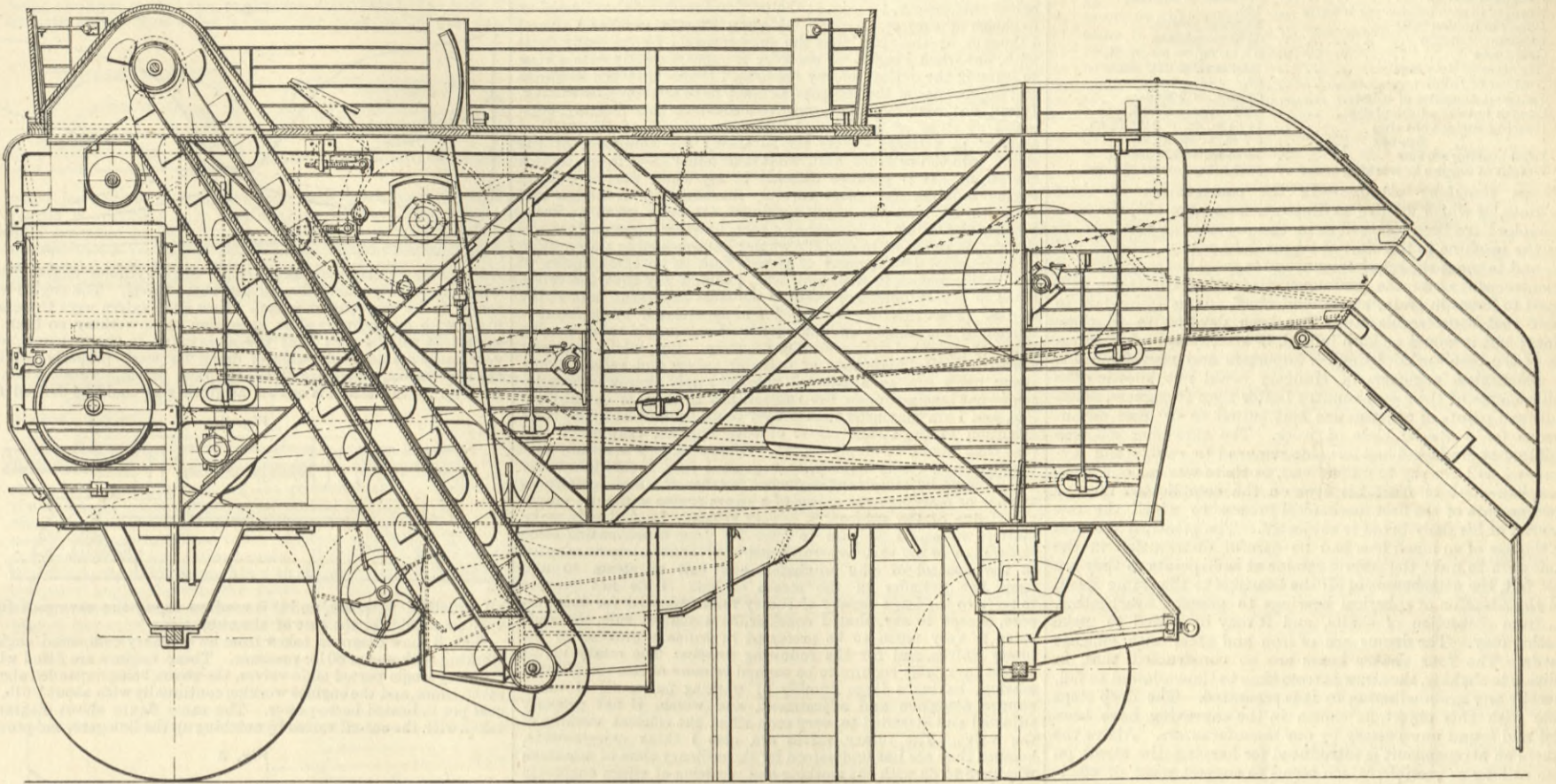
Hungarian States Railways the number of foreign workmen in every branch but one, viz., coppersmiths and braziers, has been steadily decreasing from year to year, as will be seen from the following table of proportions of native to foreign labour in 1874 and 1884:—

Year.	Turners.		Planers.		Lock-smiths.		Copper-smiths.		Smiths.		Boiler-smiths.	
	Nat.	For.	Nat.	For.	Nat.	For.	Nat.	For.	Nat.	For.	Nat.	For.
1874	50	50	70	30	60	40	54	46	73	27	51	49
1884	60	40	77	23	89	11	24	76	80	20	75	25

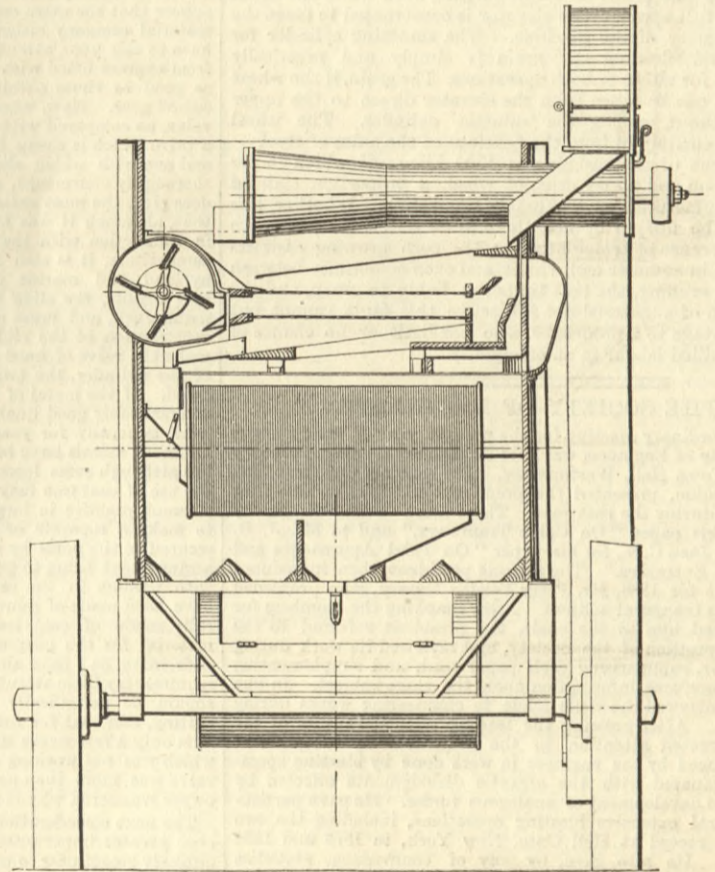
Year.	Founders.		Carpenters.		Painters.		Labourers.		Average.	
	Nat.	For.	Nat.	For.	Nat.	For.	Nat.	For.	Nat.	For.
1874	28	72	50	50	60	40	96	34	55	45
1884	40	60	70	30	80	20	72	28	70	30

The specimens of portable engines and thrashing machines exhibited at Budapest last year are apt illustrations of the attention paid to the special requirements of Hungarian agriculture. Their general appearance although, owing to the sad and sombre colours of the paint, suggestive of consciousness of

THRASHING MACHINE AT THE BUDAPEST EXHIBITION.



