

## RUSSIAN ARTELS OR CO-OPERATIVE LABOUR SYSTEMS.

THE labour conditions of Russia are peculiar to that empire. From the nature of the governmental and social systems, as well as the heterogeneous and segregated condition of the working classes, labour unions in the general sense of the term do not exist. Wages are more a matter of bargain than of fixed rate. The vastness of the country and the absence of communication localises industries, and especially owing to the first-named cause, much work can only be carried on during summer. The system of boarding and lodging employes extensively prevails; and although serfdom is legally abolished, much of the feudal relationship of employed to employer remains. From all these causes it is nearly impossible to compare labour in Russia with that in the other countries of Europe.

An additional element in the question, and one well worthy of attention at the present time, is the artel or co-operative labour system. These societies exist in all branches of industry and trade to such an extent that if they were abolished the entire business of the empire would be at a standstill. They have existed from early times, are governed by a community of interests and a collective and unlimited liability. They may be divided into (1) Handicraft artels, (2) Labourers' artels, (3) Independent artels, (4) Exchange or trade artels, (5) Dragil companies.

*Handicraft artels.*—Ancient Russia formed one immense plain. In this vast territory the occupation was uniform, while its size encouraged a tendency to roaming, and there was no distinction between craftsmen and husbandmen. In the rest of Europe much of the rural population had settled in the fortified towns, and adopted new habits and trades. The cities in Russia being but walled villages, had no attractions for the surrounding peasantry; from the earliest times the peasants had to seek supplementary employment in addition to tilling the soil, and in the course of time whole villages abandoned the care of the fields to the aged men and women, while they went forth to seek easier and more profitable means of subsistence. Those who found employment organised themselves as a guild, dividing, as when at home, equally profit and work. Gradually the system developed into three classes—the city, village, and wandering industries. The period of serfdom interrupted all progress, and hindered any association for individual advantage or profit. The serf was compelled to leave his association and work for some merchant or factory owner. Through the antipathy of the Russian peasant to the methodical work of factories, only the worst class of workmen, or those to whom the factories were the last resource, entered them, and to remedy this state of things manufacturers, under an edict of 1723, acquired land and serfs by purchase. The Russian artisan class was chiefly recruited from the serfs, who had no interest in an institution which neither afforded them their freedom or lightened their burdens. Skilled artificers were not produced, but a mass of half-trained craftsmen, who became artisans to escape field labour. This system went on until the emancipation of the serfs. A committee was appointed in 1852, and after sitting until 1869, recommended "the repeal of existing laws, and a return to the earlier system of artels and trade associations." Each body was to be afforded full freedom and protection as soon as it had organised itself. The urban workmen have returned to their original starting point, and the rural labourers have, to a certain extent, followed their example. Until the seventeenth century these associations were called "vataga;" they then began to be called "artels," and this borrowed word, whose derivation is uncertain, has become the name of a particularly Russian institution. Artel means an association of several persons who have united their capital and labour, or the latter only, for the purpose of carrying on trades or work with a collective and individual responsibility. It is generally a cardinal principle of the association that labour only, and not borrowed or endowed capital, can confer membership, and that as all the members are upon an equality they receive the same wages. In the artel the proportional risk is accompanied by an unlimited responsibility, thereby the credit of associations with small capital is increased, as well as a guarantee given for the execution of work. The unlimited responsibility necessitates a limited membership, and calls forth a certain amount of caution. This is all the more necessary since the contracting party is not an individual employer but a working body. The book-keeping is restricted by the absolute equality of all the members to a simple registration of income and outlay. As examples of artels the following may be given:—The first is of a thoroughly primitive nature. It exists in the government of Vladimir. Several villagers unite their capital to purchase iron, which is then made into scythes at the village smithy. These scythes are entrusted to a member for sale in the neighbouring towns and villages, who also takes orders for additional ones. Orders are promptly executed, and the profit is equally divided among the members. In the government of Moscow the artels are more completely organised. There the blacksmiths, joiners, and locksmiths of neighbouring villages unite. The amount of capital being decided upon, it is raised by voluntary contributions. Only inhabitants of those villages who take active part in the association can become members. Any member can be elected upon the committee of management, who procure the raw materials and sell the products. After deducting the cost of the raw materials, 70 per cent. of the receipts are divided among the working members, and 30 per cent. put aside as a reserve fund. Idle members are either expelled or must submit to a deduction, determined by the vote of all. All business transactions are based on mutual confidence, conducted by word of mouth, and at the close of the yearly accounts the same round is begun again, the artels annually renewing and reconstructing themselves. Another instance is that when certain Government factories for the manufacture of percussion

caps for artillery were closed as being too expensive, several artisans familiar with the process of manufacture formed an artel and undertook to execute the Government orders. Thirty-three thousand caps were ordered, and the artel, which consisted of sixty members, was allowed to use the Government works. The order was executed within the stipulated time, and a cap which had cost the Government from 1s. 6 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. to 3s. 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ d., was furnished by the artel for 1s. 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. The artel was then increased in number to 150, and undertook to supply 180,000 caps under the conditions that the caps were to be made in the artel's workshop, and the price reduced 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per cap. Although the conditions involved an expense of £2735, the order was executed to the satisfaction of all concerned. Larger orders were executed at still lower prices, and as the Government orders could only keep them employed for nine months in the year, they began to manufacture for their own risk and accounts. There being no purchasers for artillery caps besides the Government, it is difficult to see the advantage of this course. Besides its financial success, this artel has been a source of benefit in many ways to the district in which it is situate. City and town artels differ only in the Government requiring a written constitution and bye-laws, which must be sanctioned by the Minister of the Interior. The condition of the artels of the wandering trades, though they are the most numerous in members, is not so satisfactory. From want of capital they are compelled to work for some builder or contractor, who employs them as carpenters, masons, &c. An elder instructs them in their work, and is the connecting link between them and their employer. These artels are only such in name, all independence having been lost. One of their number, chosen for the purpose, procures each week's supplies; if the workmen are fed by their employer, his duties are confined to providing lodging for and advocating the interests of the artel before the elder.

*Labourers' artels.*—The artels of the labourer are no less important than those of the craftsman, and are found in districts where neither circumstances nor nature favour their development. They may be divided into two kinds, viz., independent, or furnishing their own capital, and dependent, or relying solely upon foreign capital. To the former class belong the agricultural, hunting, and lumbering artels; to the latter class, the artels for catching marine animals and fishing. Class 1: In the strict meaning of the term, agricultural artels do not exist, with the exception of one in the government of Archangel, one in that of Olonets, and one in that of Tschernigof; but are in process of formation, with a view to solve the land question. After emancipation of the serfs, a certain quantity of land was assigned to each village peasant community, and this land was divided according to the number of male adults. The number of adults was determined by the previous census. As the interval between each census was from fifteen to twenty years, changes in the various families were often such as to render the mode of allotment unfair, some families being increased and others reduced. The average size of the allotments is not large, and suffices for the support of a family in the best years only. Another difficulty is that of procuring servants. The feeling of equality pervades the peasant to such a degree that he prefers selling his possessions, and seeking his fortune in remote districts, to taking service in his own village. The question of altering the land tenure has been under consideration for years. The peasant is holder in usufruct, and not in fee, the land being vested in the community; and this fact is considered by many as the root of all the evils which afflict the peasantry. Whilst the question of agricultural artels has been occupying the public attention, two kinds have gradually developed, viz., cheese-making artels and the female artel for tobacco planting. These artels are formed as follows:—When a village community has decided to erect a cheese factory the peasants organise themselves; all delivering milk at the factory are members, without reference to the quantity delivered. The season begins in February and ends in September, when the accounts are settled. The management of the artel is under an elder, chosen annually; that of the factory under a master, generally a foreigner—Dutch—assisted by lads of the village, whom he instructs in cheese-making, and who in time become masters themselves. In 1873 there were fourteen cheese-making artels, the members being 600. These artels are particularly important, as both sexes find in them profitable employment. In the tobacco planting artels two or three Cossack single women at the end of autumn or the beginning of winter leave their homes in search of work. Having found a farm and agreed with the owner, they enlist the necessary number of associates and organise artels of from six to nine members, according to the size of the plantation. The terms generally are that the planter provides a well-manured field, sheds for drying the tobacco, fire, light, and lodging for the members of the artel, who for their part perform all the work, from the planting of the tobacco to its preparation for the market. For remuneration they receive half the crop. Marriage excludes from all the tobacco-planting artels. The planters prefer the artels to day labourers, on account of their being much cheaper; the cost of preparing a pood, or 36.1 pounds, by the labourer is estimated at 3s., as against 2s. 5d. by the artels. Taking the entire process from the commencement, the artels are still cheaper. It is very difficult to estimate the earnings of a member, ordinarily they range from £4 14s. to £7 16s., and have risen up to from £15 10s. to £22 15s. Artels for mining are organised much on the same plan, but are less independent. Hunting, one of the most remunerative occupations in Russia, is, from its nature, but little adapted to associative societies. But the Russian is so addicted to the artel system, that he prefers even in hunting to act in common with others. Hunting artels are the most primitive known. They have no captain or leader, each member provides his own gun and ammunition, and every hunter who has participated in the hunt receives an equal share of the result, with the division of which the artel may either continue or dissolve. Often a number of peasants unite and hunt for a whole season, on absolute equality, the worst shot receiving the same share

as the best. Statistics of these artels have been kept in Archangel only. The members of hunting artels number 9593, forming 4 per cent. of the population of the government. The artels for walrus hunting have existed from the 15th century; they consist of from eight to fifteen men, the captain is either the venturer or someone chosen by him. The venturer furnishes the money, provisions, utensils, &c. The animals caught, or what the venturer gives for them, are divided into as many shares as there are members in the artel. Of these shares the venturer takes two-thirds and the artel one-third. Of the artel's shares the captain takes four or five, the mate one or two, and the remainder are divided equally among the members. The number of these artels is constantly diminishing, and they will soon be extinct unless they gain more independence. Seal-hunting artels have existed for the same length of time as the preceding; their organisation varies slightly according to their hunting grounds. The Archangel artels consist of from two to five men. The boat and all supplies are furnished by the venturer, who is generally an active member; the venturer has half or three-fifths of the catch and the artel the remainder. The Mesen artels consist of seven members. The catch is divided into eight shares; to the boat is assigned one—the remainder is divided between artel and venturer as above. The number of seal-hunting artels is about 1840, with a membership of 8200. It is difficult to estimate the earning of the seal and walrus-hunting artels, as they are obliged to sell to the venturer, and receive but little, if any, payment in money. Cod-fishing artels consist of four members; these artels to the number of eight arrange to work with one venturer, who takes two-thirds of the catch. The artel is not obliged to sell to the venturer, but generally does, as he pays the current price. The number of these artels is about 700, and of members 2800; the earnings of each member are about £5 10s. a month. Salmon-fishing artels are various in their modes of organisation; in the most frequent cases they are governed by the parish or village authorities, who own the fishing grounds. Occasionally the stations are let out partly or wholly to capitalists. Capital has no influence on the organisation of these artels, but being without the means of transporting the catch to market, they are compelled to sell to capitalists and receive payment in goods. The most usual organisation is that the peasants form themselves into as many artels as there are fishing stations, and cast lots for choice; each member makes a certain proportion of the net and receives an equal share of the profits. The strictest honesty is observed, everything being common property. The number of artels is 921, with a membership of 4534. The remaining fishing artels do not differ materially from the preceding.

