

AMERICAN BRIDGE DESIGN.

By ROBERT HUDSON GRAHAM.

No. I.

In a comparatively new and progressive Republic, such as that of the United States of America, where the construction of highways of communication, the crossing of rivers and valleys by means of bridges and viaducts, must keep pace with the rapid industrial development of the country, bridge design has had opportunities of advancement which it has never enjoyed in Great Britain. Whether American engineers have taken advantage of these propitious circumstances to form bridge-building into a perfect science; or whether, as frequently happens in this country, bridges are made to subserve the purposes of costly and lavish experiments whence engineers seek to evolve what first principles they have neglected in their school-days, is a question upon which it would be impossible to pass an opinion in the absence of a closer and more intimate knowledge of American structures. The two or three papers which I propose to write upon this subject will contain an account of the impressions derived from the perusal of a work,\* recently placed in my hands, dealing with the latest phase and development of American bridge design. For some years past Professor Waddell, presumably an American, has taught the branch of Civil Engineering in the Imperial University of Tôkiô, Japan, and before his resignation of that post, he wished, as we gather from his preface, to leave behind him some professional record of his stay, which ultimately took the shape of a theoretical and practical exposition of the most approved type of American bridge. In the execution of this project, he confidentially informs us in the introduction, he had no ulterior motive beyond a laudable desire to instruct and edify Japanese engineers

knew little or nothing of structural anatomy, and the strict laws which govern the strength of materials. Therefore egregious blunders of this nature are to be ascribed, not to British engineers as a class, but to such of them only as are imbued with a sense of the infallibility of empiric formulæ or are branded with the unmistakable mark of dogmatic charlatanism. Lastly, to cut the matter short, here is a remarkable quotation from the closing page of the author's preface:—"It would be out of place for me to recommend you in this work any particular manufacturers, though I have no objection to give you individually my opinion as to what shops in America do the best work." It is perfectly unnecessary further to explain the aim and significance of these side-thrusts at British engineers. I have merely brought them together lest our disinterested author should still labour under the strange delusion that in preparing this treatise he had no such thing as "an axe to grind;" nor had he the slightest intention to raise the value of American over the depreciated reputation of British engineering.

Taken as a whole, Professor Waddell's book conveys the impression of being a conscientious and successful effort to describe and explain the general type of American bridge, as exemplified in the Whipple truss. Commingled with what is good there is, however, a large admixture of error, peculiar, perhaps, to Professor Waddell rather than to the system he describes, to which it may be well to draw immediate attention. First, in his introduction, page 4, there appears the curious statement that the lightness of American bridges is due (secondarily), "to the greater height of truss, which throws less lever on the upper and lower chord system, and hence require less iron in their members." The inference drawn in this passage is perfectly true; but the reason assigned for it is none the less false, because the leverage of the flange

resist from 50 lb. to 40 lb. per square foot according to the length of span. C. Shaler Smith, C.E., one of the highest American authorities upon bridge building, proportions all his bridges under 200ft. span to resist a pressure of 50 lb. per square foot, and considers that 30 lb. upon the loaded bridge will be large enough for all greater spans. Thomas Cooper, C.E., the author of the best American bridge specifications, provides for a wind pressure of 150 lb. per lineal-foot for upper lateral bracing in through bridges and lower lateral bracing in deck bridges. The author uses 150 lb. for spans of 100ft. and under, from that to 200 lb. for spans between 100ft. and 200ft., and from 200 lb. to 240 lb. for spans from 200ft. to 300ft. as the pressures per lineal foot for upper lateral bracing. The pressures per lineal foot on trusses only for the lower lateral system were calculated to be from 290 lb. for spans of 100ft. to 320 lb. for those of 300ft. for empty bridges, and from 170 lb. for spans of 100ft. to 240 lb. for those of 300ft. for bridges covered by the moving load. The pressures per lineal foot upon upper lateral system with an intensity of 30 lb. per square foot are about 90 lb. for spans of 100ft. and under, and from 90 lb. to 130 lb. for spans between 100ft. and 200ft., and from 130 lb. to 180 lb. for spans between 200ft. and 300ft. Wind loads upon empty bridges are treated as moving, for it is possible for one part of a bridge to be protected while the remainder is exposed; besides, the centre of the whirlwind has a motion of translation which would cause the pressure to really act as a moving load. This method of treatment affects principally the lateral rods and struts near the middle of the span. The pressure upon the train is undoubtedly a moving load, but the co-existing pressure upon the trusses must be treated as static; for it would be highly improbable that a maximum wind and a train could advance together, and with the same velocity, upon a bridge."

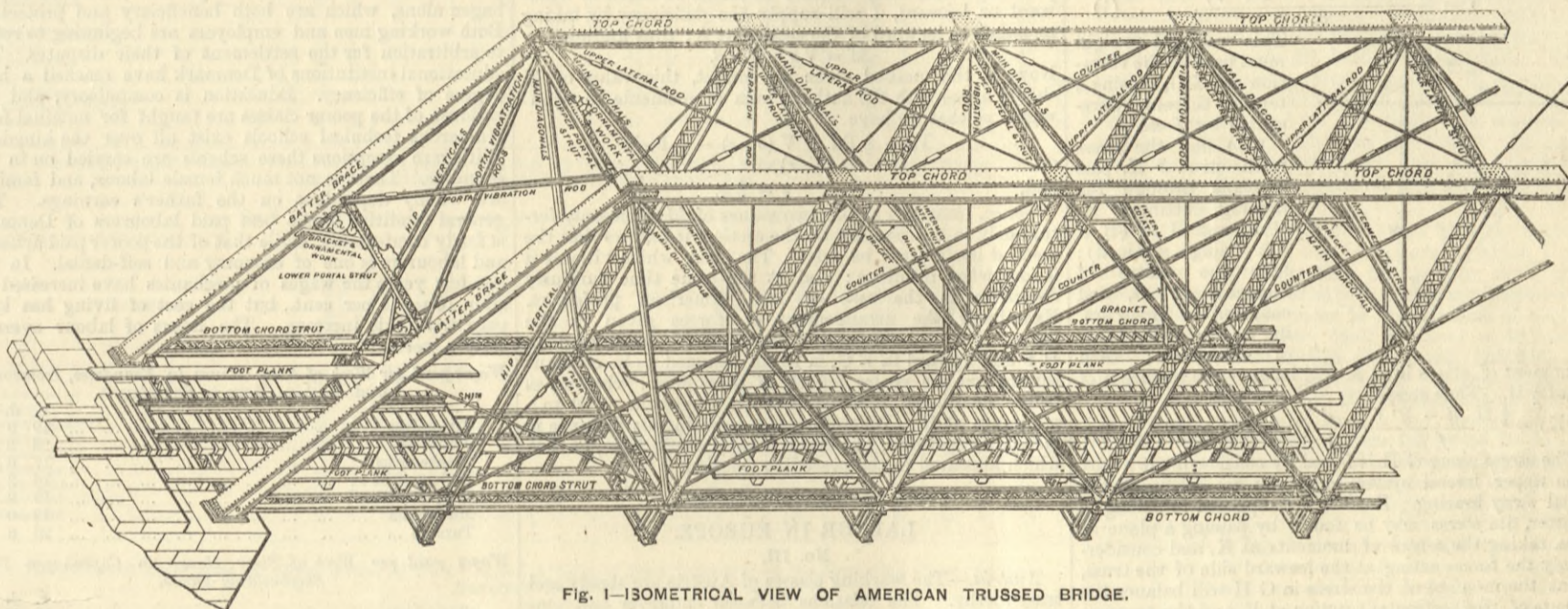


Fig. 1—ISOMETRICAL VIEW OF AMERICAN TRUSSED BRIDGE.

and engineering students, or, to use the learned professor's own metaphor, he had in the preparation of this treatise no such mean thing as "an axe to grind." A purely disinterested motive, if such a thing there be, at once commands respect and admiration, and therefore it was with a full sense of sympathy with the author that we entered into his account of Transatlantic bridge-building. It would be idle for me to dwell at greater length upon the question of motive, but it seems necessary to state that my faith in the author's sublime disinterestedness was somewhat rudely shaken by stumbling upon such significant passages as the following:—"That the United States of America lead the world in bridge-building is a fact undisputed even in Europe." Then, again, in the reproduction of an allusion to the Tay Bridge, repeating Mr. Thomas Clarke's opinion—"that its construction was so palpably erroneous that a common carpenter might have seen its unsafe condition"—we seem to catch a second glimpse of that *arrière-pensée*, which unconsciously animated the author. It is not my intention to defend the design of the first Tay Bridge—a project abortive alike in its original conception as in the fruitless inquiry which followed its collapse; but at the same time it is far from self-evident that a common carpenter, or even an intelligent blacksmith, would have straightway put his finger upon the serious defects which finally brought about its destruction. Further on, after a careful explanation that all existing Japanese bridges were the work of European engineers, Professor Waddell declares that "if an American engineer were sent to inspect and pass judgment upon a Japanese railroad truss bridge, he would condemn it before getting within a hundred yards of the structure." Once more, "the trouble with most English bridges, and consequently with those of this country, is that they are designed by railroad engineers, who have not made a special study of bridge designing, and are therefore incompetent to do the work entrusted to them." This extract would lead us to imagine that, in Professor Waddell's opinion, British civil engineers are disqualified in virtue of the single fact that they are "railroad engineers;" a reason which does not impress itself upon our minds as being either very cogent or conclusive. Nevertheless, it would be useless to deny that there is in British, and probably also in American, railway structures ample intrinsic evidence that they were built, not by railway engineers, but by rule-of-thumb practitioners, who