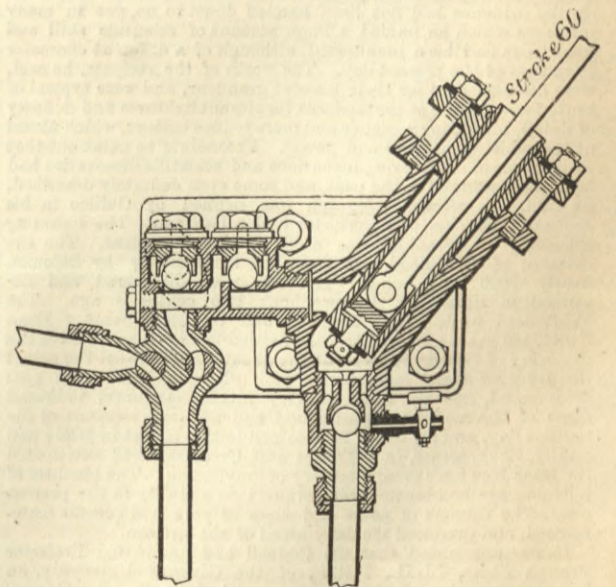
CROSS SECTION OF PORTABLE ENGINE.



SECTION OF THRASHING MACHINE.

preventing the formation of boiler stone, owing to the expansion and contraction of the corrugations under varying temperatures of steam. The sides of the fire-box are left plain, as being easier to clean or repair than corrugated plates. To protect the tube plate from the direct action of flame, and to effect a more thorough admixture of the combustible gases, a cast iron screen is attached to the base of it, springing from the front end of the fire-bars and curving upwards and backwards to about half the height and a quarter of the length of the fire-box. Instead of

pressed in light steel. The boiler is fed by a pump fitted with an arrangement for warming the feed-water with the waste



SECTION OF FEED PUMP.

the rougher usage to which they are destined, gives every promise of being able to endure it. Every part has been chosen with a view to avoiding the necessity of highly skilled labour in renewal and repairs, providing at the same time a superabundance of strength to compensate for the lack of this in the hands of those to whose supervision they will be entrusted.

As will be seen from the accompanying drawing of a 10-horse power—nominal—portable engine, the fire-box and grate area have considerably larger dimensions than engines of the same class and power in general, in order to suit inferior fuel, be it either coal, lignite, wood, or straw. The leading features in the construction are as follows:—The boiler and tubes are of "Fluss" iron, as well as the crown of the fire-box, which is corrugated, after Haswell's patent. Besides the simplicity of this form of construction, it is found to offer special advantages in

fastening the engine direct to the boiler, which method is always more or less accompanied by a chance of leakage at the bolt holes, to say nothing of the general pulling necessary for the renewal of any parts, the cylinder, crosshead guides, and main bearings are attached to saddles which have been previously rivetted to the shell. The boiler fittings are exceptionally massive; the crosshead guides are bored so as to facilitate accuracy in mounting, and the construction of the crosshead and piston-rod eliminates any difficulty in adjustment. The crank axle is of steel forged in one piece. An eccentric on the main shaft, by which also the expansion may, within certain limits, be regulated, enables the engine to be reversed, should the necessity for doing so arise. The inlet valve is outside the boiler, attached to the cylinder, and worked by a lever. The manhole covers and stays, mud plug door, fire and smoke-box doors, are all

steam. The chimney is provided with a spark catcher. The under frames supporting the engine on two axes are entirely of

iron. The leading dimensions of the engine are as follows, and show that it is large for its nominal power:—

Diameter of cylinder	270 mm. = 10.63in.
Length of stroke	300 mm. = 11.81in.
Number of revolutions per minute	140.
Effective horse-power	26-horse power.
Pressure of steam	4½ atmospheres.
Grate area	0.8 m. sq. = 3.6 sq. ft.
Diameter of fly-wheel	1600 mm. = 5ft. 3in.
Number of tubes	37.
External diameter of tubes	63 mm. = 2.48in.
Length between tube plates	2000 mm. = 6.56ft.
Heating surface of tubes	14.64 m. sq. = 157.5ft. sq.
fire-box	3.7 m. = 39.8ft. sq.
Total heating surface	18.34 m. = 197.3ft. sq.
Weight of engine in working order	5600 kilog., about 5½ tons.

Steam thrashing machine.—In the construction of these machines, of which we give an illustration on page 111, the same principles have been followed as in the portable engines, viz., to suit the machine to the class of labour into whose hands it will fall, and to meet the requirements and to avoid the complaints of agriculturists as to the performance of other thrashers with regard to losses in grain, straw, and chaff. It is quite fair to admit that considerable study has been devoted to all these points; but it would be hard indeed, if after years of observation of the best works of English importers and manufacturers, the mechanical engineers of Hungary could not, knowing the requirements of their own country better than foreigners, adopt or discard points of construction best suited to or least advantageous for a special class of work. The thrashing machine exhibited at Budapest had one side removed to enable the layman—we will not say to understand, as there was no one there to explain—but to feast his eyes on the complicated interior arrangements of the first mechanical process to which the raw material of his daily bread is subjected. The principal features are the use of so much iron and its careful distribution in the framework to meet the several strains at such points as they are most felt, the attachment of all the bearings to the frame itself, and the adoption of spherical bearings to prevent overheating, &c., from distortion of shafts, and it may be added to make erection easy. The drums are of iron and steel with efficient guards. The four shaker boxes are so constructed that, in addition to shaking, the straw is from time to time allowed to fall, whereby any grain adhering to it is separated. The deep steps made with this object, as shown in the engraving, have been tried and found unnecessary by our manufacturers. Above the shakers an arrangement is introduced for keeping the straw on them as long as possible, which seems to suggest want of efficiency in the shaker. The upper and lower fans are sufficiently large to free the grain of all impurities, even when the drum is driven at full speed. The elevator is constructed to meet the highest capacity of the machine. The smutting cylinder for bearding and cleaning the grain is simply and practically constructed for either or both operations. The grain, if the wheat be blighted, can be taken from the elevator direct to the upper cleaner without passing the smutter cylinder. The wheel trucks are entirely of iron, the bearings of the axles of steel.