*Exchange or trade artels.*—These artels are the best known, most important, and most widely extended of all. As examples, those of St. Petersburg and Archangel are given, the artels of other cities differing from these in minor details only. Exchange artels arose in St. Petersburg about 1712, when the government and commercial enterprises had attracted a large number of labourers, who organised themselves into artels for handling the merchandise entering and leaving the ports. Being at first largely employed by individual merchants, they were originally called after their employer or their native province, but acquired later the generic name of exchange artels. According to the work performed, these artels may be divided into two classes, viz., those handling merchandise and those engaged in counting-houses. The former are employed in all places where goods and wares are laden, unladen, or stored, and are in the main concentrated in and about the custom-house. Their duties are the following:—The discharge of every vessel arriving with dutiable wares is attended on the one hand by the representatives thereof, the customs' inspector and the members of the dragil companies, and on the other by certain artelstchiks in the interest of the consignee. The latter watch their employers' goods, inspect their condition, and report on the completeness, &c., of the shipment. After both parties have completed the discharge, the merchandise is transported by the dragils, accompanied by the artelstchiks to the customs warehouses. Here, assisted by the dragils, the artelstchiks open, unpack, examine, weigh, and re-pack the merchandise, and see that the necessary seals are applied, watch the goods stored in the warehouses, and, in short, perform all and every labour attending the discharge, receipt, and transportation of the goods. The work done in counting-houses is generally limited to the cash department, although the members of these artels are often employed as trusted servants in the employers' families, &c. As cashiers, they have full control of the money, and perform all the duties relating thereto. The income of the twenty-four artels in St. Petersburg is about £312,500. Their earnings are largely dependent upon the season, being in summer thrice as much as in winter. This fluctuation of receipts prevents the artels from accepting as many members as would appear necessary, and compels them to employ for the simpler duties of carrying the merchandise, &c., the labourers' artels. All artels have a fixed tariff, beyond which they may not go; but they usually accept rates much below those of their tariff. These artels perform their work in the most conscientious manner, and are collectively responsible for every loss or injury caused by one of their number. These losses are either paid from the capital of the artel, or, in cases where the loss exceeds the capital, is worked off by the artel. But such losses are the rarest occurrences, as excessive care is exercised by every artel in the selection of its members. Every offence is punished by a larger or smaller penalty. These punishments are (1) a fine imposed by the artel; (2) exclusion from work, being either definite or indefinite, and (3) expulsion from the artel, being either ordinary or extraordinary. The first is imposed for unwarranted absence from posts, and varies from 1s. 10d. to 9s. 4d. If this fault occurs repeatedly, or if there is a decided offence on the part of an artelstchik, the fine fluctuates between 18s. 9d. and £31 5s., or the culprit is excluded from work. Expulsion is resorted to when no other punishment avails. The

minor penalties are inflicted by the elder of the artel, with the right of appeal to the whole body. Suits in the courts of law are expressly forbidden, refractory members being liable to extraordinary expulsion, *i.e.*, he forfeits at his expulsion all moneys due to him. A frequent resort to such penalties would soon ruin the artel, and admission thereto is consequently not easy. The chief qualifications are honesty and temperance; the applicant must be known to several of the members, one of whom must become his surety. If these conditions are complied with and the applicant is sound of body and able to read and write, he is called before the general assembly, and after promising to obey all the rules of the artel, and to accept the principle of collective responsibility, signs a document to this effect; he then has to pay an initiation fee and entertain the artel. The amount of the initiation fee varies from £235 to £470, and may be paid in one sum or gradually. This fee is exacted from adult members only, minors paying an annual sum varying from £14 to £17 during their minority, and being at their majority, on payment of the balance, accepted as full members. But few are able to pay this fee at once, and most are engaged for years in working it off. These payments are divided among the members once or twice a year in the following manner:—The elder makes up three lists, viz. (1) a list of the share of each member, less the initiation fees; (2) a statement of the number of days worked by each member, and the wages due to him; and (3) a list of all the fines and other receipts; and each member receives his share according to these lists. The inequality of these shares depends upon the proportion of the entrance fee actually paid and the work performed by the members. From the share of each artelstchik certain deductions are made for the reserve and guarantee funds, as well as for charitable purposes. Every member, if not in debt, may leave the artel at will, and receives, if his retirement takes place within six months, his entrance fee in full, but later only one-third thereof is paid. The twenty-four St. Petersburg exchange artels have at present about 5000 members, whose average earnings a year are £62 10s. each.

*Dragil companies.*—These associations, although not designated as artels, are, both in their principles and management, identical with artels. The only difference is that the custom department, whose interests they represent, retains the right of confirming every new member, and of expelling unsatisfactory ones. Such artels have existed in St. Petersburg since 1724, and draw their revenues from the dues paid for handling all wares and merchandise entering and leaving the Custom House. Membership is open to every respectable man, the entrance fee is £93 15s., and the artel is managed by an elder chosen annually. Such artels have existed in Archangel since the sixteenth century, and are evidently the prototypes of those of St. Petersburg. In the present state of the labour question this ancient and still-existing form of co-operation is worthy of study. The artels are carried out strictly on business principles, and have no rules beyond that all must share and work alike, and do not in any way restrict the liberty of the members, and have nothing in common with the benefit provident society or trade union. Where independent they are very successful. It must be noted that the system is deeply rooted in the Russian character, does not suffer much from competition, and that the artels are composed of comparatively few members, and generally confine themselves to one kind of work.

THE INSTITUTION OF NAVAL ARCHITECTS.

ON Thursday Morning, the 29th ult., the only paper read was by Mr. W. John, on—

ATLANTIC STEAMERS.

The author said that he hoped to bring before the meeting impartially certain facts which might be of interest, and which, when recorded in the pages of the "Transactions," might be found of some use as data for future reference. In dealing with passenger steamers, he would do so principally from a shipbuilder's point of view; but the moment he commenced to think over Atlantic passenger ships as a shipbuilder, he was met by the question whether the present tendency towards divorcing the passenger and cargo trade from each other is likely to continue or not. If the answer is yes, then it seems to become an important question, for the present at least, how to build, on moderately small dimensions, the fastest, safest, and most economical passenger steamer, using all the most modern improvements to make her commodious and luxurious, and an easy sea boat into the bargain. If cargo is still to be carried in the passenger ships of the future, a moderate speed only will be aimed at in the immediate future, and every effort will be devoted to economy of fuel, comfort, and safety, with a fair carrying capacity. This latter policy is one which may possibly prevail at least for a time, as it has powerful supporters in Liverpool; but he could not help thinking that very high speeds—higher than we have yet attained—must eventually gain the day. He also thought that they were on the eve of important movements, which will indicate what the next step in the passenger trade is to be; for it must be remembered, among other things, that none of our present English Transatlantic liners, even the latest, have yet been fitted with the latest modern improvements for economy of fuel or quick combustion, such as triple expansion engines or forced draught. They must therefore be at some disadvantage, other things being equal, compared with the ships of the future possessing them. The Great Eastern steaming up Milford Haven about twenty-five years ago between two lines of the Channel Fleet of old—two and three decked wooden line-of-battle ships—the whole fleet saluting with yards manned, was a sight to be remembered. More than this, that ship, with all her mournful career, has been a useful lesson and a useful warning to all naval architects who seriously study their profession—a lesson of what can be done in the safe construction of huge floating structures, and a warning that the highest flights of constructive genius may prove abortive if not strictly subordinated to the practical conditions and commercial requirements of the times.

The Sirius and Great Western crossed the Atlantic in 1838, and in 1840 the first ship of the since celebrated Cunard Company made her first voyage. This was the Britannia, which with her sister ships the Arcadia, Caledonia, and Columbia, kept up the mail service regularly at a speed of about 8½ knots an hour. The Britannia was 207ft. in length between perpendiculars, and 34ft. 4in. extreme breadth, 22ft. 6in. depth of hold, 423-horse power—nominal—and 1156 tons burthen, built of wood and propelled by paddles. In 1850 the Collins Line started in opposition to the Cunard, and after a series of disasters collapsed in 1858. This was three years after the Persia, the first Cunarder built of iron, had been completed. In 1850 also the Inman Line was started with the City of Glasgow, of 1600 tons builder's measurement, and 350-horse power. She was built of iron, and was the first screw steamer sent across the Atlantic from Liverpool with passengers, and was the pioneer of the great emigrant trade which Mr. Inman, above all others, did so much to develop and make cheap and comfortable for the emigrants themselves, as well as profitable to his company. That the builders of the celebrated old Great Britain in 1843, and Mr. Inman in 1850, should have pronounced so decisively in favour of the screw propeller in preference to the paddle for ocean steaming is a proof of their true practical judgment, which time and practical experience have made abundantly clear. While the Cunard Company went on developing its fleet from the early wood paddle steamer Britannia of 1130 tons in 1840, to the iron paddle steamers Persia, &c., in 1858, the iron screw steamer China of 1862, to the still more important screw steamers Bothnia and Scythia, vessels of 4335 tons in 1874, the Inman and other lines were as rapidly developing in speed and size, if not in numbers. The year 1874 is memorable, for it saw the White Star steamers Britannic and Germanic put into the water, as well as the Inman steamer City of Berlin and the two before-mentioned Cunard steamers Bothnia and Scythia. By the addition of these two ships to their fleet the White Star Line, although started only in 1870, reached a front rank position in the New York passenger trade. The author gave in separate tables the logs of several of these ships, some from published documents, and some kindly furnished by the owners. The Great Western had crossed the Atlantic from Bristol to New York in fifteen days as early as 1838. The first Cunard steamer, the Britannic, was about the same speed, from 8½ to 8½ knots an hour. The average duration of the Cunard voyages in the year 1856 was 12'67 days from Liverpool to New York, and 11'03 days from New York to Liverpool. The Bothnia, in 1874, reduced the passage to about 9 days. The White Star Britannic, in 1876, averaged 7 days 18 hours 26 min., outwards from Queenstown to New York, and 9 days 6 hours 44 min. homewards, and has averaged for the last ten years 8 days 9 hours 36 min. outwards, and 8 days 1 hour 48 min. homewards. The City of Berlin, of the Inman Line, also built in 1874, 8 days 10 hours 56 min., and homewards 8 days 2 hours 37 min.; and for the nine years from 1875 to 1883 inclusive, averaged outwards 8 days 19 hours 56 sec., and inwards 8 days 8 hours 34 sec.; or, putting it into rounder figures, the Britannic had reduced the average passage between the two points to 8½ days, and the City of Berlin to 8½ days. From the year 1874 on to 1879 no further advance was made in Atlantic steaming, but in that year the Arizona was added to the Guion Line, and it soon became evident that another important stride had been made in the Atlantic passenger trade which would lead to most important results. The results, as we all know, have been sufficiently startling. The Guion Line, which had started in 1866 with the Manhattan, had now the fastest passenger ship on the Atlantic. In spite of burning some 50 per cent. more coal than the Britannic, the ship was an obvious commercial success. The spirited policy which brought her into existence was appreciated by the public, and the other lines had to move forward. Then followed a period of rivalry, the Cunard Company building the Gallia and Servia, the Inman Company the City of Rome, and the Guion Line the Alaska, all of which were completed in 1881, and afterwards the Oregon for the Guion Line—1883—the Aurania the same year for the Cunard Company, and, later still, the America for the National Line, and the Umbria and Etruria for the Cunard Company in 1885.