stresses increases directly as the depth of the truss, and of course it is this very increase of leverage that reduces the flange stresses, and thereby the cross sectional dimensions of the girder. On page 53 we find it stated as a general principle "that it is not considered good practice to vary the thickness of the top chord plate or increase the number of thicknesses towards the middle of span, for the proper place for the larger part of the material in a top chord is in the channel, and not in the plate." I conclude from this passage that, apart from all questions of convenience, American engineers deem it wiser to widen than deepen the cross-section, despite the fact that the moment of resistance increases with the depth. Again, on page 64, the author remarks "that the live load stresses in floor beams, track stringers, and in all plate girders not exceeding 25ft. in length, are to be increased by 25 per cent., in order to provide for shock." He then annexes a table according to which girders over 60ft. in length require the live load stresses to be increased only by 8 per cent.—a limit that comes as a new revelation when we remember that the theoretical increase is exactly 100 per cent. I here use the term "theoretical" advisedly, because other circumstances tend considerably to diminish the percentage of theoretical increase. The general principle enunciated on page 72, "that the sum of the working bearing resistances of all the rivets on either side of the joint must not be less than the stress in the main member on that side," is based on the assumption that each rivet has but one section of rupture, which is false. Later, I shall have occasion to return to this subject; but in order to prepare the minds of British engineers for a radical revolution of their ideas, it may be better to state at once that our author, in conformity with what he tells us is the best American practice, designs all his rivets to resist bending moment. According to this theory it would appear that the shearing action of a pair of scissors, no matter how closely the blades may be rivetted together, or how infinitesimally small the lever arm, in ultimate ratio resolves itself into a case of bending moment. On page 82 there is a table specifying the uniform live load in pounds per "lineal"—linear?—foot, to be substituted for rolling load, in spans varying from 12ft. to 60ft. These equivalent loads are all too small, being undoubtedly affected by the small percentage allowed by the author for shock, and probably also by a faulty deduction from values less than the *maxima maximum* of all central bending moments. On pages 84-5 there is a concise statement of the wind loads adopted by the best American authorities, which it may be of interest to quote at length:—"Empty bridges are proportioned to

The above extract—saving the sage dogmatic assertion made in the last paragraph, which would teach us that concurrent moving loads must always "advance together, and with the same velocity"—gives us a clear idea of how American engineers distribute their wind loading. The subject of wind pressure, as affecting the lateral stability of structures, is becoming daily more and more a question of importance; and yet, so far as we are aware, no definite steps have been taken by the railway inspectors of the British Board of Trade to insure the lateral stability of structures. True, following the Report of a Royal Commission, a rule or precept, or whatever else it may be called, was once issued that all bridges must be designed to withstand a lateral pressure of 56 lb. per square foot. But what steps have been taken to give effect to this rule or precept? None at all; and yet it is positively certain that a solemn procession of heavy locomotives, granting—which, in fact, is very doubtful—that it adequately tests the vertical stability, affords no criterion of the lateral strength of a bridge.\* Indeed, it would seem to be a comparatively easy task so to design a bridge that it should receive the formal approval of the Board of Trade, and yet be most assuredly upset by the first strong gale of wind.

Leaving the question of wind pressure, Professor Waddell then proceeds to deal with the calculation of stress, and the interesting matter of the relative strength of the various members of a structure; and it is very remarkable that the author, who has some pretence to be ahead of all British engineers, should, in apparent ignorance of the new graphic methods, adhere to the long, tedious, analytical processes of the early part of the century. Moreover, in order, as he supposes, to lighten the work of calculation, Professor Waddell separates the difference of load per lineal foot of engine and car, which difference he calls the "engine excess," and treats it independently of the other loads. This separation is perfectly irregular and superfluous, inasmuch that the engine excess, or for that matter half-a-dozen engine excesses, can be included with the other loads, and their effect evaluated in one and the same stress diagram.

In Chapter IX. the treatment of transverse bracing for

\* *Memoirs of the Tôkiô Daigaku* (University of Tôkiô): "A System of Iron Railroad Bridges for Japan." By J. A. L. Waddell, C.E., B.A.Sc., M.A.E., Professor of Civil Engineering in the University of Tôkiô, Japan; Consulting Engineer for the firm of Raymond and Campbell, Council Bluffs, Iowa; &c. &c.

\* Not so long ago a Government official, lately deceased, informed me that, finding the central pier of an arched bridge which came under his inspection "fairly wobbled," he had recommended the engineers to insert a tie-rod (sic) between the haunches, in order that one arch might "shoulder-up" the other. The engineers of the scheme followed his advice, and the "wobbling" finally disappeared. Here, then, is a structure with unstable piers, depending upon the imperishability of a single compression rod, which may any day fall through the setting-in of rust, or buckle under unequal settlement. Moreover, one might fairly expect that a bridge, which "wobbled" on its piers, was not altogether insured against collapse both in a forward and lateral sense, by being stiffened merely in the plane of its longitudinal axis.—R. H. G.



promptly delivered, and the profit made is divided equally among all the members. Artels are more completely organised in the Government of Moscow. Villages in which the blacksmiths, joiners, and locksmiths form a large proportion of the inhabitants unite and determine the amount of capital they intend operating with. The amount so decided upon is raised by voluntary contributions of the villagers. Only inhabitants of those villages who take part in the association can become members. After deducting the cost of the raw material, 70 per cent. of the remainder is divided amongst the industrious members, and the remaining 30 per cent. put aside as a reserve fund. Idle members are either expelled or must submit to a deduction determined on by a vote of all the members. All business transactions are conducted by word of mouth,

Average Wages Paid per Week of Seventy-two Hours.

Table with columns for occupations (Blacksmiths, Strikers, Brassfounders, Horseshoers, Millwrights, Nailmakers) and locations (Riga, Warsaw) with sub-columns for s. and d.

Portugal.—Wages in Portugal are very low compared with those in England and France. The hours of labour are from sunrise to sunset, with two hours interval for meals and rest. Women do much active work, such as stevedores and other outdoor labour. Out of a population of four millions and a-half, only one hundred and eighty-

Table showing Comparative Average Weekly Wages, according to the Reports of 1879 and 1885.

Table with columns for Occupations and countries (Germany, France, Belgium, Italy, Denmark, Switzerland, England) with sub-columns for 1879 and 1885 wages in s. and d.

Table showing the Rate of Wages in Ten of the Principal Cities of Europe.

Table with columns for Occupations and cities (London, Antwerp, Bremen, Berne, Vienna, Amsterdam, Rouen, Copenhagen, Turin, Riga) with sub-columns for wages in s. and d.

\* Though given as the wages of Vienna in the comparative table, they are evidently the wages of other towns—Prague and Trieste—these trades being blank as to wages in the detailed Vienna return.

Table showing the Average Rate of Wages in Ten Countries of Europe.

Table with columns for Occupations and countries (England, Belgium, Germany, Switzerland, Austria, Holland, France, Denmark, Italy, Russia) with sub-columns for wages in s. and d.

The following Table gives the Retail Prices of the Principal Articles of Food Consumed by the Labouring Classes in Seven European Countries.

Table with columns for Articles and countries (England, Germany, Switzerland, France, Austria, Belgium, Holland) with sub-columns for prices in s. and d.

and at the close of the yearly accounts the same round is begun again, the Artels renewing and reconstructing themselves. Artels exist in all branches of trade and commerce, and those of the labourer are no less important than those of the craftsmen. Were Artels to be all suddenly dissolved or suppressed, the business of the country would be very seriously embarrassed. The hours of labour are from sixty to seventy-eight a week.

Wages Paid per Week of Sixty-eight Hours in Ironworks in Russia.

Table with columns for occupations (Casters, Moulders, Apprentices, Labourers in foundry, Locksmiths, Blacksmiths, Strikers, Chisellers, Tin-smiths, Solderers, Copper-smiths, Grinders, Polishers, Bronze workers, Metal workers, Turners, Planers, Labourers) and wages in s. and d.

five thousand are mechanics and artisans. Wages in and around Lisbon are—general trades, 2s. 6d. to 3s. 4d. a day, some running up to 5s. 3d. in exceptional cases, and others falling to 2s. 1d. Wages in the country districts are lower.

Turkey.—Turkey is not usually considered in a comparison of the labour conditions of the commercial and manufacturing nations. The want of internal communications has had the effect of localising industries, and each community has conditions of trade, hours of labour, and rates of wages peculiar to itself. Statistics relating to labour and wages, either official or other, are few. The working classes are industrious and steady, and strikes are very rare. The hours of labour are from sunrise to one hour before sunset, with an hour for dinner. Nearly everything is done by hand, and consequently manual labour is in great demand. The wages of general trades in Constantinople are about the same as those in other large cities of Europe; if anything, a little higher. In distant villages and country districts they are extremely low. A comparison with the report of 1879 shows that a slight advance in the rate of wages, but still an important one, when the relation of the cost of living to the amount of money earned, is generally noticeable in every country, except in England, where a general decrease has taken place, as shown in the above tables.

FALL OF ELECTRO-MOTIVE FORCE WITH DISCHARGE OF A BATTERY.

BY PAGET HIGGS, LL.D.