The weight of the machine is 4700 kilog., of which 75 per cent. is of iron and 25 per cent. of wood, a proportion claimed by the manufacturers as a valuable innovation. Whether this proportion be unique or not, there is no doubt that, with the intense difference of temperature in the corn growing districts of Hungary in summer and winter, and even sometimes between sunrise and evening, the best timber is liable to warp, and the introduction of a material not subject to this fault cannot but be of advantage to a proprietor who has little or no chance of obtaining skilled labour in an emergency.

THE SOCIETY OF ENGINEERS.

THE first ordinary meeting for the present year of the members of the Society of Engineers was held on Monday evening, February 1st, at the Town Hall, Westminster. The retiring president, Mr. Charles Gandon, presented the premiums of books awarded for papers read during the past year. These were to Mr. W. Newby Colam for his paper "On Cable Tramways," and to Mr. J. B. Redman, M. Inst. C.E., for his paper "On Tidal Approaches and Deep-Water Entrances." The retiring president then introduced the president for 1886, Mr. Perry Fairfax Nursey, who proceeded to deliver his inaugural address. After thanking the members for having elected him to the chair, the president referred to the satisfactory position of the Society, and reviewed its work during the past year, summarising each paper read, and supplementing some by subsequent information upon the same subject. In like manner he reviewed the visits made to engineering works during the vacation. After noticing the leading scientific events of the year, he directed attention to the comparatively insignificant effects produced by the engineer in work done by blasting operations as compared with the gigantic dislodgments effected by nature in the development of analogous forces. He gave particulars of several extensive blasting operations, including the two heaviest on record at Hell Gate, New York, in 1876 and 1885 respectively. He also gave, by way of comparison, statistics concerning many earthquakes and volcanic upheavals. Passing on to consider the present state of engineering science and practice, he observed that we were rather prone in the present day to exult ourselves at the expense of the ancients, whom we were wont to consider as possessing no science whatever according to the modern acceptance of the term. But he pointed out that, although text-books of the ancients and other similar evidence had not been handed down to us, yet in many instances which he named a large amount of scientific skill and knowledge had been manifested, although of a different character from that of the present day. The works of the ancients, he said, were distinguished for their massive grandeur, and were typical of brute force; those of the moderns for elegant lightness and delicacy of detail, indicating a higher and more refined culture, which aimed at economising material and power. Proceeding to point out that many modern engineering inventions and scientific discoveries had been foreshadowed in the past, and some even definitely described, he said, the electric telegraph was defined by Galileo in his *Systema Cosmicum* two centuries and a half ago. The lightning conductor of Franklin was used by the Etruscans. The circulation of the blood was described symbolically by Solomon nearly 3000 years since. Bacteria were discovered and described in detail by Leeuwenhoek two centuries ago. The Whitehead torpedo was foreshadowed by Ben Jonson. Dean Swift, 160 years ago, credited the astronomer of Laputa with the discovery of two satellites revolving about Mars; whilst the actual discovery of Mars' moons only took place in 1877. The poet Drummond, 260 years ago, in very precise language, indicated some of the most important naval and military weapons of the present day, and for which he obtained letters patent in 1626; and finally, Shakespeare, in "Troilus and Cressida," had anticipated Sir Isaac Newton's great discovery of gravitation. The idealism of a bygone age had become transformed into a reality in the present one. The dreams of poets and sages of yore had become materialised, and produced the daily bread of the artisan.

It was announced that the Council had nominated Professor Francis Elgar, LL.D., F.R.S., of the Glasgow University, an honorary member of the Society, and had instituted a "President's Premium" of books, which would be awarded annually, in addition to the other premiums; and further, that, at Mr. Nursey's request, Sir Henry Bessemer—honorary member—had undertaken to present to the Society an annual premium of books, to be designated "The Bessemer Premium."

MODERN PRACTICE IN SLIDE VALVES.*

By Mr. TOM WESTGARTH, Middlesbrough.

WHEN the secretary asked me to prepare a paper to be read before this society, I accepted the proposal made by the Council as to choice of subject, namely, "Modern Practice in Slide Valves." I thought at the time that the subject would be one easily dealt with, but when I began to consider it more carefully with a view to framing the outline of my remarks, I found that the largeness and importance of the subject was likely to be almost embarrassing. It will not require any argument to convince this meeting, composed as it is of engineers, of the importance of the method adopted in a steam engine for governing the admission of the steam into the cylinder, and, what is of equal importance, its exit therefrom. It is perhaps difficult to say which part of a steam engine requires the most careful consideration in design and manufacture, and the most assiduous attention when at work, because the failure of almost any part, however apparently unimportant, is sufficient to stop the whole; but considering the question of economical development of power, both as to consumption of fuel and expenses in wear and tear, I should say that the valves fitted to the cylinder are perhaps the most important part of the engine. That this fact is grasped and appreciated by engineers is proved by the almost endless variety of valves and valve gearing which are adopted with a view to economy. But, whilst engineers are alive to the importance of cylinder valves and valve gearing, steam users are, as a general rule, not only almost necessarily somewhat ignorant upon the subject, but to a great extent careless, and I am convinced that if they could be induced to pay more attention to the steam valves of their engines, they would find that they would be amply repaid. Of course, it is necessary that the owners of steam engines, as a general rule, should be advised and directed by competent engineers, because, if a man commences to alter or rearrange the valves of a steam engine without a proper knowledge of the subject, it is very probable he will only make matters worse. I propose to offer for your consideration some remarks as to the various arrangements of slide-valves as adapted to the control of the admission and exit of steam to and from the cylinder of the steam engine. I do not propose to refer to the large variety of rotary valves adapted for this purpose, except to say, that I consider, as a general rule, the slide valve is very much to be preferred in ordinary practice to the rotary valves, and for the following reasons: The rotary valves almost invariably require to be worked by more or less complicated gearing, having a large number of working parts, all of which require attention and adjustment, and which, if not properly adjusted and attended to, very soon affect the efficient working of the valve. The rotary valves are also I think objectionable, because they are not understood by the ordinary class of workmen who have to do with the working and repairing of steam engines in actual practice; and again, these valves, with their gearing, are almost invariably more expensive than slide valves, and it does not appear that the extra cost and complication are warranted by any material economy either of fuel or in working expense. I shall have to call your attention presently to indicator diagrams, taken from engines fitted with ordinary slide valves which are practically as good as those obtained with rotary valves, fitted with quick cut-off gear. Now, when we come to consider the ordinary slide valve, as compared with other valves, we at once find that we have a valve which is cheap in first cost, easily adjusted and repaired, and one with which almost every engineman and engine-fitter is thoroughly conversant, and, moreover, one which has given, and does give, the most satisfactory results; the proof of which being that, although it was amongst the earliest arrangements adopted in connection with the steam engine, and has had no end of competitors, it is still by far the most extensively used both by land and marine engineers. Of course, to give satisfactory results, the slide valve must be properly constructed and maintained, and must also be properly set. With regard to the construction of the slide valve, the most common practice is to make the valve of hard cast iron, working upon the cast iron face of the cylinder, the two surfaces being properly planed and surfaced. If the metal of which the valve and slide face are made is of reasonably good quality and kept fairly lubricated, the two will work generally for years without requiring any other attention. Different metals have been tried of which to make the slide valves, but although some locomotive engineers are still using gun-metal, the use of cast iron may be considered as almost universal. It is a common practice in large engines, and especially marine engines, to make a separate or false face for the cylinder face, which is secured to the ports by recessed headed screws, the object of this arrangement being to get a face of harder metal than can be used with wisdom in the casting of the cylinder itself. These faces have been made of gun-metal, phosphor-bronze, &c., but are generally made of cast iron, which seems to be the most suitable material for the purpose. Concerning the maintenance of the slide valve, as I have already remarked, if properly constructed it requires very little attention; but the slidevalves of all steam engines should be periodically examined to see that the faces are not cutting, and that the valve is properly secured to its rod or spindle. It is only a few weeks since I was requested to examine an engine which was not working satisfactorily, and I found that the slide valve was more than an inch loose upon the spindle, and yet the owner wondered why it would not work.