Since the completion of the Etruria, for various reasons there has been a pause in the tremendous strides made since 1879, and we may briefly review the results. Taking the Britannic as a standard with her ten years' average of 8½ days across, and her quickest passage of 7 days 10 hours 53 seconds, we have now the following steamers of higher speeds. Taking them in the order of their absolutely fastest passage out or home they stand thus:—

TABLE I.

	Days.	Hours.	Mins.
1 Etruria ... ..	6	5	31
2 Umbria (sister ship)		slightly longer.	
3 Oregon ... ..	6	10	35
4 America ... ..	6	13	44
5 City of Rome ... ..	6	18	0
6 Alaska ... ..	6	18	37
7 Servia ... ..	6	23	55
8 Aurania ... ..	7	1	1

It will thus be seen that from the 15 days' passage or thereabouts of the earliest Atlantic steamers, we had got down in the days of the Scotia to about 9 days; in the Britannic to 8½ days, and at the present time we have got to 6½ days with seven ships afloat that have done the passage under seven days, and capable of making their average passages range between 6½ and 7½ days.

Ranged in order of gross tonnage, these eight vessels stand as follows:—

TABLE II.

1. City of Rome ... ..	8144
2. Oregon ... ..	7375
3. Aurania ... ..	7269
4. Servia ... ..	7212
5. Umbria ... ..	7129
6. Etruria ... ..	7100
7. Alaska ... ..	6586
8. America ... ..	5528

Here the America shows to advantage, for while being eighth in size she is fourth in point of speed, and from what the author can learn, although he had no authenticated details on the subject, he believed she is economical in coal consumption. He might perhaps be permitted to say that one of the most difficult subjects in connection with the propulsion of ships on which to get absolutely accurate data is that of coal consumption. The records of six to eight hours' trials for the purpose of ascertaining the coal consumption are absolutely worthless, as all shipbuilders and engineers know, and so far as English ships are concerned, they are never attempted. Foreign owners frequently stipulate for such trials in their contracts with English shipbuilders, and get wonderfully economical results on paper, but the fact that the trials only extend over a few hours renders them valueless, however carefully the coal may be weighed during that period. An authentic record of the absolute quantity of coal consumed, say by each of the eight fastest Atlantic liners, together with their average indicated horse-power on the voyage for a series of voyages, would be extremely valuable.

He gave in Table III., p. 125, the consumption per indicated horse-power per hour for a number of ships. This table affords valuable data, for it gives, in addition to the dimensions, the moulded draught of water, the midship area, the displacement, the indicated horse-power, the speed on trial, the coefficients for the lines both from the block or parallelopipedon, and also from the midship section prism, together with the length and angle of entrance obtained by Kirk's rule, the Admiralty displacement coefficient, together with the coal consumption per day and per indicated horse-power per hour.

This table, as will be seen, contains some of the most important of the Atlantic liners, and also a number of other typical ships, which will add a variety to its interest and a value to it. The coefficient, which is contained in the thirteenth column of the table, viz.:—

$$\text{Dis} \frac{2}{3} \times \text{speed}^3$$

$$\text{I.H.P.} \times \sqrt{\text{entrance.}}$$

generally comes out for ships of similar type more nearly a constant in the true sense of the word than the corresponding Admiralty constant. As an example, we have the curves of resistance and horse-power for the City of Rome and the Normandie, a large vessel of 6000 tons, which the Barrow Company built for the Compagnie Générale Transatlantique, in which the coefficient of fineness and the form of the lines pretty closely resemble each other below water, and if we take from the curves the corresponding speeds and horse-powers, and work out the constants by the two systems, we have at 14 knots the Admiralty constant for the City of Rome 322'2, and for the Normandie 304'8, and taking for a modified form of constant, the City of Rome gives 253'7 and the Normandie 251'9, which, as will be seen, are much closer together; similarly, at 15 knots the Admiralty constant for the City of Rome is 310, and for the Normandie 295'2, while a modified constant comes out for the former at 245, and for the latter 244, again agreeing almost identically. The same at 16 knots, for the City of Rome the Admiralty constant comes out 297'6, and for the Normandie 282'8, while a modified constant comes out for the two ships 234'4 and 233'7 respectively, again showing marked agreement. It may be mentioned that in these two ships the engines are of a similar type, being three-crank tandem engines, and the propellers have in both pitch and surface practically the same proportions to the power and speed. The value of these modified constants will probably be found to increase as the speeds increase up to the limit and beyond that point at which wave resistance becomes an important factor.

The author next considered the strains to which a ship is exposed, and stated that he had before him the calculations for three of the largest vessels, two of them of iron and the other of steel; and he found in the case of the iron, the maximum tension on the gunwale during the greatest hogging strains likely to be endured at sea would not exceed about six tons per square inch, while in the case of the steel

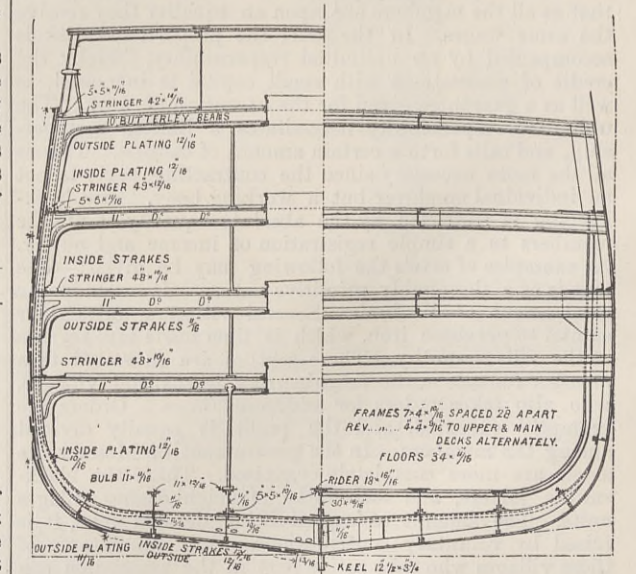


Fig. 1—CITY OF ROME.

ship it is only about 6½ tons. These strains are well within the limits of safety, and a comparison of the scantlings of these with the others justify the assertion as to their general safety from a structural point of view. The sections of these three ships are shown in Figs. 1, 2, and 3, with their principal scantlings. It will be seen from these sections that the three ships differ materially in their mode of construction. In the case of Fig. 1, which represents the City of Rome, the largest of the three, it will be seen that the main framing of the vessel

thought that was likely to be the vessel of the future, and that it would be quite as commercially successful as the Umbria or Etruria.

Mr. J. Campbell remarked that at present the great American liners had only the ordinary compound engines, and he thought that, instead of converting them to triple expansion, they should take a step further at once, and adopt quadruple expansion engines.

Mr. Hamilton did not think it had been demonstrated that greater efficiency had been got out of twin screws than out of single screws; but there was no doubt they would tend to additional safety.

Mr. Martell said that when they had got satisfactory data twin screws would be adopted for ships requiring great speed; but they had not got that data at present.

Admiral Sir John Hay, referring to twin screws as applying to sea-going steamers which might be employed for Imperial defence, said it was quite certain that the defence of their extended commerce would always require to be assisted by ships such as the Oregon and other magnificent vessels which had been used for that purpose on a recent occasion.

Mr. John then replied on the general discussion. He was pleased to find that they had faith in the future of the twin screw and of sub-division. The public had a right to demand greater safety than they at present had on the Atlantic, or could have with a single screw.

With the conclusion of this discussion the business of the session terminated. A number of candidates were elected members of the Institution, and a vote of thanks was unanimously passed to the Mayor for his kindness, courtesy, and liberality in his entertainment of the visitors.

The members then adjourned, by special invitation, to the Mersey Tunnel. Passing through this to the Cheshire shore, they were taken up in the lift, and conducted to the Birkenhead Pumping Station, no less than 800 gals. of water having to be pumped out per minute from a depth of about 150ft.

The party then proceeded on board the fine tender of the Cunard Company, which conveyed them to the Etruria, lying in the river. We have referred at some length to this splendid ship in another page.

Re-embarking on board the tender, they were then conveyed to the works of Messrs. Laird Bros., of Birkenhead, where an admirable luncheon had been hospitably provided in the principal drawing-office.

Her armament will consist of— Torpedo tubes 4 4in. centre pivot B.L. gun... 1 3 pr. quick firing guns... 6

In another part of the works the steel paddle-wheel despatch boat Lawrence, constructed for the Indian Government, was being completed. The Lawrence has a length of 209ft., with 32ft. 3in. beam, and 15ft. 6in. depth in hold, and her tonnage is 1033 tons O.M.

There were also being completed in the docks two small steel gunboats, for the Portuguese Government; 220 tons and 380 indicated horse-power. In the works we also saw taken down and prepared for shipment, to be re-erected abroad, two small light-draught paddle steamers, about 2ft. draught, for service in the Portuguese colonies in West Africa.