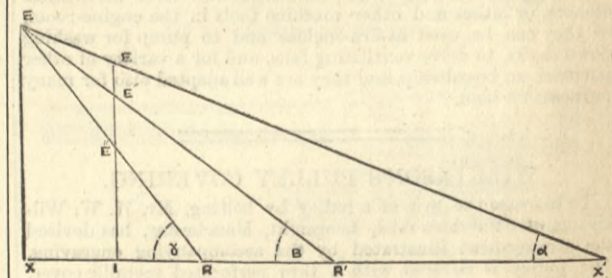
DR. LODGE, in a recent number of THE ENGINEER, pointed out a difficulty that beset the student in experiments with batteries, and explained one of those practical phenomena of which the reason why is not always apparent prima facie. I would like to add some remarks about the discharge of batteries, with regard to a stumbling block that I have found a good many tripping over.

It is customary to give the electro-motive force of a battery as obtained on open circuit. This for comparison is sometimes serviceable, but practically the figures have little value. What the practician (to borrow a word from our French neighbours) requires to know is the electro-motive force when the battery is producing current. This is frequently a very different result, as many a poor amateur has found to his cost. It is not at all an unusual thing in an amateur's calculations for him to take the electro-motive force on open circuit as the working electro-motive force, and then for him to find that his incandescent lamps (an amateur generally fails here) are only red hot instead of white hot. And I am sorry to have to say it, but not always is this oversight confined to the amateur.

The best batteries are considered impolarisable (another word from the French, but perhaps we have left them too long in possession of the field), that is, the hydrogen evolved at the positive electrode is supposed quite consumed in the reduction of a metal, or by its oxidation or chlorination. If this consumption is not perfect, an unknown factor is introduced into our problem, and one that no economist will allow. However, all batteries are polarisable to a certain limit, where the production of hydrogen exceeds either the rate of contact of the consuming material, or the capacity of that material; in the latter case the battery is said to be exhausted; in the former a larger cell generally avoids the difficulty, or a larger surface of positive electrode. Yet this point is sadly neglected in nearly all battery construction. There is scarcely an ordinary form of battery in the market in which the positive electrode and amount of hydrogen-consuming material are not too small, with relation to the surface of zinc, to produce the best results. This, then, is the constructive difficulty, that does not, however, beset the amateur unless he builds his own battery; it is, however, a trade oversight.

Supposing a properly constructed battery, there is yet another obstacle, and this is the one to which I refer as commonly neglected—the unavoidable and inherent internal resistance. Him who doubts my statement as to this neglect I would refer to the columns of any of our technical papers, where teen inquiries as to failures to light incandescent lamps with such batteries as the Leclanché, intended for a totally different work. Even when, too, the amount of this resistance is understood by the student to depend upon size and upon distance apart of the electrodes, I have known failure to be incurred in the attempt at reduction of resistance, by bringing the electrodes so close together as to prevent circulation of a sufficient amount of the hydrogen-consuming material. With accumulators it is not at all uncommon to have the plates too close together to admit of the bulk of sulphuric acid necessary for the proper formation of sulphate; the space having been reduced with the single view of reducing the internal resistance of the cell. But the internal resistance of a battery varies also with the liquid employed, and with so many other causes as to prevent generalisation. What has to be now attempted is the explanation of the effect of this resistance.

Any explanation that can be referred to a geometrical consideration has an advantage in being apparent to the

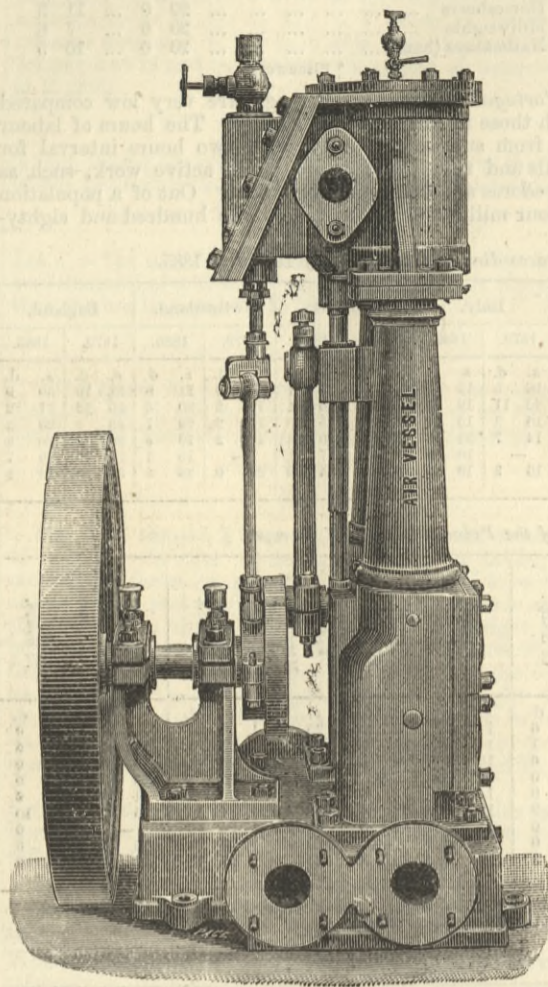
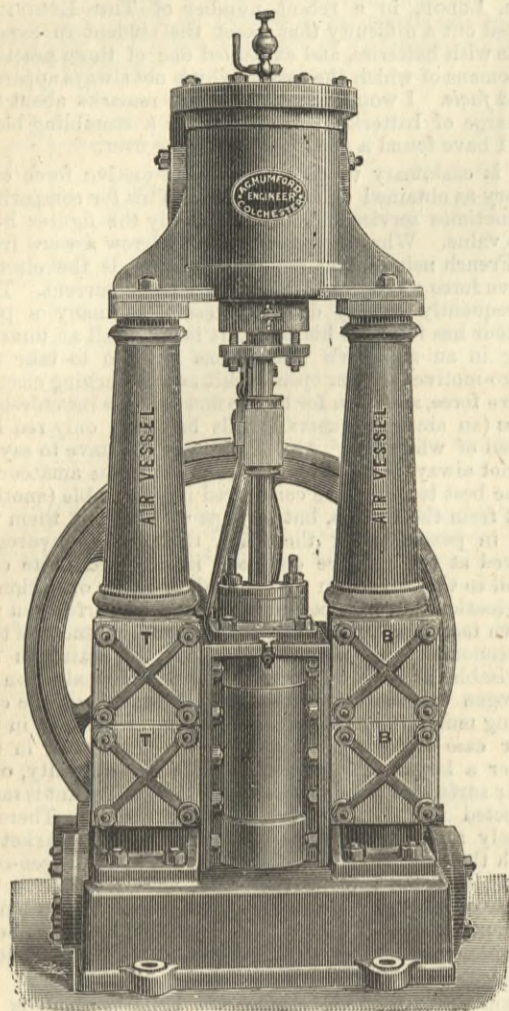


physical eye, as well as to the mind's eye, to which alone figures and symbols appeal. Therefore let XI in the horizontal line XX' represent the internal resistance of the battery, and let IX' be the resistance of the voltmeter. The vertical line E will be taken to represent the internal electro-motive force of the battery, and then the line E' at the other extremity of XI will be the electro-motive force at the terminals of the battery when only the voltmeter is in circuit. Let us now set the battery to work on a resistance represented by IR, and we see that the line joining E and R—corresponding to the line joining EX' when only the voltmeter was in circuit—now makes a greater angle with the horizontal line of resistance, and cuts the line giving the electro-motive force at the terminals at E'', which is now the electro-motive force appearing on the voltmeter or, if IR represent lamp-resistance, at the terminals of the lamps. If IR' be the lamp-resistance giving the electro-motive force E, proper to the requisite brightness of the lamps, then, although we have a greater angle gamma than at beta—the currents are proportional to the tangents of these angles, not to the angles themselves—and a greater current flowing out with the lesser electro-motive force E'', the lamps—in parallel—have not each the electro-motive E, at their terminals necessary to drive the proper current through them. With the highest electro-motive force we have the lowest current, tan alpha.

This little diagram based on the simplest reasoning shows at once the fallacy of giving the electro-motive force without the corresponding current.

MARINE PUMPING ENGINE.

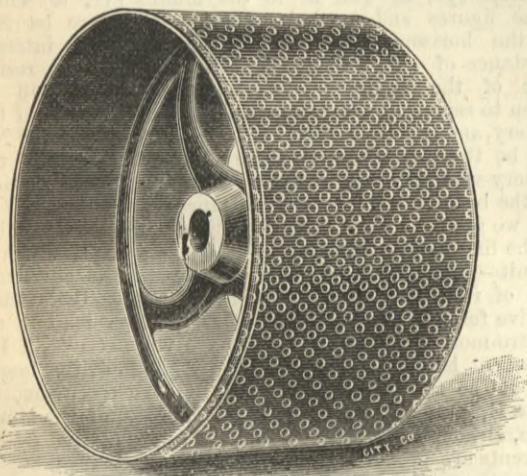
MR. A. MUMFORD, COLCHESTER, ENGINEER.



The accompanying illustrations show front and side elevations of a pumping engine designed and manufactured by Mr. A. G. Mumford, engineer, of Colchester. Although well adapted for other purposes, it has been specially designed for use on board ship, and it has therefore been so arranged as to economise space to the uttermost, whether as regards height or floor space, in proportion to amount of work done. Care has also been taken to make every part readily accessible. An inspection of the front elevation will show that the suction and delivery can be used conjointly at either the right or left side, or the suction can be used at the right and delivery at left, or *vice versa*; hence every condition of locality is provided for. Blank flanges or cover plates are supplied for the suction and delivery not in use. The standards supporting the cylinders are ingeniously utilised to act as air vessels. There are four varieties of the design—namely, single-cylinder single-acting pump, single-cylinder double-acting pump, double-cylinder single-acting pumps, and double-cylinder double-acting pumps. The illustration shows a single-cylinder pump. The double cylinder simply consists of a pair of these with a base common to both, with a gap in the centre for the fly-wheel, which then has a shaft bearing at both sides of it. The cumbersome and rather unsightly kite gear is done away with, and a strong guide rod of such a diameter as affords a large rubbing area is provided. All the valves, seatings, glands, and journal bearings are adjustable and made of gun-metal. These engines can be used as prime movers to drive mechanical stokers, or lathes and other machine tools in the engine-room, or they can be used as fire-engines and to pump for washing down decks, to drive ventilating fans, and for a variety of other purposes on board ship, and they are well adapted also for many purposes on land.