The next consideration, namely, the setting the slide valve, is of even greater importance. It appears to be very difficult to get an ordinary steam user to understand that his coal bill can be affected even to a small extent by the way in which steam is admitted into the cylinder of his engine and allowed to escape therefrom. Perhaps the best way we can consider this part of the subject will be to follow in fancy the operations of the slide valve of a steam engine during one revolution. The starting point is the lead, that is the amount which the valve opens before the piston reaches the end of its stroke. As a general rule it will be found advantageous to allow the valve to be opened from 1/8 in. to 1/4 in. at the end of the cylinder remote from the crank, and from 1/16 in. to 1/8 in. at the end nearest the crank when the piston is at the end of its stroke. The steam so admitted checks the momentum of the moving parts, and what is perhaps equally important, it is an advantage to have the valve open as wide as possible during the early part of the piston travel, so that there may be free admission of steam without wire-drawing and loss of pressure. Then comes the full opening of the valve, followed by the cut-off. If an economical result is to be obtained the point of cut-off must be early, and should be so arranged that, with a working pressure of 80 lb. to 90 lb., the steam is expanded into six or seven volumes; or with a working pressure of about 150 lb. the expansion should be about fourteen volumes. The consideration as to whether the steam should be expanded in one, two, three or more cylinders, is outside the scope of this paper. It is desirable that the valve should open as wide as possible for the admission of steam and that it should close quickly. These conditions make it necessary, when early cut-off is required, that the valve should have a long travel, otherwise it will open slowly and not very wide, the result being that the full boiler pressure will not be even approximately attained in the cylinder, and that the steam will be wire-drawn, that is, that the pressure will not be maintained even at the point reached at the early part of the stroke. I believe that the imperfect work of the slide valve at this part of its stroke is the cause of immense loss to steam users, which is more to be regretted as the fault could often be remedied, or, at any rate, much mitigated with very small trouble and expense. If, as in this case of a single cylinder engine, it is desired to obtain the full benefits of using high-pressure steam extensively, and the engine is large enough to do its work with an early cut-off—without which an economical result cannot be obtained—it is necessary to supplement the slide valve with an expansion valve, because if the ordinary slide valve were set off at, say, one-seventh of the stroke it would be found to be difficult to properly control

* Cleveland Institution of Engineers.

the exhaust. If, however, the steam is to be expanded in more than one cylinder, as in the case of a compound engine, it will generally be found that a satisfactory result can be obtained without an expansion valve.

Fig. 1

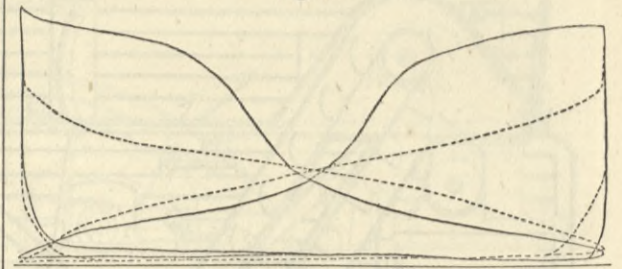
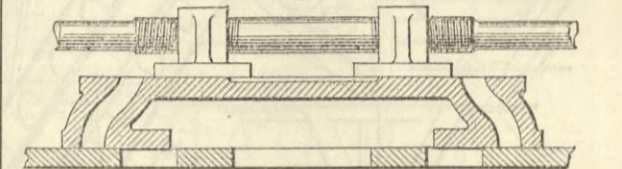


Fig. 1 shows diagrams taken from a single-cylinder engine fitted with an ordinary slide valve having short travel. The engine was found to be very uneconomical. New slide valves were therefore fitted with an ordinary slide expansion valve working on back of same. It will be seen that the slide valve, in the first case, was very badly set and incapable of doing its work properly. With the new valves, which are of the simplest possible construction—see Fig. 2—the steam is cut off as quickly as could be desired for

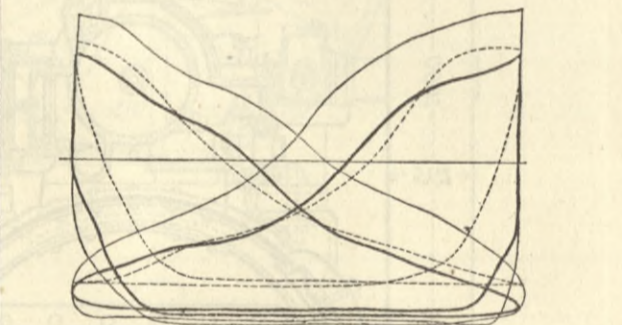
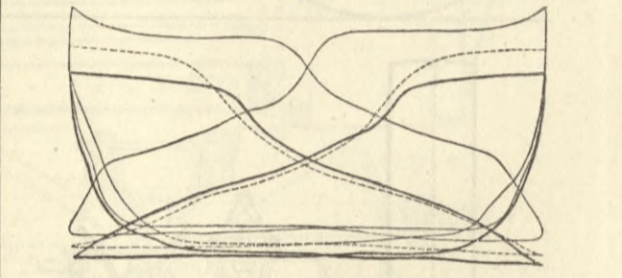
Fig. 2



all practical purposes, and it is needless to say the saving of fuel very soon paid for the cost of the alterations.