Also, in course of construction, a small stern-wheel river steamer and two cargo barges, for foreign service. The keels are laid for five stern-wheel river steamers, for the Indian State Railways—four of them 150ft. by 30ft., with a draught of 1ft. 9in., and to be fitted with compound engines of 300 indicated horse-power; one 120ft. by 29ft., with a draught of water of 2ft., and to be fitted with compound engines of 230 indicated horse-power.

In the shops the engines of the Rattlesnake attracted no small attention, and we also observed a spare cylinder, weighing about 33 tons, for the mail steamer Ireland.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR.

[We do not hold ourselves responsible for the opinions of our Correspondents.]

THE RAILWAY SIGNAL RETURNS FOR 1885.

SIR,—The return relating to the railway signal arrangements and systems of working on the 31st December, 1885, has recently been issued by the Board of Trade, the details being, as usual, given under two headings. (1) The interlocking and concentration of signal and point levers; (2) the systems upon which the lines are worked relating to the block system, &c.

The details are minute and voluminous, but the facts can be seen at a glance upon reference to the following tabulated statements. No. 1 shows that the levers require concentration in 4993 cases and interlocking in 4770 instances; also that no less than 2875 pairs of safety points are requisite.

on an inclined plane. For the air resists the motion of a plane in the same way that a plane resists the motion of a weight placed upon it. The nature of the resistance in both cases is normal pressure and friction. These are perpendicular to each other. The value of both factors is determined mathematically at any inclination.

Correcting the statement of the value of the resolved components to make it harmonise with the mathematics of inclined planes, the position taken will be consistent with the facts, and the inaccuracy corrected. The error does not invalidate the reasoning at all.

Chicago, July 26th. I. LANCASTER.

LIGHT PORTABLE ENGINES.

SIR,—I have refrained hitherto from commenting on the very important question raised in your issue of the 30th ult. in the hope that some more competent writer than I am would open a discussion on the subject.

The whole question of light and heavy engines resolves itself into this—Which will pay the maker best? My view is, that the heavy engine will pay best; or that, in other words, nothing can

SUMMARY NO. 1.

Table with 11 columns: Number of cases in which any passenger line is connected with or crossed on the level by— (Any other passenger line, Any goods line, Any siding, Any cross-over road), and Number of cases in which the usual requirements of the Inspecting Officers of the Board of Trade have or have not been complied with in the following respects:— (Concentration of signal and point levers, Interlocking of signal and point levers, Addition of safety points in cases of goods lines and sidings).

SUMMARY NO. 2.

Table with 4 columns: Total length of railway opened for passenger traffic (Double, Single), and Distance worked on the absolute block system (Double, Single).

The following table gives the details relating to the block system and mileage of all the principal railways, and shows that considerable progress has been made:—

Table with 5 columns: Railway name, Total length of line opened for passenger traffic (Double, Single), and Distance worked up'n the absolute block system (Double, Single).

\* NOTE.—The Somerset and Dorset, Highland, and some minor railways work single lines by "crossing orders," instead of the train staff, and at the present time a signalman is undergoing six months' hard labour in connection with that dangerous-crossing system.

CLEMENT E. STRETTON, Consulting Engineer Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants. 40, Saxe-Coburg-street, Leicester, August 6th.

CORLISS VALVES.

SIR,—In your last issue I notice with pleasure a letter from Mr. T. S. Sawyer on Corliss valves, and soliciting the best form that can be adopted. This subject wants further ventilation, and I am glad some one has been bold enough to make the venture.

For some years I have been working a pair of tandem engines with slide valves, or plates, worked direct from two excentrics onto the two steam-valve spindles on each high-pressure cylinder, with trip gear attached, and find the facings as bright as can be desired, accompanied with a coal consumption not yet much beaten for a continuance, providing coal-book and indicated horse-power be taken into account.

ASTLEY BRIDGE, BOLTON, JOHN ASHWORTH, August 7th.

THE PROBLEM OF FLIGHT.

SIR,—My attention has been directed to inaccuracies in my letter of April 3rd, found in THE ENGINEER of May 14th, which a mathematician would have reason for objecting to. I was so intent on getting the general features stated that the mathematics of inclined planes was overlooked.

It is obvious that the factors of the resolution both in quantity and direction would be identical with those of a heavy body placed

be gained by the makers in departing from the existing type, which has been arrived at by a species of natural selection, or the survival of the fittest. To this general statement I would, however, draw one exception. I believe that a good foreign trade might be done, especially in Canada, with a class of portable engines which has not yet been built in this country.

To explain my views fully would occupy a deal of space. If, however, you publish this letter, I will take it for granted that you will publish another and longer letter from me, in which I will endeavour to set forth my views more explicitly.

I may say that for many years I have made the portable engine a study, and that I am familiar with every engine made by any firm of repute in Great Britain; and I hope to show that any considerable departure from existing practice—with the limitations I have just laid down—must end in disappointment and loss.

Lincoln, August 9th. NORMAL PORTABLE.

HYDRAULIC PROPULSION.

SIR,—I was much pleased with the letter of "W. H." in THE ENGINEER of Friday last in reference to my letter of July 23rd, on hydraulic propulsion; he is quite right about the bends in the pipes and the nozzles, also as to the latter, they would not do for a war ship as they would be liable to be shot away, or otherwise injured, and the noise of the water rushing out would be a great drawback on any vessel.

London, August 10th. GOAHEAD.

THE MIDDLESEX WATERWORKS' PUMPS.

SIR,—Referring to the recent description of the West Middlesex Waterworks' engine, I should be glad to learn what advantages are sought to be obtained by the four valve pump illustrated, bearing in mind the well-known efficiency of the bucket-and-plunger type, which for waterworks scarcely leaves a margin for improvement.

August 9th. BETA.

FORTY-KNOT SHIPS.

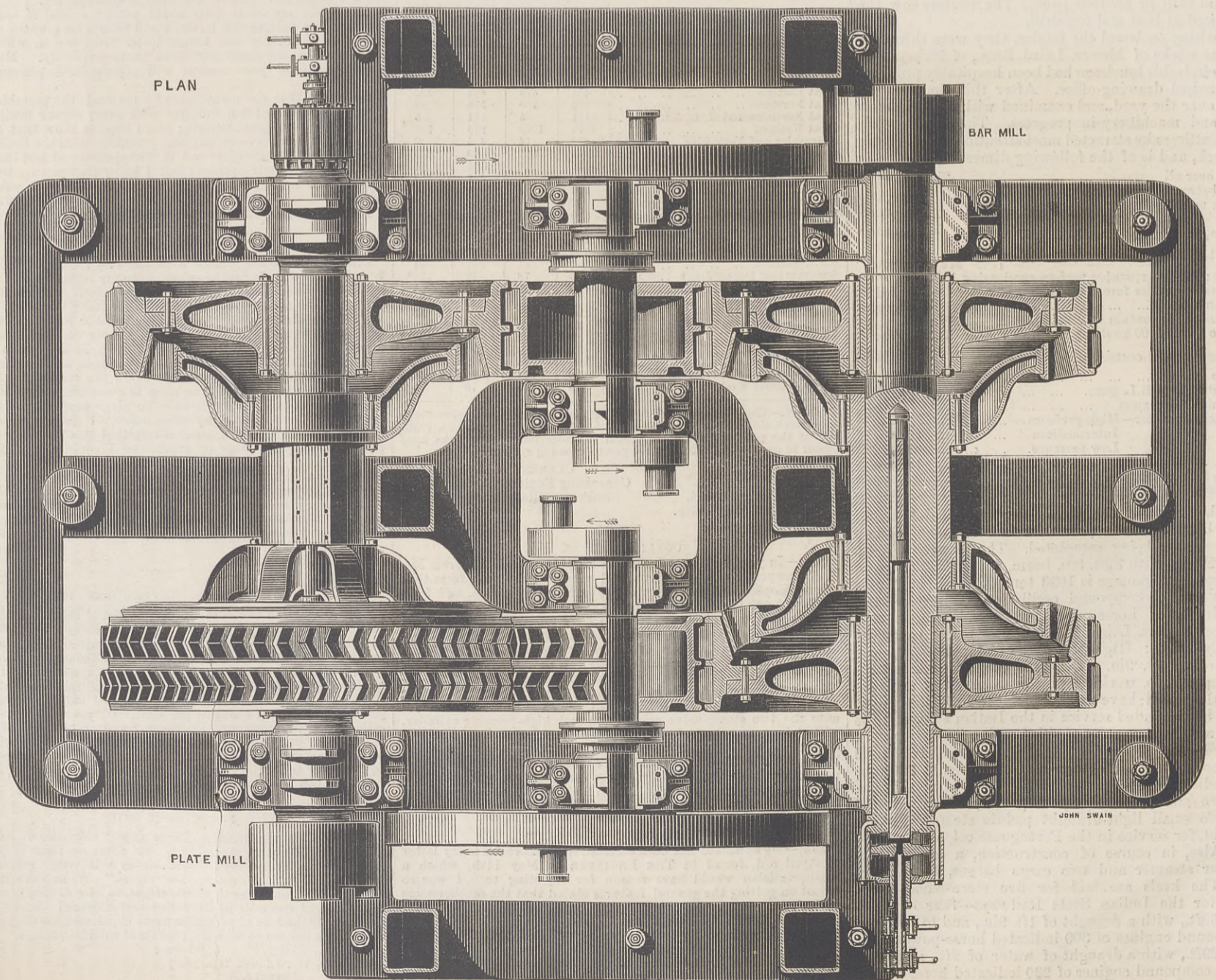
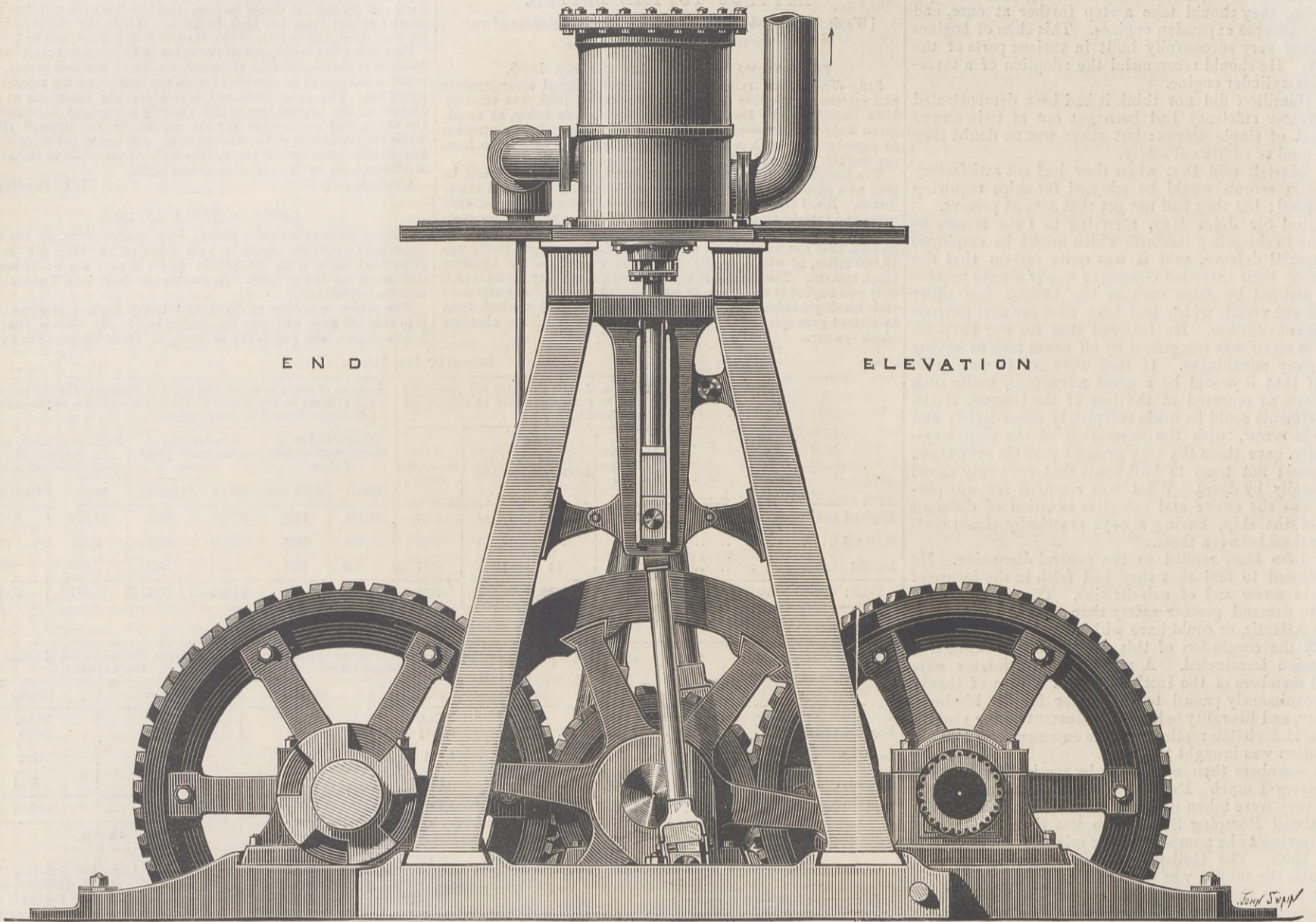
SIR,—It seems perfectly idle to urge "shipbuilders and ship-owners ought not to spend such vast sums on their ships when better results are always obtainable by a thorough research into facts, which expose fallacies and errors."