WILKINSON'S PULLEY COVERING.

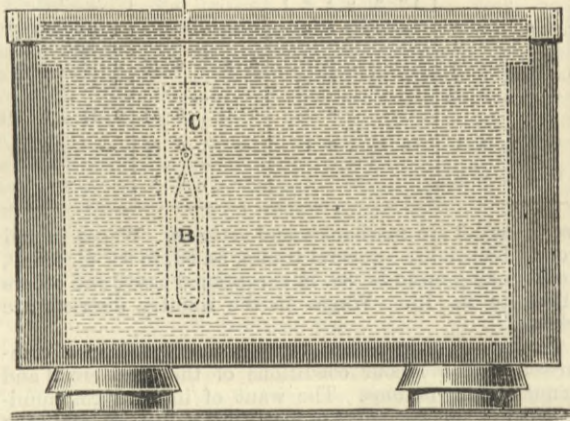
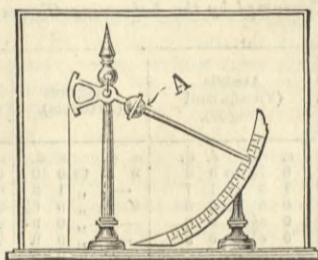
To increase the grip of a pulley by belting, Mr. W. W. Wilkinson, of St John's-road, Longsight, Manchester, has devised the arrangement illustrated by the accompanying engraving. The pulley is covered with a thin perforated metallic cover, fastened by screws, rivets, or solder. It increases the strength



of the pulley if properly applied, increases the hold of the belt, and makes it possible to run with slack belts. It remains to be seen whether the wear of the belt is greater in any noticeable degree than with an ordinary pulley, but it may be assumed that as the necessary tension is less, the life of a belt will not be decreased unless it is too small for its work. The advantages of being able to run with a slightly slack belt are obvious.

THE ELWELL-PARKER SECONDARY BATTERY GAUGE.

The instrument we illustrate is being brought out by Messrs. Elwell and Parker for automatically closing the charging circuit when the cells are exhausted, and breaking it when they are fully charged; also for continuously showing the condition of the charge, and signalling it by a bell or otherwise. Professor Forbes, at the Society of Arts, drew attention to the necessity for such an indicator, actuated by the change in density of the liquids, for automatically working a switch, and he was not aware that any such was in use. The following description of the apparatus used by Messrs. Elwell-Parker and Co. may consequently be of interest:—This instrument, designed upon the principle of the hydrostatic balance, and patented by Mr. Thos.

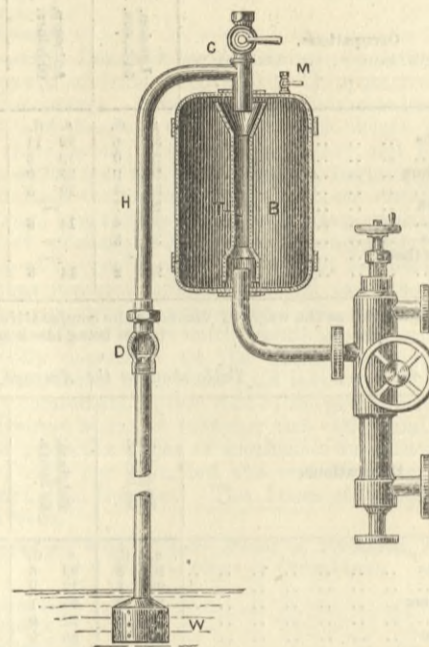


Parker, has been used in connection with the Elwell-Parker accumulators during the past two years with perfect success. It is unaffected by the level of the solution, and does not require a special cell. It consists of a vertical brass pillar, from which projects a horizontal arm, carrying by two silk cords, the beam, at one end of which is the segment of a wheel, the axis of the beam forming the centre, and at the other end is an ivory pointer and an adjustable balance weight. A glass bulb B, hermetically sealed and loaded, so as to just sink in the solution when at its greatest density, is suspended in the centre of the cell by a platinum wire attached within the gauge case to a silk cord hanging from the segment in the beam. The gauge, entirely enclosed in a glass case, is placed upon a shelf directly above the cell, so that the glass bulb hangs in the solution without touching the plates. It will be at once seen that as the battery is being charged, and the specific gravity of the solution increases, the bulb B will rise and the angle formed by the arm

bearing the balance weight A with the vertical pillar will become more acute until the pointer reaches the bottom of the scale, when a cross-bar, formed by a fine piece of platinum wire at the end of the pointer, comes into contact with two upright platinum terminals, and so closes the circuit either of an electromagnetic switch—for automatically cutting the battery out of the general charging circuit—or of an electric bell in the engine-house—to show that the charging is complete—or where a gas engine is used to cut off the gas and so stop the engine. A similar contact may be made when the cells are exhausted—to any desired extent—and the charging circuit thrown in again, or a bell sounded by the pointer reaching the top of the scale. As the capacity of a secondary battery, when always discharged in series, depends upon that of the weakest cell it contains, and as every cell will require exactly the same amount of current to re-charge it, a single indicator placed over any cell is all that is required.

HAWKE'S INJECTOR AUXILIARY.

The accompanying engraving illustrates a new appliance for increasing the efficiency of boiler injectors, patented by Mr. S. R. Hawke, Hayle, Cornwall, and awarded a silver medal at the last annual Polytechnic Exhibition at Falmouth. It obviates the uncertainty often attending the starting of injectors, and also imparts to the injector—of all sizes—a lifting power of from 20ft. to 25ft.; and the injector will lift water of a higher temperature than when worked in the usual manner, viz., 140 deg. The illustration shows it attached to an ordinary injector. B is an air-tight chamber filled with water. Thus, on opening the water regulator, the injector becomes at once flushed with water, and consequently instant action is secured—the steam not having first to exhaust the air from a long suction



pipe, as in the ordinary way of working. The injector continuing its action, gradually creates the necessary vacuum in chamber B to lift water up the suction pipe H, thus becoming replenished with water as fast as it is being withdrawn by the injector. The water, rushing through the cones and tube T, carries with it any air which might enter B; thus the necessary vacuum is maintained. The cock C is for conveniently charging the appliance with water—previous to first working, air escaping through pit tap M—and may also be utilised for introducing boiler composition from any suitable vessel attached. The auxiliary has, we are informed, proved of great advantage to injectors which were inadequate for the lift required.

NAVAL ENGINEER APPOINTMENT.—The following appointment has been made at the Admiralty:—Edward Jackson, engineer, to the Pembroke, for service as instructor in working of machinery of torpedo boats.

MARBLE STATUE OF THE LATE MR. THOMAS ORMISTON, M.I.C.E., C.I.E.—Mr. John Mossman, R.S.A., our well-known local sculptor, has at present on view in his Mason-street premises a life-size statue in marble of the late Mr. Thomas Ormiston, civil engineer, who in his early professional career was a much-esteemed servant of the Clyde Trust, while in its later portion he was the chief resident engineer to the Bombay Port Trust. The statue is intended to perpetuate the memory of Mr. Ormiston in Bombay, and is to be regarded as a recognition of the eminent services which he rendered to the city and port of that name. The commission to Mr. Mossman was backed by a subscription entered into to defray the whole of the expenses by merchants and other citizens of Bombay, and it is expected that it will eventually find a resting-place in the Bombay Town-hall. Since the statue was finished it has been viewed by a number of persons in this city who knew the deceased when he resided in our midst, and the opinion which they have universally expressed in regard to it is that Mr. Mossman has reproduced the lineaments of his subject in a most faithful manner, while he has also impressed upon it a highly artistic feeling. Referring briefly to the career of Mr. Ormiston, we may mention that he served under the late Mr. John F. Ure, who was for a long time the engineer to the Clyde Trust. He was subsequently engaged under the late Mr. James Walker, F.R.S., President of the Institute of Civil Engineers, in the construction of various lighthouses and dockworks, chiefly in England. His most important work, however, which was also his last, was the designing and construction of the great dockworks at Bombay, which were commenced by the Elphinstone Land and Press Company, whose interests were in course of time taken up by the newly-constituted body, the Bombay Port Trust. The works in question have as their chief feature the Prince's Dock, the foundation-stone of which was laid by the Prince of Wales on the occasion of his memorable visit to India, when he was made Companion of the Indian Empire (C.I.E.) This dock, the first wet dock of any extent in India, has 30 acres of water space, and a depth of 28ft. of water on the sills at ordinary spring tides. Alike as to the length and substantial character of the dock walls, the extent of its sheds and warehouses, its equipment of hydraulic machinery, forty-three portable cranes, and one crane capable of lifting 100 tons, the Prince's Dock, Bombay, is really a great engineering work; and we can well conceive that the merchants and other citizens may desire to perpetuate the memory of the eminent engineer whose name will for ever be associated with it. Mr. Ormiston died in the year 1882, when he had almost completed the fifty-sixth year of his age. We understand that Mr. Mossman will be glad to show the statue to any former friends and acquaintances of Mr. Ormiston who may call at his premises within the next week or two.—*Glasgow Herald*.