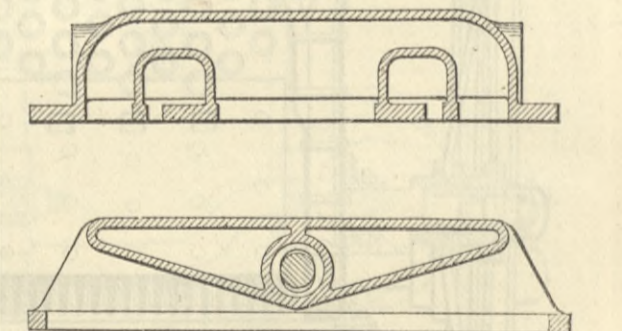
Figs. 3 show diagrams taken from an ordinary compound engine working with steam 80 lb. pressure. These engines are fitted with ordinary single-ported slide valves, the steam being expanded about seven times, and the engines working continually with about 1.6 lb. of coal per indicated horse-power. The same figure shows diagrams taken with the cut-off varied by notching up the link gear, and proves

Fig. 3



that it is quite possible to get a very varied range of power well balanced upon the two cranks without the use of an expansion valve or any other complication. After the steam is cut off by the valve it continues to expand until the valve opens for exhaust. The point at which this opening takes place is another very important matter. If the valve opens too soon, the steam is released

Fig. 4

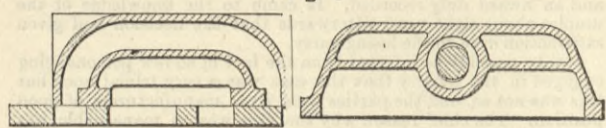


before it is fully expanded, or, in other words, before all the work is taken from it; if, however, the valve does not open for exhaust until the piston is nearly at the end of its stroke, the engine will not run smoothly. This is of particular importance in fast running engines. I have found in many cases where fast running engines have been unhandy, and could not be made to run with sufficient speed, that the difficulty is entirely got over by giving the valve negative lap on the exhaust side. It will sometimes be found that the power of the engine has been increased by the same means.

The next point of consideration is the closing of the exhaust. This again requires careful attention. If it takes place too early, the engine is pulled up by excessive compression; if, on the other hand, you do not arrange to have a fair amount of compression, the admission of steam into the cylinder when the steam valve opens will cause sudden shocks and unsatisfactory working. The only way to ascertain satisfactorily whether the slide valve is properly set is by the use of the indicator; and I am convinced that it would be an immense advantage to steam users if they would have their engines properly indicated at regular and not too long intervals. We come now to the consideration of the various descriptions of slide valves, the first, of course, being the ordinary single-ported locomotive slide, which is so well known that I need not attempt to describe it in any way. Nearly all the other forms of slide valves are modifications of this valve, the most common being the ordinary double-ported slide as shown by Fig. 4. This valve gives a double opening for both steam and exhaust, and therefore gives the advantages of a large area of port opening and a quick cut-off without an abnormally long travel. The same arrangement is sometimes adopted for triple-ported valves. We then have the trick valve, sections of which are shown by Figs. 5 and 6. This

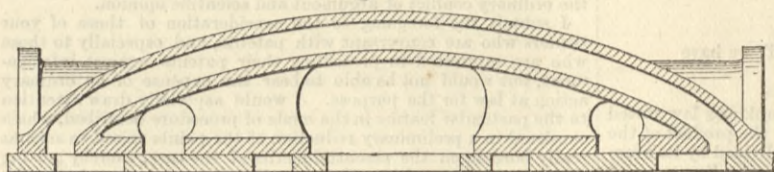
consists of the ordinary locomotive slide, so far as the exhaust is concerned, but a double opening is given for steam, a port being cast within the lap of the steam side, carried round the back of the valve, and admitting steam from the opposite end, the valve face being arranged so that the port opens and closes at the same time at both ends. This valve is one of the most useful that can be

Fig. 5



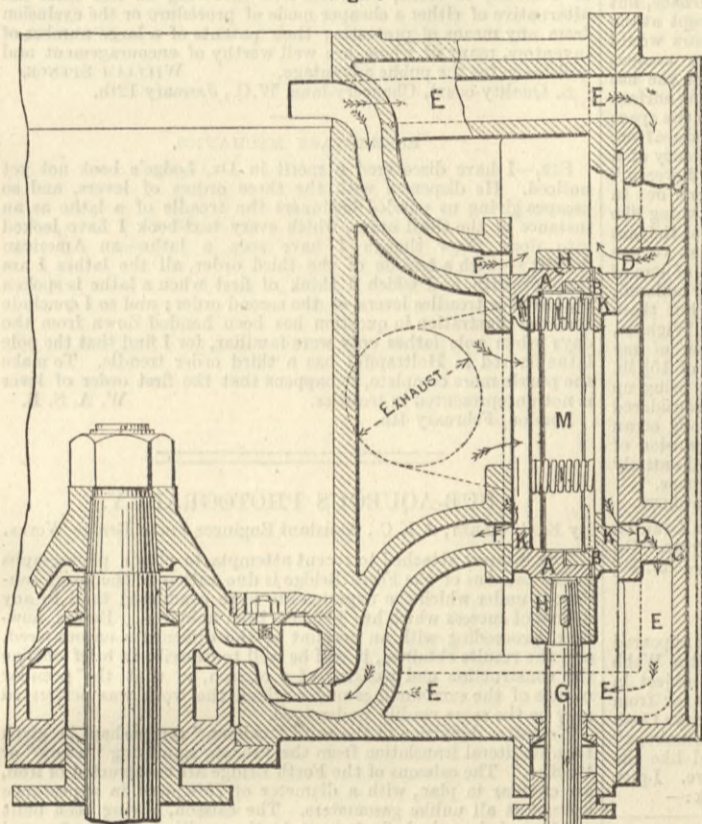
fitted for engines of ordinary size, and gives very satisfactory results in practice. A modification of the trick valve has been patented by Mr. Thom, of Barrow-in-Furness. A section of the valve is shown by Fig. 6. The difference consists in a slight variation of the position of the port in the lap of the valve, which is so arranged that, in addition to passing