Lat., N., 53 deg. 38 min. 02 sec.; Long., W., 12 min. 2' 58 sec.; August 6th.

ROLLING MILL ENGINES AND FRICTIONAL REVERSING CLUTCHES.

MESSRS. DICK AND STEVENSON, AIRDRIE, ENGINEERS.

*For description see page 133.)*



FOREIGN AGENTS FOR THE SALE OF THE ENGINEER.

PARIS.—Madame BOYVEAU, Rue de la Banque.
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LEIPSIK.—A. TWIETMEYER, Bookseller.
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PUBLISHER'S NOTICE.

\*\* With this week's number is issued as a Supplement, a Two-Page Engraving of an Express Locomotive for the Caledonian Railway. Every copy as issued by the Publisher contains this Supplement, and subscribers are requested to notify the fact should they not receive it.

CONTENTS.

Table listing contents for THE ENGINEER, August 13th, 1886. Includes sections like RUSSIAN ARTS, THE INSTITUTION OF NAVAL ARCHITECTS, STEVENSON'S ROLLING MILL ENGINE, and various news items.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

Registered Telegraphic Address—"ENGINEER NEWSPAPER, LONDON."

\*\* We cannot undertake to return drawings or manuscripts; we must therefore request correspondents to keep copies.
\*\* In order to avoid trouble and confusion, we find it necessary to inform correspondents that letters of inquiry addressed to the public, and intended for insertion in this column, must, in all cases, be accompanied by a large envelope legibly directed by the writer to himself, and bearing a 1d. postage stamp, in order that answers received by us may be forwarded to their destination.

D. H. AND G. H. (Sunderland).—We cannot identify the patent from your vague description.
LECROT DALE.—The largest tenders we know of are some on the Midland Railway, which hold about 3000 gallons.
G. W.—If you have some knowledge of mathematics you cannot read a better book than Clerk-Maxwell's treatise on heat, which you can obtain through any bookseller.

GLASS ROLLERS.

(To the Editor of The Engineer.)

SIR,—I shall be obliged to any of your correspondents who can give me the names of makers of glass rollers about 3in. to 6in. diameter by 1ft. to 3ft. long, smooth and round on outer surface, and straight. Leicester, August 10th. F. A.

FLOW OF WATER THROUGH SMALL LONG PIPES UNDER HIGH-PRESSURE.

(To the Editor of The Engineer.)

SIR,—Would some of your readers kindly give me a simple rule for ascertaining the velocity of water in pipes—say how soon would a pipe 1 1/2 in. bore discharge 500 gallons, there being at the supply end a vertical head of 100 yards, and afterwards a horizontal distance of 600 yards, the water thus being carried 700 yards from supply to discharge? South Wales, August 8th. VELOCITY.

THE "PATENT JOURNAL."

(To the Editor of The Engineer.)

SIR,—I notice in the "Patent Journal" in this week's ENGINEER that patent No. 9812, for Improvements in Knitting Machinery, is credited to J. A. Claringburn, London, instead of Nottingham. I should not have troubled you but the same thing took place in connection with my patent No. 7896, 1885. I take THE ENGINEER in regularly, but think if these mistakes occur always in my case they are likely to do so in others, and the "Journal" is therefore not altogether to be relied upon. Liverpool-street, Nottingham, August 6th. J. A. CLARINGBURN.

[We are not responsible in any way for the error.—ED. E.]

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Advertisements cannot be inserted unless Delivered before Six o'clock on Thursday Evening in each Week.

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

MEETING NEXT WEEK.

INSTITUTION OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERS.—The summer meeting of this Institution will be held in London on Tuesday morning, the 17th of August, and Wednesday morning, the 18th of August, at 25, Great George-street, Westminster. The chair will be taken by the president, Mr. Jeremiah Head, at ten o'clock on Tuesday morning, and at half-past nine o'clock on Wednesday morning. The following papers have been offered for reading and discussion—not necessarily in the order here given—after the address by the president:—"Experiments on the Steam-jacketing and Compounding of Locomotives in Russia," by M. Alexander Borodin, of Kieff. "On the Working of Compound Locomotives in India," by Mr. Charles Sandiford, of Lahore. "Description of a Portable Hydraulic Drilling Machine," by M. Marc Berrier-Fontaine, of Toulon. "Description of the Blackpool Electric Tramway," by Mr. M. Holroyd Smith, of Halifax. "On Triple Expansion Marine Engines," by Mr. Robert Wylie, of Hartlepool. Numerous excursions to works and places of engineering interest in and near London have been arranged.

THE ENGINEER.

AUGUST 13, 1886.

OFFICERS AND MANUFACTURERS.

We may expect to hear a good deal on the subject of the relations of Government officers with Elswick during the next few months, when we shall be in a position to speak more to the purpose than at present. As many of our readers must have seen, application has been made for an inquiry by officers in high position in order to dispose of reports which are circulated. Among other applicants, by the late General Reilly, the recent Inspector-General of Artillery, and for a short time Director of Artillery, a man whose transactions with Elswick were, so far as we know, only of the most formal and official character. We imagine that General Reilly had precisely the same pecuniary and personal interest in Elswick that Lord Coleridge himself has—that is, presumably, none whatever. When officers in this position ask for inquiry we imagine that reports have run so far that an investigation has become desirable for the sake of the credit of our departments as well as that of Elswick.

At present there is little to say on the subject beyond explaining one or two matters on which there appears to be misapprehension, simply for want of information. For example, we would quote the following passage from the Times of August 9th:—"Lord Coleridge asked if Captain Noble had ever been a member of the Ordnance Committee. Mr. Percy Gye, for the defendants, said that he could not say if Captain Noble had actually been a member, but he desired to call the attention of the Court to the following fact on the subject:—In the Times of July 26th, 1886, under the heading of 'The Ordnance Department,' there had appeared a letter signed 'A. Noble, Director for Sir W. G. Armstrong, Mitchell, and Co., Limited,' in which there had been the following words:—"The only ground we can conceive for this charge is that occasionally some shareholders in the company—for example, the writer of this letter—have been associated temporarily with the Ordnance Committee for the purpose of special reports." Lord Coleridge then said that the affidavit of Captain Noble might be true and nevertheless very misleading. It might be true by the card only, for an Ordnance Committee might be presumed to have had to report upon guns—that did not seem to him to be a violent assumption." As we understand this, Lord Coleridge surmises that Captain Noble had stated that he had not been a member of the Ordnance Committee, although, as a matter of fact, he had been at times associated with it—in short, that he had based an unqualified denial of the fact of his being a member on the ground that he had not been a permanent and formal member. This Lord Coleridge suggests may have been misleading; because if he was at times acting as a member, he may have dealt with guns and matters in which Elswick was concerned. If we really understand this as Lord Coleridge's view, it argues so total a misapprehension of the circumstances of the case, that some explanation seems desirable. We have not any conception of what Captain Noble or any one else interested in the case may say or think about it. Whether Captain Noble will be shown to have behaved very badly or the reverse does not now concern us, or affect our present object, which is simply to explain, in common fairness, conditions which appear to be misunderstood. From time to time, questions come up calling for investigation by those having special experience. Recently the behaviour of gun steel was investigated by a special committee, on which representatives of the firms who had most experience of the subject were invited to sit, Sir Joseph Whitworth's firm and Elswick being both represented. The behaviour of powder in the bore of guns some years since was a somewhat similar matter. On both of these committees Captain Andrew Noble sat. He sat there recognised as a member of the Elswick firm, specially invited by the Government, to give the benefit of his experience. Had he not been a member of Elswick, he would not probably have had the experience which was needed. In the special

subjects thus dealt with, knowledge and experience would only be found in conjunction with a manufacturing interest. But no Secretary of State or Surveyor-General in his senses would appoint a body of such men to decide on questions involving supply; nor could members of firms consent to deal with such questions. The investigations above mentioned concerned the action of gas in the bore of guns in the abstract, and the best treatment of steel tubes. The conclusions arrived at were applicable to all ordnance and at the service of everybody. Nothing could be more open and straightforward.