THE COMPETITIVE TURRET TRIAL AT BUCHAREST.

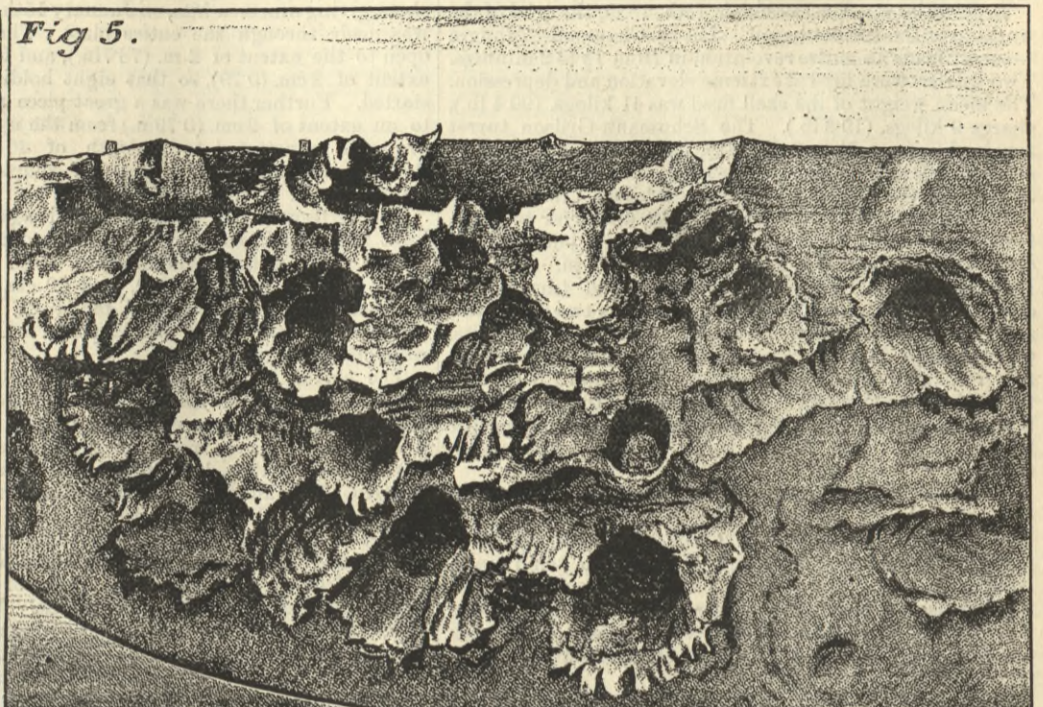
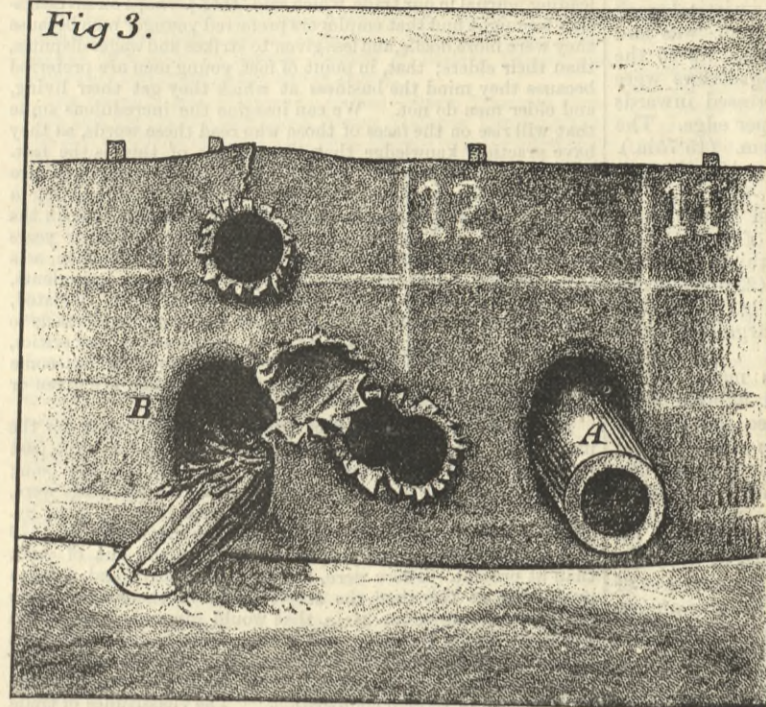
BEFORE dealing with the actual competitive trial of the rival turrets or cupolas at Bucharest, which is the object of this article, it may be well to give a short introductory explanation, and to describe briefly the structures which formed the subject of the trial, using the illustrations and facts given in M. Claude Manceau's interesting paper in *Le Genie Civil*.

Bucharest being a strategic point of the highest importance, it was determined to fortify it in the most formidable manner possible, and to this end it is now necessary to employ iron forts even for land defences. Earth is by no

break it up, wrought iron being the softest kind of armour known. Partial penetration then has little or no effect, for the resisting power of a shield is but little diminished by having a number of holes extending partly through and plugged up very likely by the heads of the shot that made them. It was considered that it was but seldom that a larger gun than a 6in. piece would be employed in siege batteries; consequently it would follow that wrought iron of no extravagant thickness ought to defy the attack of siege guns for an indefinite time, for it may be seen that a little over 14in. would, if properly constructed, keep out a single blow of the 15 cm. gun, and repetition adds very slowly to the effect on the shield. In the meantime, Gruson had greatly improved the resisting power of

(1) A tangent sight in the top of the cupola between the two guns viewed by putting the head through a manhole—shown at A in Figs. 8, 2, and 6. (2) A tube pierced in the roof of the cupola in the opposite direction to the ports—vide B in Figs. 2 and 6—by which the desired direction can be obtained while the ports are turned away from the enemy. (3) For short distances it is possible to lay the gun by looking through the bore. The *avant cuirass*, or glacis shield, is made of cast iron protected by a mass of cement—vide Fig. 8—covered further by sand.

Fig. 9 shows the French turret. It is made by the establishment of St. Chamond, on the design of Major Mougin. The general principle of the structure is apparent. The turret consists of a thick walled cylinder 4.8 metres



THE MOUGIN TURRET.

means discredited, but earthworks to be secure against assault require revetments, and much space is necessary to allow them to be of sufficient thickness to resist the fire of modern guns. It is necessary at salient points to use more compact defences; and with curved fire, and with the accuracy of modern guns, such defences would be liable to be destroyed if made of granite, and hence iron becomes a necessity. France adopted Gruson's chilled iron for inland forts as well as for coast works for a time,

his shield against steel projectiles by altering the profile and shape of the walls, as noted by us in the recent trials at Buckau. The design, however, for Bucharest is made on a plan of Major Schumann, of compound plates—that is, wrought iron with a steel face. The rival turrets may be briefly described as follows:—The Schumann-Gruson cupola is for two 15 cm. (5.9in.) guns. The form is shown in Fig. 8. It offers a very small mark to horizontal fire, but the diameter has to be large, the interior

(15ft. 9in.) diameter, of three layers of wrought iron 45 cm. (17.7in.) thick in all. It is made additionally strong by deep plates beneath the cheeks of the carriage, which are brought down to a centre piston A on which the whole turret revolves. There are rollers under the iron framework beneath the armour wall, but this part is made separate from the wall in order to keep it from dislocation caused by the bending of the latter under impact of shot.