Fig. 6



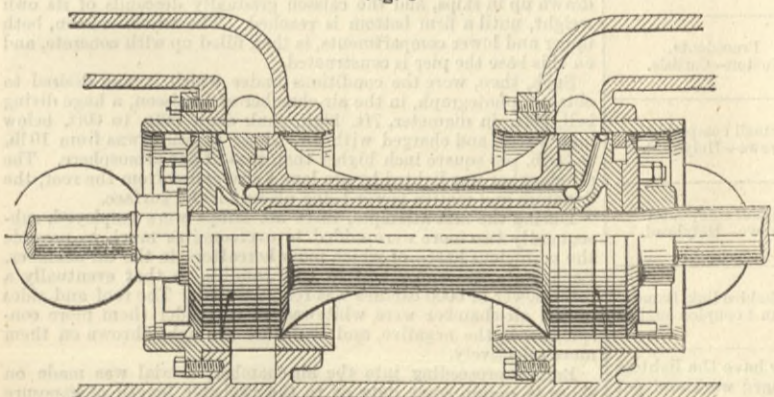
steam into the opposite end of the cylinder from the steam chest, it also admits the exhaust steam from one side of the piston to the other just before the exhaust opens, so that the steam at its terminal pressure is admitted to the opposite side of the piston, and there compressed and so used again. It is claimed that this valve is particularly useful when fitted to the low-pressure cylinder of a compound engine, because the steam is there expanded down far below atmospheric pressure, and the compression ordinarily taking place is not sufficient to absorb the work stored in the momentum

Fig. 7



of the piston; it is also of use fitted to a high-pressure cylinder, as in both cases it saves the amount of steam required at each revolution to fill the ports and clearances, these being filled by the exhaust steam from opposite side of piston before the lead opened. The outer ports only are used for steam; they are therefore much larger; both ports are used for exhaust. This valve has been fitted to large steamships, it is said with very satisfactory results

Fig. 9

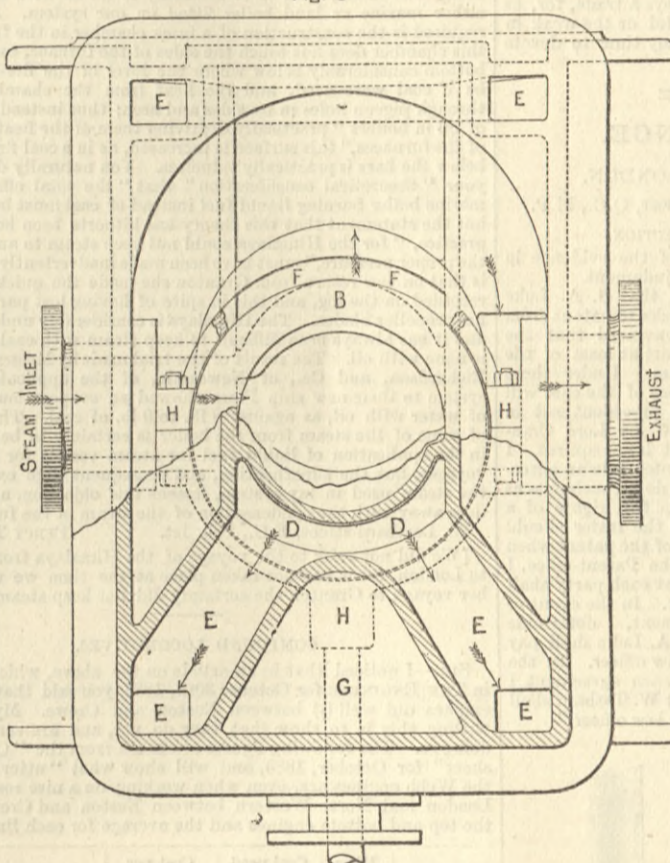


both as to economy of fuel and steadiness of engines when racing in a sea-way. The next valve to which I wish to call your attention is Messrs. Paton and Wilson's patent circular double-ported slide valve. The valve is shown by Figs. 7 and 8 and is circular in form, and is constructed of two rings AB, alike on their outer faces, but jointed together so as to act as one ring. The cover of the valve chest is provided with a port face, having ports DD, with passages EE leading to the ends of the cylinder, exactly similar to and opposite FF in the cylinder port face. The valve is driven by a valve rod G connected to a circular hoop H, within which the valve fits with sufficient freedom to allow of its turning within it, should it have any tendency to do so. As the valve moves it necessarily opens and closes two ports simultaneously at each reciprocation and acts as a double-ported valve. The steam is first admitted to the interior of the valve, from which it passes to the cylinder, and is then exhausted on the exterior of the valve into the valve chest, as indicated by the arrows, which acts as a receiver. As the width of the face of each part of the valve is only that of a port with the required lap added, it has no back upon which steam can press so as to keep it

upon its seat when entirely covering a port, a flange K is therefore formed on the interior of each part of the valve for this purpose, and its area is determined by the width of the ports; with the exception of these flanges the valve has no surfaces subject to steam pressure; it is therefore balanced. The spiral springs L, shown in the drawings, are only used to keep the two parts of the valve expanded and in contact with their port faces when steam is turned off. The joint, where the two parts of the valve meet, is made steam-tight by means of a thin strip of brass M sprung over it inside the valve, and having the pressure of the steam on the back of it. The principal advantages claimed for this valve are its freedom to revolve upon the face and thus avoid cutting, the reduction of steam pressure upon the valve chest cover, and the greater freedom of exhaust due to the larger port opening on outer or exhaust edge of valve.