The evil, which we understand Captain Noble to deny, is the palpable one of a man known and recognised only as a member of the Ordnance Committee having an interest in Elswick. A man who is appointed to look after the interests of the country and decide on questions involving orders to contractors must be wholly independent; and any private personal interest he has in any of the questions he decides, puts him in the position of a man who is bribed. Ignorance only can confuse this with the fact of Government asking the member of a manufacturing firm to give the benefit of his opinion on some abstract scientific question. We could hardly have believed that such a mistake could be passed unnoticed, but we see no other conclusion to arrive at in the face of the words used, and the fact that we know that Captain Noble served on these two special committees.

The question of the relations of officers who have left the service with manufacturing firms appears to be about to be opened, and is a large one. When an officer is compulsorily retired after years of manufacturing work, it is very natural for him to seek for employment, and very probable that he will find it in a private firm manufacturing war stores. There are good and sound reasons for this, and also there possibly may be bad reasons. The officer's knowledge and experience, character, and reputation may all be sound recommendations. On the other hand, it may be urged that he is receiving the reward of secret service previously done for the firm he afterwards joins. We state this broadly and plainly, because we wish to look the matter fully in the face. We should deal with it briefly as follows:—An officer who has not held a position in which he had to decide on questions of supply, has not presumably been able to render dishonest and secret service, and such an officer on his retirement appears to us to be free to go into any firm without scruple or hesitation. On the other hand, a retired officer, who has in any way guided the orders given for contracts in a position of difficulty. Such an officer may have acted with complete independence and without a thought of the future, and may suddenly find himself out of the service, and the question may present itself to him for the first time. There may be nothing wrong, nor is there then any opportunity even of doing wrong, but an officer so placed may well find it difficult to act with a regard to his reputation. Such an officer would, we think, do well to lay the whole matter before the Government before deciding. The difficulty in which he is placed ought to be an argument against lightly superseding an officer in such a position. At the same time it must not be supposed that officers who have joined private firms have been in this difficulty at all. Those in the manufacturing departments have rather been in the position of rivals to private firms, and have had no sort of voice in the giving of orders. Even the superintendent of the gun factories could hardly influence the orders given to Elswick, unless it were by declaring the inability of his own department to undertake jobs, which would, consequently, fall to Elswick or Whitworth. As a matter of fact, superintendents of the gun factories have rather been attacked for opposite conduct, for prejudice against private work, and getting work done by their own department whenever they could manage it. We carefully abstain from mentioning names, and we do not wish to follow the subject further. We are prepared to accept any view that may be the outcome of an investigation, but we wish to give our readers a clearer general view of the position of officers and committees than appears to be entertained even by those who should be well informed.

LOCOMOTIVE ENGINES.

In the design of locomotive engines changes are still being made daily, all no doubt intended to augment their efficiency in some way. They are expected either to increase the hauling power of the machine, or to reduce its consumption of fuel, or to render repairs less frequent or less costly. We can scarcely name an instance in which an attempt is made to reduce the first cost of the machine, if we except Crewe practice. Mr. Webb has for many years endeavoured—and no doubt with much success—to reduce the price of his engines. We do not speak now of his compounds, which are necessarily very costly machines. So far as is known, his engines are not less durable or efficient than those made by other engineers; but they are certainly deficient in finish, and his success naturally leads to the question, Is the first-class workmanship deemed indispensable by the great majority of locomotive superintendents really necessary? We hold that it is, and that in the long run it pays. A great deal of course depends on the conditions under which a line is worked, and when there are plenty of engines it is less necessary that they should be of the best quality than is the case where the locomotive superintendent is hard pushed for the means of carrying on his traffic. The whole question of first cost is, however, one well worth consideration and discussion. On the one hand, it is urged that the difference between the price of a very highly-finished locomotive—and by high finish we do not mean mere polish—and one made with less care, cannot exceed £100 or thereabouts; a saving too small to be of any great importance. On the other hand, it is argued that the difference is much greater, an engine costing but £1800 at Crewe which made elsewhere will cost about £2200; and that, even if this were not the case, although £100 per engine may not be much for one engine, yet that it represents a very large sum when the equipment of a line has to be considered. Thus, for 500 engines, a saving of £100 each will represent no less than £50,000

which is surely worth having. There is a great deal to be said on both sides. Our own opinion is, as we have said, that locomotives should always be as good as it is possible to make them; and this, we may say, does not imply that money should be wasted on them.

Locomotives tend daily to become more costly because they are daily augmenting in weight. Much of this is due to traffic managers and not to the locomotive superintendents. The former insist on having more and more powerful engines, and the weight of trains is increasing. The public demand roomy carriages, and the weights of railway vehicles augment rapidly with their size. The proportion of dead weight to paying load in passenger trains is now greater than it ever was, and the locomotive must be made to comply with the altered conditions. We hear very little now of main line passenger engines with 16in. cylinders; a few years ago they were common enough. Not only have cylinder diameters increased, pressures also have augmented. They have risen from 120 lb.—which was considered high not so long ago—to 150 lb., and Mr. Webb is carrying 175 lb. in some of his boilers. These things all mean more weight, because the boiler must be heavier, and all the parts of the engine must be increased in dimensions to bear the additional strain. The use of the bogie, too, has considerably augmented weight; and we are not surprised to find that opinions differ widely among locomotive superintendents as to its value. No doubt bogie engines perform very well; the question is, do they perform better than engines of similar dimensions doing the same work without bogies? Have they proved themselves safer? Do they spare the permanent way and reduce the cost of its maintenance? Are they worth the considerable sum they cost? It is sometimes urged that the engines now built are so big that the bogie has become a necessity. This is erroneous. Some of the most powerful locomotives in the kingdom have no bogies, and get along perfectly without them.

It is a noteworthy fact that however much change may be effected in the type of a locomotive, certain proportions appear to be incapable of alteration without doing harm, two and a-half square feet of heating surface ought to be provided for each square inch of piston area, or, what comes to the same thing, the area of one piston multiplied by five will give the proper heating surface. Thus, the area of a 17in. piston is 227 square inches, and  $227 \times 5 = 1135$  square feet. An 18in. cylinder has an area of  $254 \cdot 4$  in. and  $254 \cdot 4 \times 5 = 1272$ . In like manner, the proper surface for 19in. cylinders is 1417 square feet. Of course this is not to be regarded as a hard-and-fast rule, but it will be found that it is quite in accord with the best locomotive practice of the day, and that when an attempt has been made to reduce the proportion the engines have not proved good steamers with heavy trains. On the Great Southern and Western Railway of Ireland 18in. cylinders go with 1050ft. of surface, but the stroke is only 24in. On the Great Eastern Railway we have 1200ft. with an 18in. cylinder, 26in. stroke, and on the Brighton Railway, 1485ft., with an 18½ cylinder, 26in. stroke. It must not be forgotten, however, that a boiler with too little heating surface may be made to steam better by increasing the size of the fire-box, and we could name instances where locomotives have been greatly improved by having had the backs of the fire-boxes taken out and the fire-boxes lengthened 12in. This brings us to a very important question for consideration. The grate ought always to bear a due proportion to the heating surface; and ought not to have less than about one square foot of area to sixty square feet of heating surface. If now we take an engine with 19in. cylinders, the heating surface is, as we have seen, in round numbers, 1400 square feet, and this divided by 60 gives us, in round numbers, 23 square feet of grate. But to get such a grate into an engine of the ordinary gauge can only be done by using a fire-box of uncommon length; for, taking the width of the grate at 3·3ft., it would have to be no less than 7ft. long. Grates very much longer and wider than this are used abroad, and grates over 7ft. long have been used in this country in the early days of coal-burning. Such furnaces can be fired readily enough, but their use involves a serious practical difficulty quite unconnected with firing. An engine with 19in. cylinders is pretty certain to have 7ft. wheels and to be coupled. It must be coupled either forward or backward; and no one in this country has, to our knowledge, run with a 7ft. leading wheel. We do not say that it ought not to be done; we are very far from saying anything of the kind. But we have to take things as they are, and most English locomotive superintendents will insist on coupling their driving and trailing wheels. With a 7ft. grate and inside cylinders, this would entail a coupling rod no less than 9ft. 6in. long at the very least; and this is more than any locomotive superintendent would care to risk. The only way out of the difficulty would lie in pitching the grate above the trailing axle; but this involves many objectionable features, and the result hitherto has been that the English locomotive, if coupled, is objectionably restricted in grate area. All difficulties of this kind can be got over at once by using single engines; and we are disposed to hold that an undue preference has been given to coupled engines for fast traffic. It is true that such engines do give trouble by slipping in bad weather; but this is not an insurmountable difficulty, and there are at this moment hundreds of single engines working very heavy and fast traffic with perfect success. We may cite Mr. Stirling's splendid outside cylinder engine, with 8ft. drivers, on the Great Northern, and Mr. Stroudley's engines on the Brighton line, to say nothing of the single engines on the Great Western and London and North-Western railways, to support our argument. One of the most recent examples of the single engine is the fine locomotive constructed by Messrs. Neilson, which we illustrate this week. In this engine it will be seen that sand is used for perhaps the first time in England on scientific principles to secure adhesion. Jets of clean sand are blown under the driving wheels by compressed air from the Westinghouse brake reservoir, and, we understand, that where this scheme has been tried the results are all that can be desired. The quantity used is only about 1 lb. per mile.

The great advantage of the single engine is that it leaves the designer quite untrammelled as to the proportions of his boiler. In a large number of engines cast iron foot-plates are used to equalise the weights on the wheels. It will be found far better to extend the grate backwards a few inches, and this can be done to any reasonable extent desired with the single engine. The essence of success in locomotive engineering is ample boiler power. Nothing will compensate for the absence of this essential; and that design which is most favourable to the boiler may be accounted as most favourable altogether. It may be urged that the proportions we have named above are often widely departed from. We are quite aware of the fact, but the circumstance does not prove that the proportions we have named are defective; practice demonstrates the contrary.