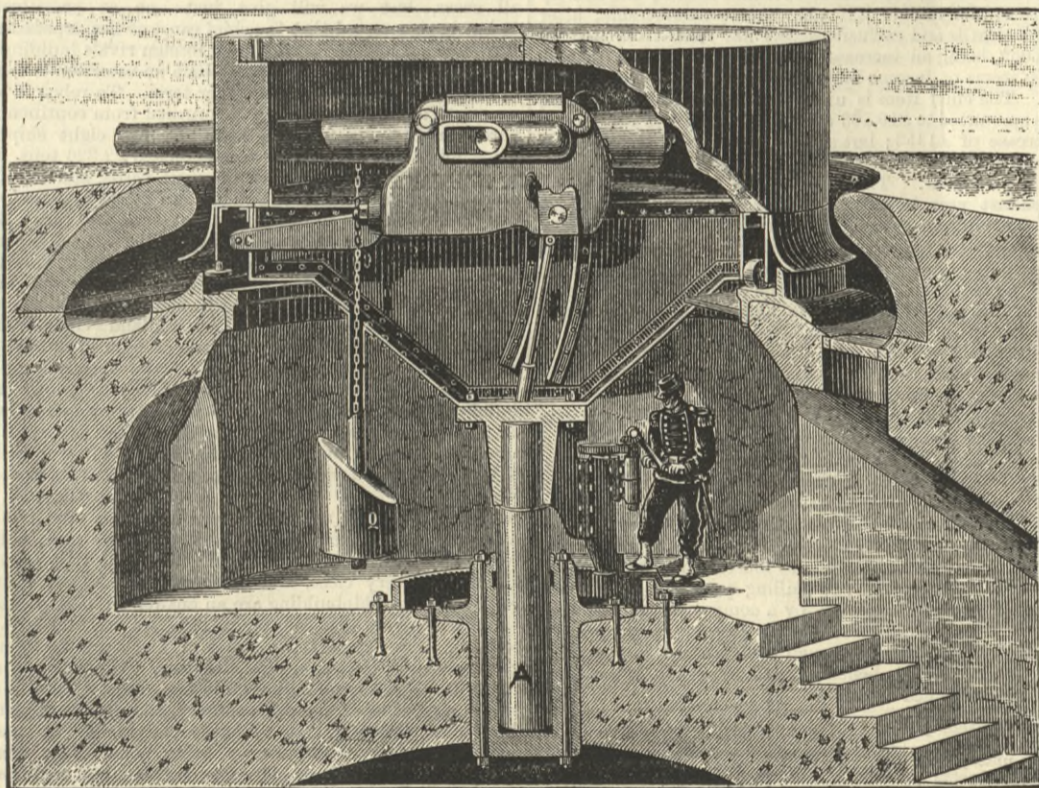


FIG 9. WROUGHT IRON TURRET DESIGNED BY MAJOR MOUGIN CONSTRUCTED AT SAINT CHAMOND

but in 1882 it was concluded in France that the effect of steel projectiles against these shields, especially the effect of forged steel projectiles, was so great that it was better to limit the use of Gruson's cupolas and forts to coast defence, where they would not be exposed to a systematic breaching attack. M. Manceau gives us an illustration of a Gruson's cupola demolished by the attack of a 32 cm. gun (12.6in.) We give this sketch—Fig. 7—as characteristic of the final destruction of a shield of hard armour. It exemplifies General Inglis' idea of the distribution of overpowering blows performing wholesale shattering, but we need to know the details of dimensions and the striking energy of the projectile before we can judge of the power of resistance of the shield. In France it was concluded that Schneider's steel had beaten the English steel-faced plates, and yet Schneider's steel was thought to be better suited to the requirements of ships than forts. Steel is liable to fracture, but fracture on a ship's side may be the best form the injury can take, for extended fracture represents the stoppage of a very powerful shot, and it is hardly likely that a second blow will fall on the same plate. To resist continuous breaching wrought iron was thought to be best, simply because it is very difficult to

diameter being 6 metres, or 19.7ft., and it is the more open to attack by high angle fire. It is intended to resist the fire of the 27 cm. (10.3in.) mortar. The dome curve has a radius of 5 metres (16.4ft.) and it is 20 cm. (7.87in.) thick. It rests on a pivot and runs on rollers round under the circumference on a circle—r in figure. The port, passing through a very oblique wall, is, consequently, very oval, and the curve is modified and the gun is fitted with a spherical collar. The port plate is of wrought iron. The gun pivots in the vertical plane about the spherical collar. To accomplish this its breech is made to move in arc-shaped guides—h in Fig. 8. Counterweights are used—Z in Fig. 8—to balance the gun, which is thus hung and clamped at any required elevation. As its recoil is checked the shock of discharge is transmitted into the turret, and as each gun is a short distance on one side of the axis of the turret, a couple is formed by which the turret is caused to revolve slightly by the shock of discharge of either piece. A gun can be taken out in thirty minutes and put back again in forty-five minutes. The cupola performs an entire revolution in thirty seconds. Elevation is given to the gun by means of an endless screw. Three means are provided for laying the pieces:—

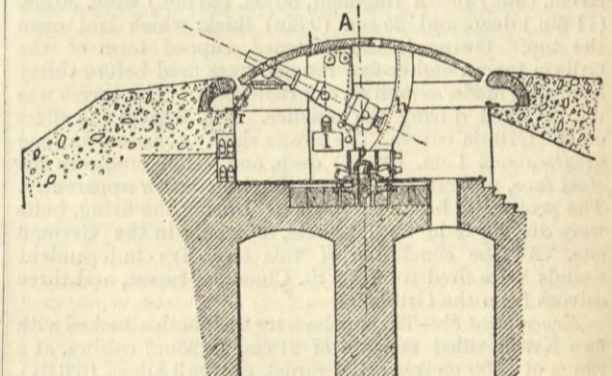


FIG 8. SCHUMANN GRUSON CUPOLA

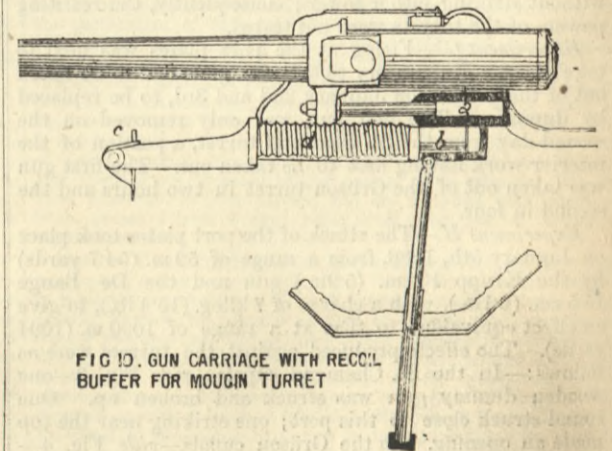


FIG 10. GUN CARRIAGE WITH RECOIL BUFFER FOR MOUGIN TURRET

The turret is moved by very simple hydraulic machinery worked by a man placed beneath, as shown in Fig. 9. The wall of the turret stands about a metre (39.37in.) above the glacis, which offers a much greater mark for horizontal



FIG 7. EARLIER PATTERN OF CHILLED IRON CUPOLA IN FINAL CONDITION OF DESTRUCTION

fire than the Schumann-Gruson curved dome. On the other hand, more interior space is given in proportion to the diameter, and the ports passing directly through the vertical wall weaken the plates less than if the direction were oblique.