I have here a sample valve which was fitted to a cylinder 18in. diameter on board the s.s. Stormcock; it had been working nine months with a pressure of 75 lb. and was taken out for use as a sample. You will be able to observe the smoothness of the faces and the evidence of easy working. The increasing steam pressures which are gradually being used have caused a very general adoption, of late, of the piston valve. Where there is reason to believe that the friction of the slide valve upon the face, caused by the size of the valve or pressure acting upon it, is too great to be left unnoticed, I think it is much better to adopt the piston valve than to fit any of the ordinary forms of relief gear upon back of the slide valves. These relief gears are expensive and require a good deal of attention to keep them in working order, and, to make them sufficiently steam-tight to relieve the pressure on back of valve, they have to be set up so hard that I am inclined to think the loss in driving them is as great as the relief they give. The piston valve is in equilibrium, and if properly constructed there is no difficulty in making it steam-tight. Fig. 9 shows a piston valve of ordinary construction fitted with two steel spring rings. It is a common plan, however, to fit only one ring, and, in many cases, no springs behind it, simply a solid ring of cast iron. Fig. 9A shows the section of a valve fitted with a single cast iron ring, supported by a second

Fig. 8

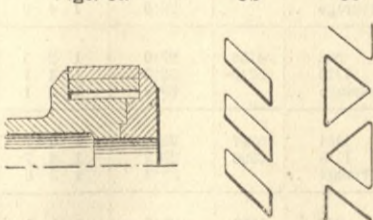


ring also of cast iron in lieu of a spring. The outer ring is sometimes put in alone and not split, and if nicely fitted will run for a considerable time, after which it can be split, and a spring fitted. Various materials are used of which to make the rings, but I think cast iron is the best. Care must be taken that the ports in the cylinder are so arranged that the slot of the spring ring is at no time entirely uncovered; this is done by casting the ports at an angle as shown upon the drawing—Figs. 9B or 9C. Mr. Thom's patent can be applied to the piston valve, as shown by Fig. 9.

Figs. 9a

9b

9c



I have not been able to bring under your notice all, or indeed a majority of the slide valves which are doing good work, but have discussed only a few examples as illustrating the principal classes of valve in use. I had

intended to refer to the use of separate slide valves for steam and exhaust, and also to discuss the various descriptions of expansion slide valves, but fear that I have already made my paper too long, and will therefore leave these matters to be dealt with by others.

PIECE-WORK IN THE RAILROAD PAINT SHOP.

The following paper was read at the Toronto Convention of the Master Car-Painters' Association, by Mr. F. S. Ball, master painter of the Pennsylvania Railroad shops at Altoona. It possesses interest as showing an American view of the piece-work question:—
Has piece-work any advantage over day-work? We hold that it has. Day-work is a contract to pay a specified sum or compensation for a certain number of hours per day of labour, or a moiety thereof per hour. The amount of labour to be done does not usually enter into the contract, and is as variable as the will and ability of different workmen and the varied qualifications and executive abilities of the master painters can make it. Piece-work is a contract to do a stated amount of work, as per certain specific-

fications, for a stipulated sum of money, and is invariable for all jobs of like character or class, which is not the case when labour is paid by the hour. Wherever it has been adopted, an increase of one-third more work and a reduction of cost in like ratio, without any increase of working force, together with an increase of earning power to the employe, has been the result. The following are some of the advantages to the employer, in addition to those referred to above:—Protection from loss by reason of damage caused by carelessness or want of skill on the part of the workman, the damage having to be made good at his own expense, all operations being inspected by the foreman in charge, when reported finished, and credit allowed only when satisfactorily performed, the foreman being the judge. It enables the foreman to determine the qualifications of each new employe more readily than under the day system, as under that system the slow and unskilful man is usually screened and assisted by those with whom he works, while under the piecework system each man in relation to the employer is an individual contractor and in limited partnership with relation to his fellow-workmen, and is not disposed to divide his earnings with any who are not as skilful and fully as able to earn their share of the proceeds of their joint labour. Hence he will object to the retention of any such as may be unwittingly employed, because, also, he becomes as a partner responsible for and must assist in repairing any damage occasioned by such unskilful or careless workman. It secures to the company the services of good workmen. Where shops are located at isolated points, at a distance from business centres, and employment at those shops the only means of support available to the men, except at the expense of moving away, much difficulty is usually experienced, at a time of a sudden influx of work, to obtain any increase of the working force, unless exceptionally high wages are offered, the reason being that men are not inclined to accept a job at such points on account of probable fluctuations in the work to be done, and the trouble and expense entailed, in case they should lose their job in a short time, in seeking work elsewhere. But piece-work, in allowing increased earning power to a definite number of hands for a length of time in each year, which can be averaged, say nine months, compensates for the enforced idleness of the other three, and much of this may be made up on odd jobs outside of the company's employ, besides insuring steady employment to that number, and

obviating the necessity of any reduction of the working force, except at times of the most extraordinary business depression; and any increase of business or work can be met by an increase of the hours of labour, or overtime, without increasing the number of hands; hence the men, finding that their average wages the year round are as much as they can earn elsewhere, are not disposed to change for every trifling or temporary advantage offered them. It relieves the foreman of the immediate oversight of the men, and transfers it to the results of their labours alone, enabling him to devote more time to the perfecting of methods and details of shop management, and to the investigation of such questions relative to car and locomotive painting as are continually arising. It in a measure divides the responsibility, or, rather, furnishes him a means of self-protection against carelessness on the part of the workman, without resultant loss to the company, or the no less disagreeable alternative of disciplining by suspension or discharge. It is self-adjusting as to the relations of the employe with the company and one another, on a strictly business basis, because the skilful and industrious will naturally desire to work with those who are equally so; and where skill is not required, industry is the standard, and all who are unable or unwilling to meet the requirements must give place to those who can, for the reasons before stated. The advantages to the workmen are also important. The intelligent and skilled workman is enabled to reap the rewards of his superior acquirements, the industrious the reward of industry, each earning according to his ability and disposition; he is freed from servile dependence on the judgment and responsibility of his superiors, and is made to assume some of the responsibility himself, and has to depend upon his own judgment to a greater extent, which makes him self-reliant. His inventive faculties are called into exercise to devise new and easier, as well as quicker, means to attain desired ends, and he educates

himself and fellows in business methods, and has every opportunity and encouragement to develop any latent faculties he may possess. He learns to set a value on every minute of his time, and is not disposed to waste it, because it is a part of his capital, and a very short experience in working by this system enables him to determine the exact money value of any job he may be given. Where it is desired to make trial of the system, the simplest method is for the master painter to base his prices for piece-work on the knowledge his experience has given him of the value of each operation under the old plan, represented by so many hours' labour, and deduct 30 per cent. from the cost; the remainder will be a fair price to pay for the operation under the piece-work system. He should first, however, make an alphabetical classification of all cars that come to his shop for repairs, to enable him to again classify the work to be done on them, all cars of one form of construction Class A, of another form Class B, &c., then the needed repairs to these as Class 1 repairs, Class 2 repairs, and Class 3 repairs, and more if desired, but the three classes will usually cover all ordinary requirements. This classification of work should be written or printed in form, and posted in the shop for the information of the workmen, and may be in form as follows:—

Class 1, repairs—outside.—Burn off old paint. (Here describe whatever method is pursued in re-painting, from priming to finishing.) Paint roof and block ironwork. Paint, stripe, and varnish trucks.