#### EXPRESS ATLANTIC STEAMERS.

The papers read by Mr. Parker, chief engineer surveyor to Lloyd's, and Mr. John, manager to the Barrow Shipbuilding Company, during the recent meeting of the Institute of Naval Architects, must be taken together. They are the complement each of the other. A very full abstract of Mr. Parker's paper appeared in our columns last week, an equally full abstract of Mr. John's paper will be found on page 124. To the latter we shall refer first. There was no reason, indeed, why it should not have been read first. Mr. John deals with ships, Mr. Parker with engines, and the ship comes before the machinery by which she is propelled. Mr. John sets forth succinctly the history of the Atlantic steamer, and sketches the manner in which the most remarkable engineering triumphs ever heard of have been brought about. There is really nothing in the world like the fleet of express steamers which now maintain communication between the old and new world; and the more carefully the ships, their engines, and their performances are examined, the more cause do we find for admiration and wonder. Familiarity does not in this case produce contempt, but it does evoke criticism, and splendid as the achievements of the engineer and the shipbuilder have been, both are agreed that they have not yet reached finality.

One of the first things to suggest itself about such ships as the Etruria or the Umbria is the vast cost at which their efficiency has been obtained; a cost which no one in his senses would have suggested a quarter of a century ago. We do not here refer so much to the outlay of capital on ships and engines, enormous as that is, as on the working expenses. Let us compare the performance of the Etruria with that of the Britannic. An interval of nearly ten years separates the construction of the two ships. The Britannic is still running. Her consumption is, we believe, about 90 tons of coal per day of twenty-four hours. Her passages average, Mr. John tells us, 8 days 9 hours outwards, and 8 days 2 hours homewards. Her consumption may, allowing for getting up steam, &c., be taken at 840 tons per voyage. The Etruria's fastest passage has been 6 days 5 hours 31 min. Her average we do not know, but we shall not be far wrong if we call it 6 days 12 hours. She burns 320 tons of coal per day of 24 hours, or, making allowance for getting up steam, &c., 2250 tons of coal on the trip. She makes the passage in a day and a-half less than the Britannic. To save this day and a-half the consumption of coal is augmented by no less than 1400 tons. That is to say, the consumption has been nearly doubled to save thirty-six hours in time. This is startling enough, but if we compare the fastest ship named by Mr. John with very fast ships, the figures are, in one sense, yet more remarkable. Let us take, for example, the Servia, and compare her with the Etruria. The best passage of the latter is, in round numbers, 6½ days; the best passage of the former is, also in round numbers, 7 days. Using Mr. John's figures, and neglecting coal spent in getting up steam, &c., we have for the Etruria,  $315 \times 6 \cdot 25 = 1968 \cdot 75$  tons; and for the Servia,  $205 \times 7 = 1435$ . That is to say, over 500 tons of coal are expended in shortening the passage by 18 hours. It may be urged that this is not all, and that the difference in the dimensions of the two vessels must be taken into account. But it so happens that the Servia is a larger ship than the Etruria, the displacement of the former vessel being 10,960 tons, and of the latter 9800 tons, or 1100 tons less. The indicated horse-power of the Servia is 10,300, and that of the Etruria 14,321. The latter ship has 1·45 indicated horse-power per ton of displacement; the former a little less than ·94 indicated horse-power per ton of displacement. The enormous increase in horse-power required to put on a knot, or a fraction of a knot, in speed, explains the difference in the coal consumption of the two ships. Nor does the additional expense end here. It will be seen that not only can the Servia make a trip with 500 tons less coal than the Etruria, but she has available for some purpose or another 1100 tons more displacement. Part of that can be devoted to cargo, part to passenger space, even after due allowance is made for the greater weight of the hull. But furthermore, the boilers and engines of the Etruria weigh a great deal more than do those of the Servia. The more carefully we investigate the construction and performances of the two ships the clearer does it become that the price paid for reducing the time of transit between Liverpool and New York seems to be out of all proportion to the result gained. If such a ship as the Etruria can be made to pay her way, then the profit earned by such a vessel as the Servia must be very large, while that earned by the Britannic ought to be colossal. We believe that the truth lies between the two statements, and that the fastest ships in the Atlantic trade are partly supported out of the earnings of their slower sisters. Mr. John has hinted that the express Atlantic steamer of the future will carry no cargo, and this, we think, is more than probable. If any ship is built to beat the Etruria it is clear that there will be no space left for cargo—engines, boilers, and coal demanding every ton of displacement available.

The members of the Institution of Naval Architects were favoured with an opportunity of seeing the Etruria, the Cunard Company sending a tender to take them on

board the vessel as she lay in mid-stream, the day before starting for New York. It would be waste of space to attempt in a few words to give an adequate idea of what the Etruria is like; it will be enough to say that she is 500ft. long, 57ft. beam, and draws 22ft. 6in. Her engines have one high-pressure cylinder 71in., and two low-pressure 105in. diameter, with a stroke of 6ft. She has 72 furnaces, and the working pressure is 110 lb. Her engines make about 65 revolutions, or a piston speed of 780ft. per minute. It is impossible to look at these engines without remarking the enormous gap which separates them from the typical steam engine of books, and indeed of very many makers. The use of piston valves of huge dimensions seems to multiply the number of cylinders; and the great number of adjuncts serves to complicate the whole machine, until even a trained engineer stands bewildered before them. One thing is certain. No amount of college training, no amount of mathematical education, could have evolved such a machine. This kind of training can only teach principles, and the success of such engines as those of the Etruria and ships like her depends from beginning to end on detail, and a consummate knowledge of detail can only be acquired by prolonged experience. It would be quite impossible, we feel certain, to make our meaning quite clear to any one who has not seen such engines as those of which we are writing. There is not a member of the Institution of Naval Architects who visited the engine-room of the Etruria who will not at once understand what we intend to convey. It is this consummate knowledge of detail which places British marine engineers in advance of the marine engineers of every other nation under the sun. But when we have said so much in admiration of the Etruria's machinery we may proceed to criticise it, and to ask, could not equally admirable results be obtained by far simpler machinery? The abundance of detail, the multiplicity of parts, is in the Etruria overwhelming. It does not follow that they are necessary or desirable in the propulsion of a ship. Having visited the Etruria in the morning, we visited the steamship British Prince, the property of the British Shipowners' Company, lying in the Langton Branch Dock, in the evening. This ship has compound engines by Messrs. Harland and Woolf, of Belfast. She is a vessel of some 4000 tons, and makes over 12 knots, her engines indicating about 2700-horse power, steam being supplied at 90 lb. by three double-ended boilers with 18 furnaces. It was impossible not to contrast the excessive simplicity of these engines with the complexity of the Etruria's machinery; much of this simplicity being due, no doubt, to the ease with which the ordinary slide valve lends itself to the wishes of the designer, as compared with the piston-valve system, which doubles gear in a very objectionable fashion, besides largely augmenting the dimensions of an engine. The engines of the British Prince are remarkable for the great length of their connecting rods, which gives great smoothness of motion. If it is possible to build engines in this way, which will indicate nearly 3000-horse power, surely it might be possible to build engines of much greater power, without departing widely from the general features of the design.

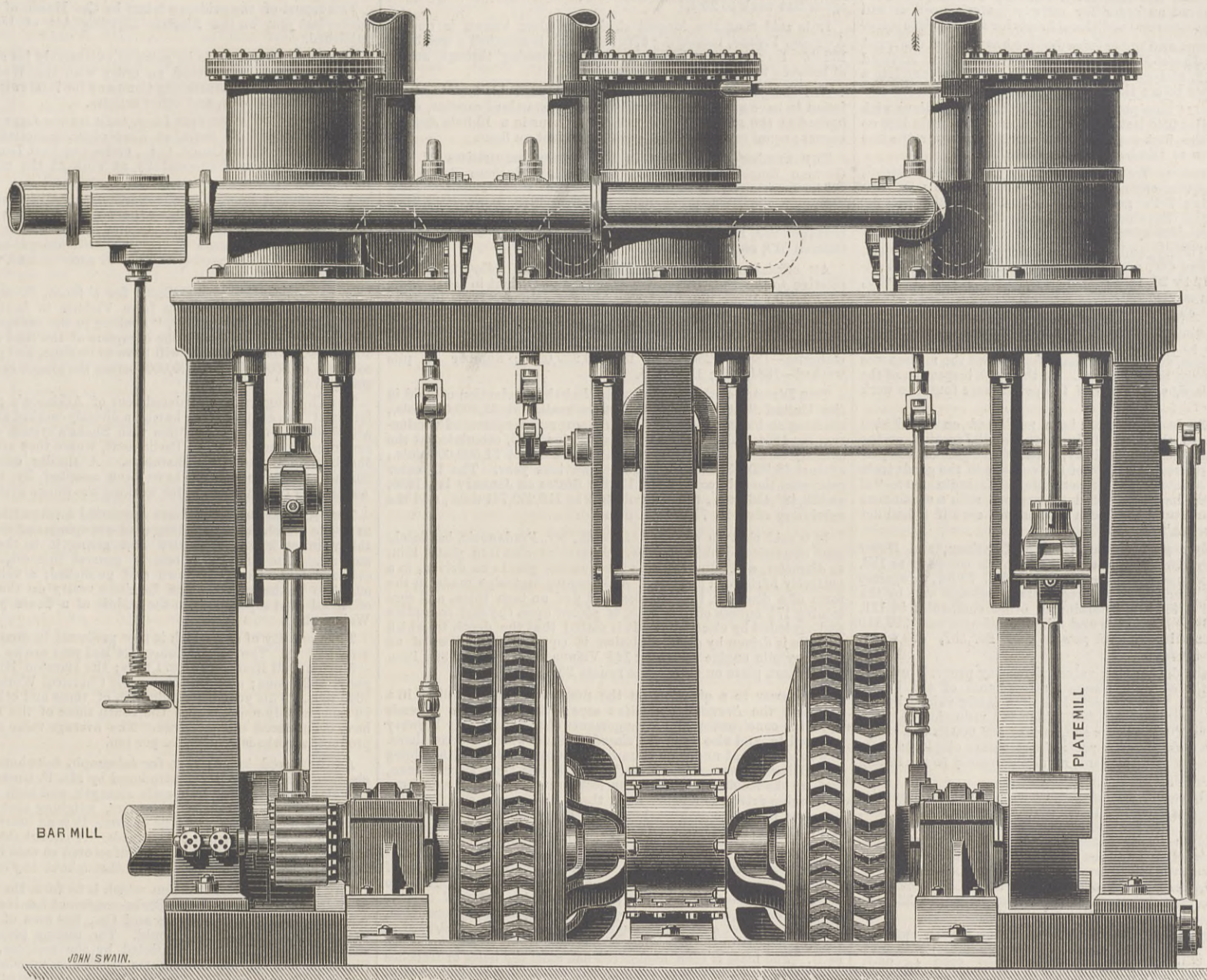
We have not left ourselves space to say much concerning Mr. Parker's paper, which contains a great deal that is highly suggestive. There is, however, no passage in it which deserves so much consideration as that in which he says—"In regard to the economical application of the work after it has been produced, to the propulsion of vessels, there is also room for great improvement, for according to the late Mr. Froude, the greatest authority on this subject, only about one-half of the total power exerted by the engines is effective in propelling the vessel, the remainder being expended in overcoming frictional and other resistances." The italics are ours. We have emphasised them because they indicate a weak place in engineering science. What are these "other resistances?" Is it too much to say that no one possesses any adequate information concerning their nature? The loss they represent is enormous. The gentlemen who believe in theory before all things have here a splendid chance open to them. If they will come forward and say how no less than 6000 indicated horse-power is wasted in the Etruria, they will do a good work. On what is this 6000-horse power expended? Let us assume that not less than 1000-horse power is absorbed by engine friction, where does the remaining 5000-horse power go? The quantity is no trifle. It ought to be possible to ascertain with some approach to accuracy on what it is expended. Not less remarkable than the loss is the fact that no one has ever attempted to define with precision on what it goes. There are, of course, numbers of vague explanations floating about, but they all elude the grasp when we attempt to handle them; one, for example, is that the friction of screw blades in passing through the water is quite sufficient to account for most of the loss. But the loss is as great in the case of the paddle-wheel as with the screw, and it is quite certain that the waste by friction in this case must be as nothing when compared with that of the screw.