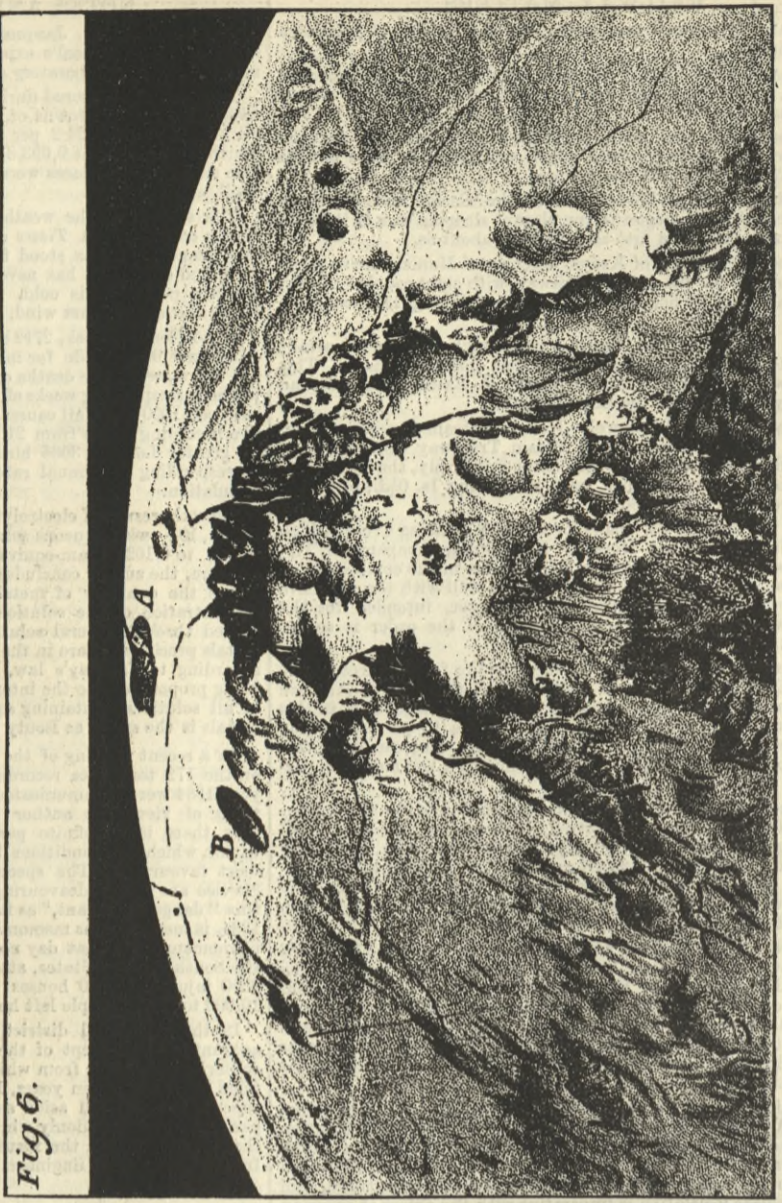
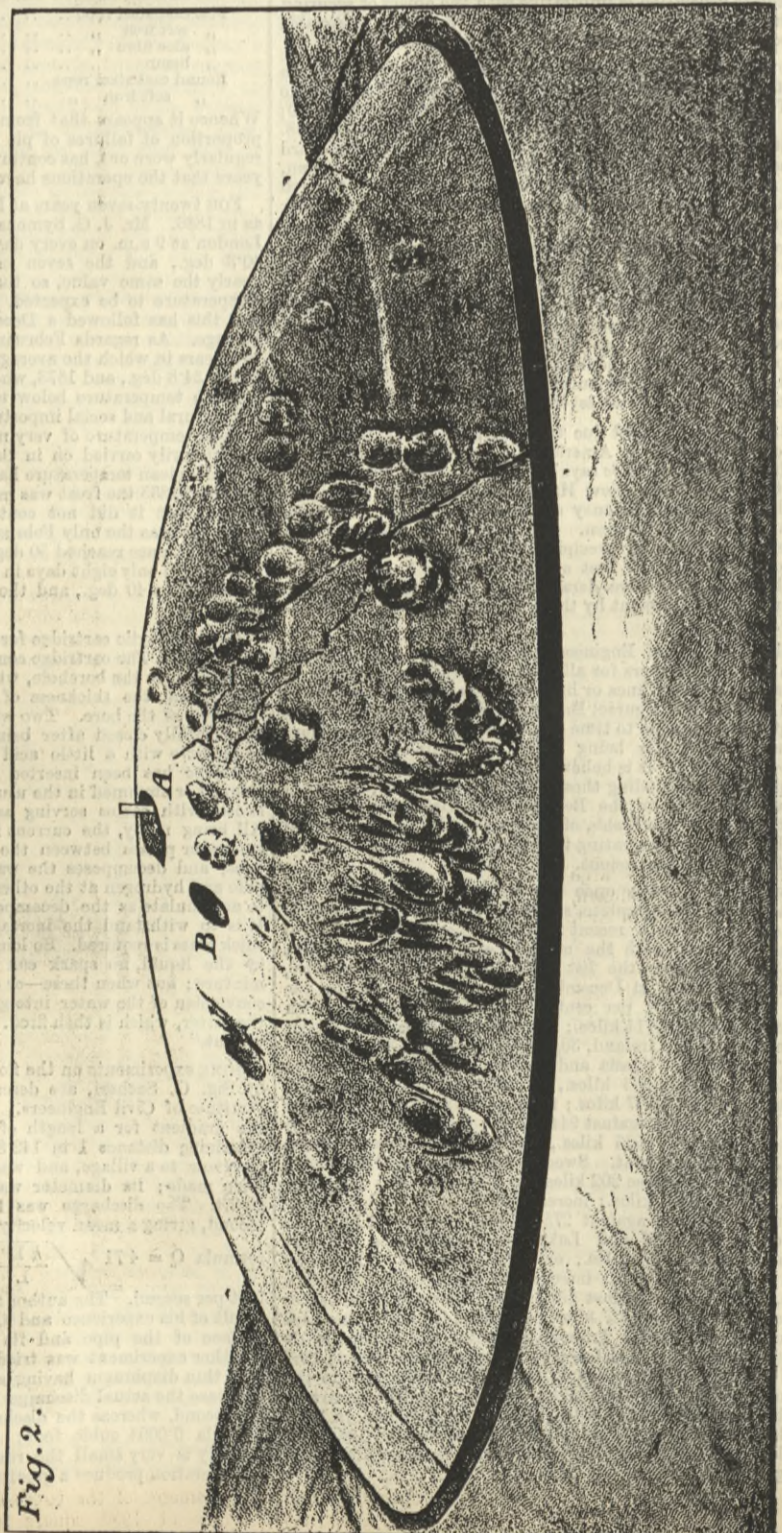
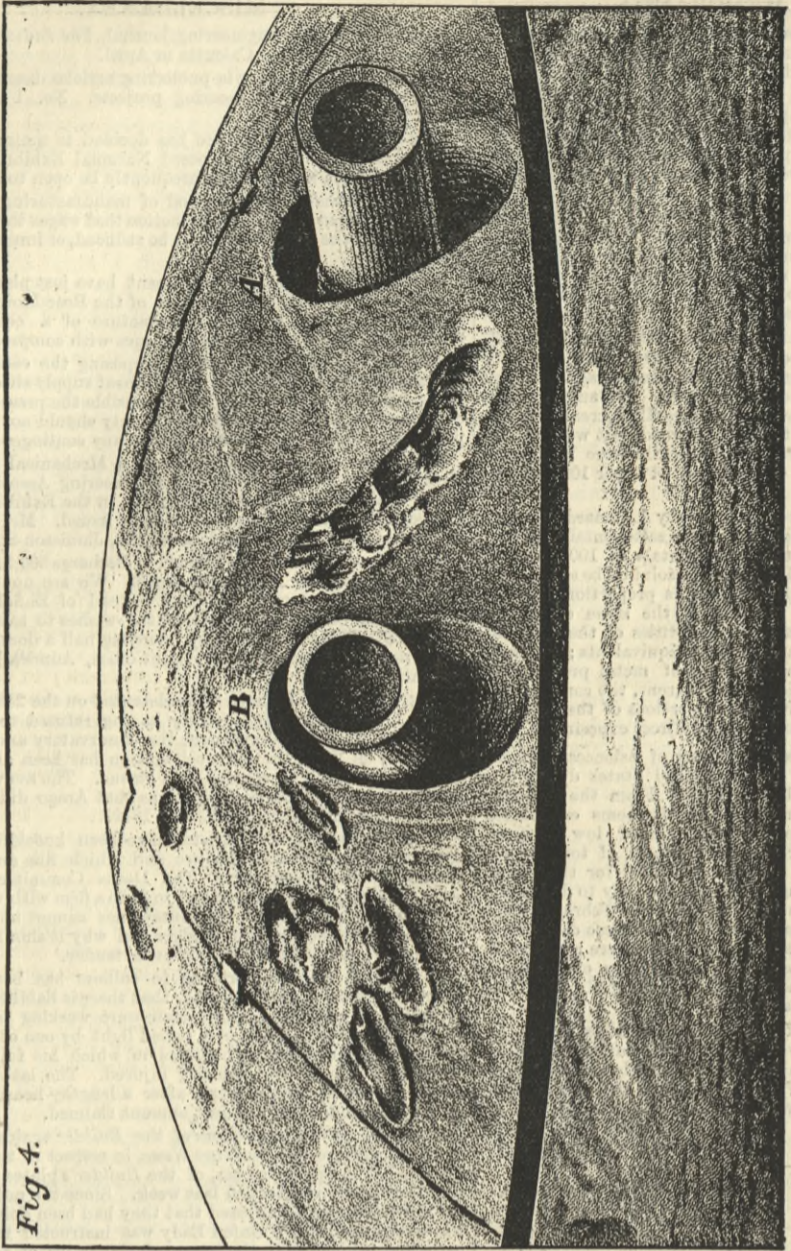
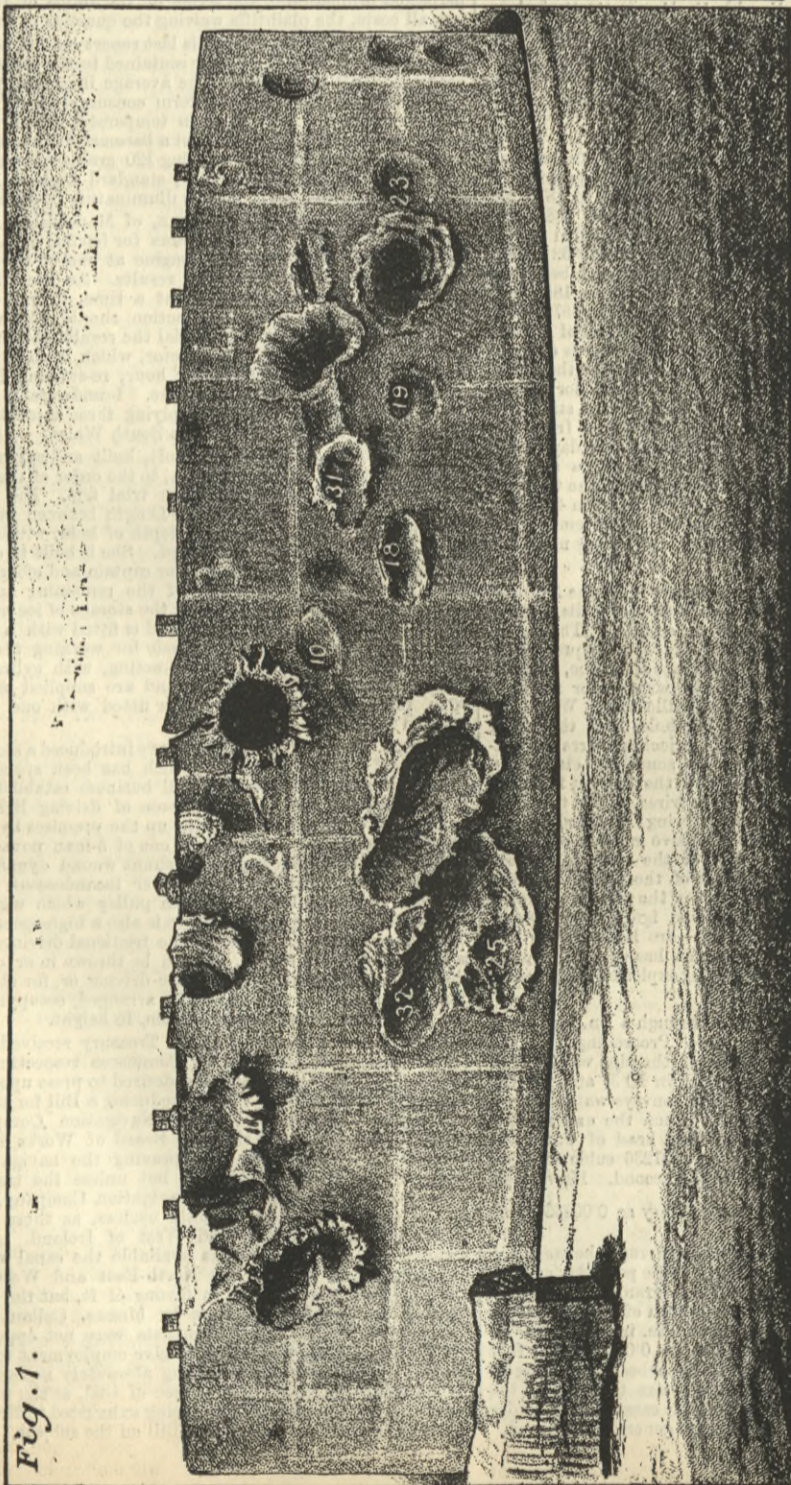
In order to save the turret from the shock that would





THE MOUGIN AND GRUSEN TURRETS AT BUCHAREST.