Class 1, repairs—inside.—Fill hard wood and varnish, or whatever other method is pursued, according to inside finish of car. Re-paint head line, or replace with a new one. Re-paint sash, varnish blinds and seats, stating number of coats, &c. Paint floor and platforms.

Class 2, repairs—if hard wood finish.—Prime new work and bare spots, and when dry putty up and face down with pumice stone or sandpaper, as may be the practice; then re-paint, stripe, and varnish on surface thus obtained; paint trucks, roofs, &c. Clean down and sandpaper, touch up and putty where needed, and give one coat of varnish; rub down and oil off. If inside is painted, give number of coats necessary to this class of repairs. Clean and touch up head linings, &c.

Class 3, repairs—outside.—Scrub down with—here describe what is used. Touch up—under this head a detailed statement may be made, and the amount of such touching up averaged—and varnish—say how many coats—one coat of paint on trucks, and re-stripe and varnish; paint roof and black irons.

Class 3, repairs—inside.—Scrub thoroughly—describe here whatever is the practice or method. Touch up scuffed places, and tops of seat arms and window sills, and paint floor and platforms. Clean glass, &c. This classification may be varied according to the requirements of differently constructed cars and the prevailing practice of each shop. Then the working force may be divided into three gangs: No. 1, strippers and varnishers; No. 2, inside

CONVERSION TABLES FOR FRENCH AND ENGLISH MEASURES.—No. I. LENGTH.

METRES AND FEET; CENTIMETRES AND INCHES; KILOMETRES AND MILES.

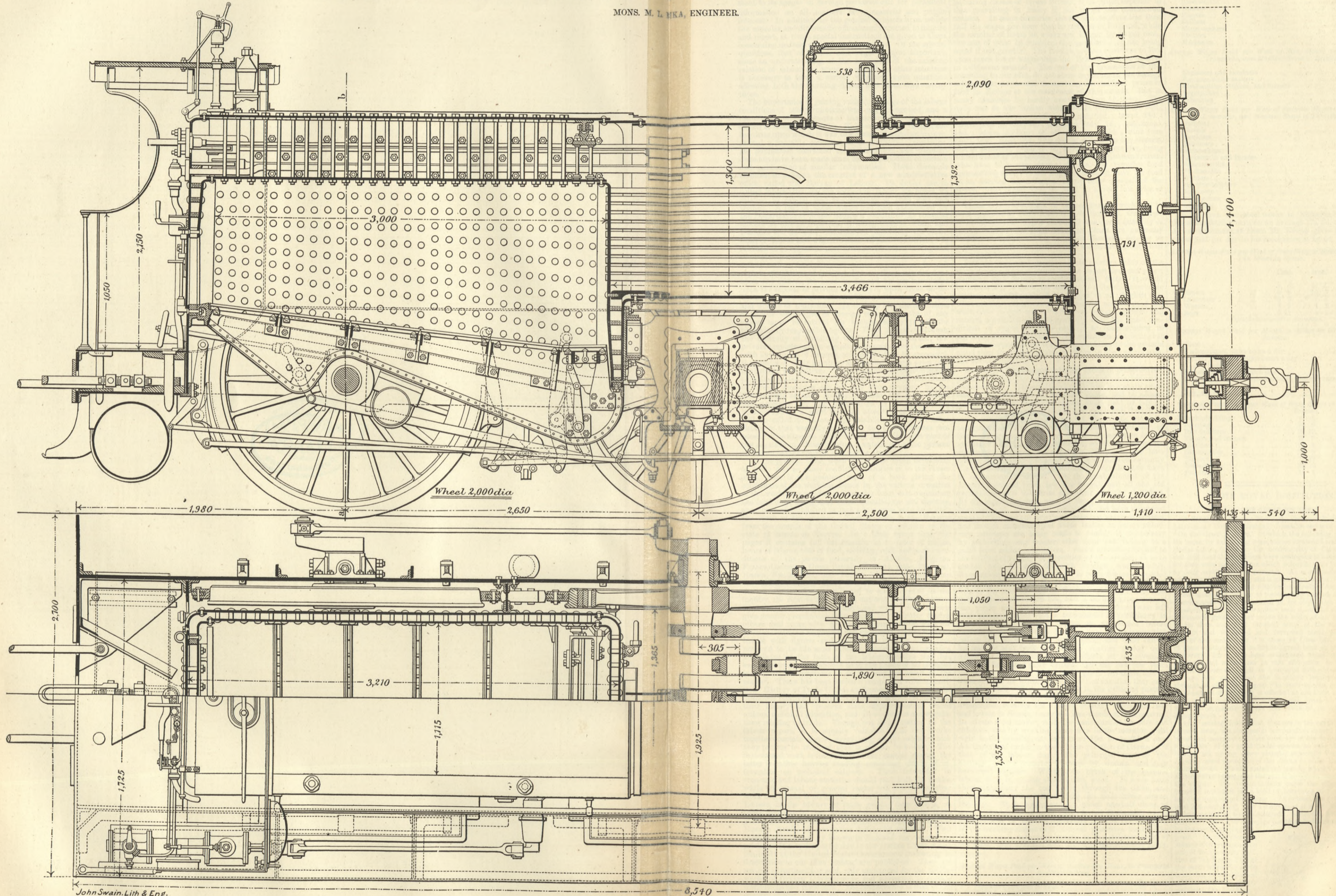
Table with 40 columns and 100 rows of conversion data. Columns are grouped by unit type (Metres, Feet, Centimeters, Inches, Kilometers, Miles) and numbered 1-10. Each cell contains numerical conversion values.

Table with multiple columns for length measurements in centimeters and millimeters, organized in groups (e.g., 1000, 900, 800, 700, 600, 500, 400, 300, 200, 100, 50, 20, 10, 5, 2, 1). Each group contains rows of numerical values.



FOUR-COUPLED PASSENGER ENGINE, BELGIAN STATE RAILWAYS.

MONS. M. L. NIKA, ENGINEER.



John Swain, Lith & Eng.

8,540