#### THE PATENT OFFICE.

NEARLY nine months ago the President of the Board of Trade appointed a committee to inquire into the management of the Patent-office. Shortly afterwards a political accident removed one of the members to a different sphere and deprived another of his office under the Government, and it was thought to have put an end to the committee. Shortly afterwards, however, it emerged with the Lord Chancellor, Lord Herschell, as chairman, and strengthened by several new members, including Sir Richard Webster, Attorney-General. The committee held several meetings, and a good deal of evidence was taken; not indeed that much was wanted, as the radical defects of the Patent-office became apparent a few months after the new Act came into operation in 1884. These defects we have alluded to on more than one occasion. Time has not improved matters, and it is understood that the committee are now strongly convinced of the urgent necessity of taking some steps to bring about that unity of aim and harmony of view which are absolutely essential to the proper conduct of every large organisation. This want of accord manifested itself in a very remarkable way during the hearing of some recent appeals by the Law-officer. It appeared

ROLLING MILL ENGINES, WOODSIDE WORKS, COATBRIDGE.

MESSRS. DICK AND STEVENSON, AIRDRIE, ENGINEERS.



that a certain amendment of a specification had been, in the first instance, disallowed by the Comptroller, but subsequently allowed by the Deputy-comptroller, on an application slightly varied in form. The specification so amended afterwards formed the groundwork of some proceedings by way of opposition to the grant of certain patents. There were two cases, one being heard by the Comptroller, and the other by his deputy; and although the facts were almost identical, these two officials were again found to be giving conflicting decisions. We believe that the whole matter will come before the courts in another way during the next term, when we may perhaps refer to it again. The Patent-office is in a thoroughly unsatisfactory condition, not only as regards the exercise of the higher judicial functions of the Comptroller, but also with respect to the conduct of the ordinary business of the department. It has always been a complaint against the present régime that the office never knew its own mind, and the public are harassed by incessant and vexatious changes of procedure. It is understood that the nature of the reform required has been intimated informally to the Board of Trade, who, of course, strongly oppose any interference with the present staff on the ground of the difficulty of disposing of the surplus assistance. The recent formation of a fishery department, may perhaps be found to offer a solution of the difficulty.

TRADE REVIVAL.

SUFFICIENT attention has not yet been turned by iron and steel masters to the revival going on in the United States, as foreshadowing a return to prosperity in this country. The Government trade returns have for several months past indicated larger buying compared with a year ago, on account of American consumers of the products of British iron and steel works. Reports to hand from the manufacturing centres across the Atlantic all speak of a continuation and steady development of the larger demand which a few months ago began to appear at the iron and steel mills there. The works are gradually, and in some instances rapidly, filling up their order books with forward business. The expectation has established itself that railway building in the States will be very large in the next two years, than which nothing can give a greater stimulus to trade. It is estimated that the production of steel rails will this year be in advance of anything previously accomplished, namely, 1,500,000 tons. Heavy orders are being offered, and some of them placed in the English hematite pig iron districts for export to America. Good contracts are also being given out by the same buyers to our steelworks for open-hearth and Bessemer material in the form of blooms, billets, tin—or sheet—bars, wire rods, and other forms of partially manufactured steel. The most recent advices from the States speak of this class of business as certain to increase. Many of the American ironmasters are preferring to roll down imported steel rather than experiment for the present in steel-producing plants. The trade horizon is brightening in several directions, and we congratulate the iron and steel and engineering industry upon the improved autumn prospects.

A GOOD INVESTMENT.

At the recent half-yearly meeting of the North-Eastern Railway shareholders at York, the chairman—referring to the reduction in the amount paid as compensation for injuries to passengers—said, "Formerly upon some occasions, as you know—and as we know from unfortunate experience—the sums paid

annually for personal injuries to passengers were very great. In two consecutive years—in 1870 and 1871—we paid £37,413 for that alone in the first-named year, and £59,006 in the second-named year. Of course there is something of far more importance underlying these figures than the mere pecuniary amount expressed by them. There is all the suffering, grief, loss of relatives and so forth, to be added to the account; but during the six years ending 1886 the average amount paid was only £15,300 a-year. I am glad to refer you to the half year just ended, where the sum paid is only £2356, or under £5000 a-year. Now, of course, all this has not been got without a considerable expenditure by the railway company, and it is owing to your generosity, your liberality, that we have been able to apply large sums of money in that direction. We have, as you know, now applied almost entirely over the whole line the block system, and in addition to that we have great command over the speed and motion of our trains by the very liberal use of the Westinghouse brake."

GERMAN COMPETITION IN THE EAST.

OUR Sheffield correspondent sends two interesting statements in reference to Japan and China. The first disposes of the German boast that a firm of the Fatherland had succeeded in securing the monopoly of the Japanese rail trade for eight years. As a matter of fact a leading Sheffield firm has just taken an order for 10,000 tons of steel rails, which follows another order for a similar quantity for the land of the Mikado. China has also placed an order for steel rails with this Sheffield house, and hopes are entertained that the Celestials really mean business this time. This is the first order for steel rails since a syndicate laid down the line to Woosung. The Chinese had bargained for a horse-line. When the contractors used steam, the children of the sun were terribly offended, negotiated for the purchase of the railway, and then deliberately broke it up. It is satisfactory to know that both in China and Japan the Germans have failed in their masterful efforts to appropriate the railway business. The opening up of China and Burmah will do more to revive English trade than any other event, short of a world-wide "boom."

STEVENSON'S ROLLING MILL ENGINES AND REVERSING CLUTCHES.

THE engravings which will be found at page 128 are three-coupled engines and two sets of ponderous frictional rolling mill reversing clutches and gearing, which have been erected at the Woodside Steel and Iron Company's Works, Coatbridge. The erection embraces several novel features. The improvements secured by this new arrangement may be gathered from a close inspection of the engravings, and those of some of its earlier forms, such as installed at Monkland and Blochairn, to be found in THE ENGINEER of 1872 and 1874.

The system has been adopted, although its cost is much higher than that of reversing engines and other forms of this plant. Mr. Stevenson argues that "plates or bars rolled at uniform speed are superior in tensile strength to such as are rolled by the staggering motion of reversing engines, and that many of the plate failures of which so much had been heard, such as that in one of the boilers of the Russian s.s. Livadia, are due to defective processes of rolling more than the differences in the quality of the metal of which they are composed." His

theory is that "the molecules of iron put in motion when attacked by the rolls in passes of the piece through them require time as well as pressure to adjust and settle themselves in their respective relations and dispositions with the effect of obtaining the maximum tensile strength corresponding to the quality of the metal. The alternating quick and slow travel of the rolls results in spasmodic seizures of the metal's molecules upon each other, which is destructive of strength of hold and incompatible with homogeneous masses throughout individual plates—a fact which is obvious on microscopic inspection." These views will not perhaps meet with general assent, especially as Mr. Stevenson mentions the possible improvement under this head as analogous to that referred to by Dr. Percy in connection with the strength of wire; but that the varying speeds have some effect will no doubt be admitted. The Woodside clutches are based on the lines of those at Gelsenkirchen, and were adopted for Woodside after inspection of their productions and an investigation of their behaviour in continuous working since 1873 by the engineers of that company.

The three engines shown have each 36in. cylinders with 42in. strokes. The two outside engines are coupled to two crank shafts, which they drive continuously in opposite directions. These shafts are each connected at their inner ends to the centre engine, which, by means of two connecting-rods working in opposite directions to each other, couple the shafts to the effect combining the power of all the engines against resistance presented to either of the mill wheels. The appearance of the whole system when in full action presents to the eye strange and mixed movements. Four engine connecting-rods rise and fall unevenly, yet all beat time like the legs of a trotting quadruped, whilst the clutch pieces and rolls seem now to spin round right and left, now to stop or start, or now to join chase in one direction in obedience to the finger touches on small hydraulic controlling valves. These may be seen in the plan, page 128. Engines and gearing are embraced in one united and compact bed frame, and are bound to it on the level face of a solid square foundation, so that unequal wearing of the machinery or uneven setting of the foundations, through pressures and strains long directed on particular points, is prevented. The main castings of the structure are of selected tough iron, and its main malleable parts of mild steel. The cranks are forged solid with the shafts, and have crank pins 10.5in. diameter. The crank shafts have necks 14.5in., and those carrying the mill wheels and clutches have necks 16.5in. diameter. The spur wheels are 26.25in. wide on the face, and are 8ft. 10.5in. diameter. The weight of each set of wheels, with clutches and sliding boxes, is nearly 25 tons, and with the hydraulic reversing cylinders, central spindles, crabs, and their relative appurtenances, make up a total weight to be carried by each mill shaft of about 30 tons. The teeth of the wheels, as will be seen from the illustration, are formed on Stevenson's zig-zag or quadruple helical design, with a central web between the two sets of teeth; the pitch is 7in. These teeth are claimed to be 30 per cent. stronger than those of the ordinary double helical form, because they present an arch throughout half the total breadth of teeth towards the driving pressure in whichever direction the wheels and pinions drive. Second, the zig-zag lines give greater sectional area of metal by virtue of their double apex. The whole has been worked out by careful reference to past experience, and the results will no doubt be looked for by rolling mill engineers and owners with interest.















# BOGIE EXPRESS ENGINE, CALEDONIAN RAILWAY.

CONSTRUCTED BY MESSRS. NELSON AND CO. HYDE PARK LOCOMOTIVE WORKS, GLASGOW.