(For description see page 185.)





COMPOUND ENGINE OF THE S.S. PROMETHEUS.

MESSRS. R. STEPHENSON AND CO., NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE, ENGINEERS.

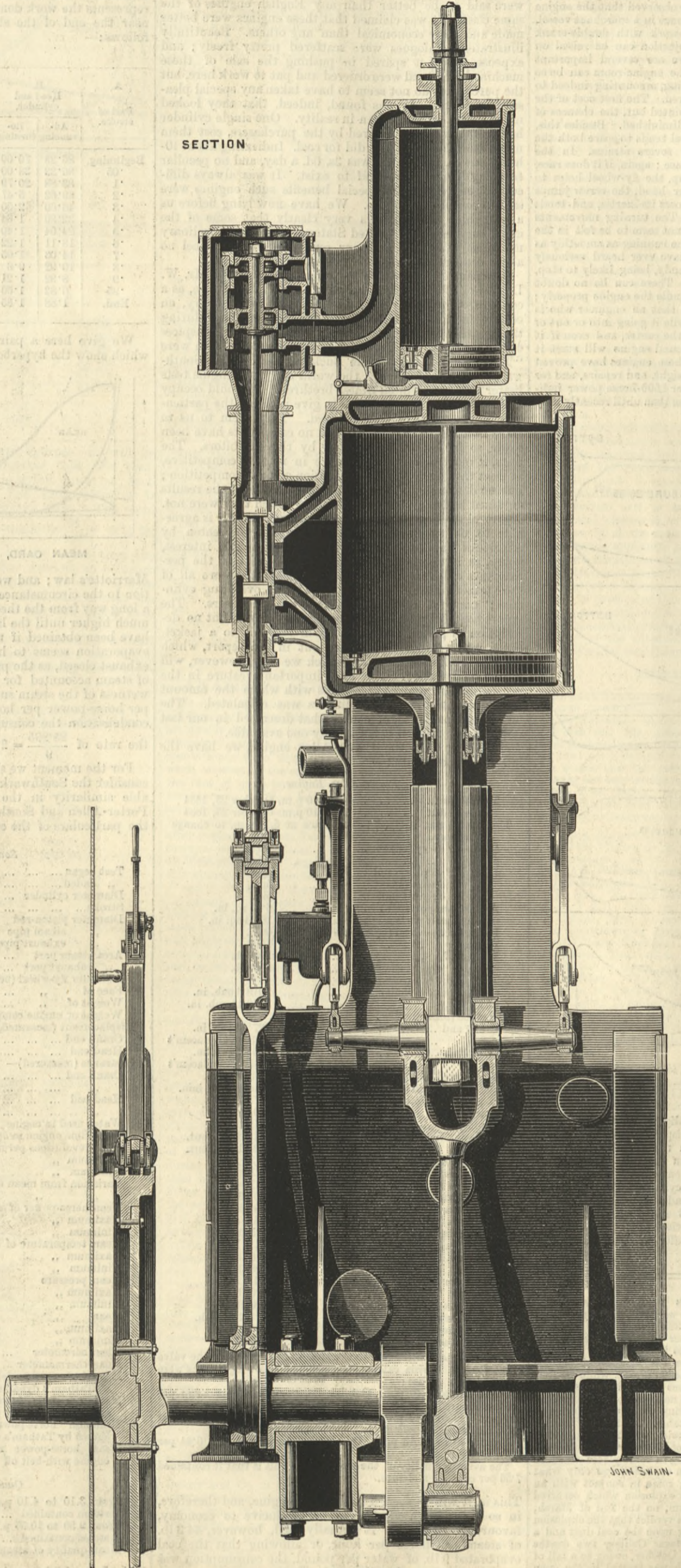
COMPOUND ENGINE OF THE S.S. PROMETHEUS.

We give this week engravings of the engines and boilers of the s.s. Palamid, Prometheus, Palinurus, and Dardanus. These vessels built by Messrs. Leslie and Co., of Hebburn, to the order of the "Ocean Steamship Company," of Liverpool, are of the following dimensions, viz.:—Length between perpendiculars, 320ft.; beam moulded, 36ft. 4in.; depth moulded, 27ft. 9in., and will carry about 3000 tons on a mean draft of 23ft. The engines, built by Messrs. Robert Stephenson and Co., of Newcastle, are of the compound surface condensing Holt's tandem design, having cylinders 27in. and 58in. diameter, with a stroke of 5ft., the high-pressure cylinder being placed immediately over and concentric with the low-pressure cylinder.

The high-pressure piston rod is attached to an overhead crosshead, from which side rods come down outside of the high-pressure cylinder, and passing through glands in the low-pressure cover are attached to the low-pressure piston. This arrangement obviates the necessity of having glands to pack between the two cylinders and consequently considerably reduces the height from bed-plate to top of cylinder. The low-pressure piston rod is fitted with a wrought iron crosshead and cast iron adjustable shoes as shown, and through its connecting rod transmits the power of the two cylinders to the crank pin. All the piston rods and the slide spindles are of steel. The low-pressure slide valve is of the ordinary type, the high-pressure cylinder having a piston valve fitted with Buckley's patent springs and rings; both valves are worked by the same pair of excentric rods, and the usual Stephenson's link motion. The reversing is effected by a steam cylinder controlled by an oil cataract fitted to the back of the column as shown.

A special feature of these engines is the crank shaft, which is of the "overhung pin" description. The shaft itself is of Vickers' steel, 14in. diameter, having the excentric sheaves forged on solid immediately behind the thrust collar. The crank cheek is of wrought iron, contracted and keyed on the shaft and fitted with a crank pin also of Vickers' steel contracted in and further secured by a strong steel key as shown. It is anticipated that by the adoption of this form of overhung crank, the many vexatious and costly breakages of crank shafts will be very much minimised, and the delays and dangers occasioned thereby correspondingly reduced. The engines are fitted with a 5 ton fly-wheel of somewhat novel construction; the heavy outside rim is of cast iron suitably bored and faced to receive the centre, which consists of one large steel plate 8ft. 4in. diameter by 2in. thick. This plate is turned and faced up and bolted to the inside of the wheel rim, and secured between the two large couplings of the shafts as shown, by tight fitting taper bolts, each shaft coupling having spigots which meet in the centre of the plate. This wheel, besides being an excellent governor to the engines, is used for turning and overhauling the engines when cold by means of a steam cylinder and oil cataract attached to the bulkhead just over the fly-wheel.

The piston rod of this heaving round engine is square in section at the centre, and slotted through to receive strong steel pawls, which gear into suitable teeth cast in the rim of the fly-wheel for go-ahead or go-astern motion as required. The screw shafting is of wrought iron cased with brass where working in lignum vitae bearings in the stern tube, and fitted with a four-bladed right-handed screw propeller of cast iron, 15ft. 9in. diameter, and 20ft. 6in. mean pitch. The condenser is of the usual form, of cast iron, fitted with brass tube plates and



three boxes, through each of which the water must pass, thus coming thrice in contact with the steam before being delivered overboard. The water is forced through the tubes by one double-acting circulating pump, 13½in. diameter by 22½in. stroke, attached to the back of the condenser, and so arranged that all or any of the valves may be examined or overhauled without interfering with each other, or with any other part of the machinery. The air-pump is of the usual single-acting description, 18in. diameter by 22½in. stroke. The feed and bilge pumps are placed in line on the back of the condenser, the feed pumps above and the bilge pump below the pump crosshead, the top part of the condenser being utilised as a hot-well into which the air pump delivery is conducted, and from whence the feed pump draws for the boiler. The feed and bilge pumps are each 5½in. diameter by 22½in. stroke, their valves also being arranged for instant and easy access. A single-acting plunger pump for supplying water to the fresh-water condenser is fitted to the after side of the condenser column and worked from the air pump lever as shown.

A double-acting donkey pump for feed and deck-washing purposes is attached to the forward side of the column and also fitted with connections for delivery through the condenser in case of necessity. The starboard column besides carrying the reversing engine and gear, is further utilised as an oil tank. At the level of the starting platform a 6in. Gwynne engine is fixed, and connected to draw from the bilges, and deliver overboard, being supplied with steam from either the main or donkey boilers, so as to be available in case of emergency; supposing the pumps on the lower platform should be disabled or drowned out, this engine gives great additional security to life and ship.

Steam is supplied by one double-ended steel boiler 16ft. diameter by 24ft. long, working at 80 lb. pressure per square inch, fitted with six Fox's corrugated steel furnaces. These furnaces, three at each end, lead into a central combustion chamber, thence by return tubes to the smoke-box and chimney. The shell of the boiler is butt-jointed, with double butt straps, double rivetted in the longitudinal seams, and lap jointed and double rivetted in the circumferential seams. The holes are all drilled, then properly rimed in place after the plates are fitted together.

The heating and grate surface of the boiler is as follows:—Heating surface in tubes, 4in. outside diameter, 9ft. long, 4015 square feet; heating surface in furnaces, 420 square feet; heating surface in flues and tube plates, 580 square feet; total heating surface, 5015 square feet; total grate surface, 153 square feet. Chimney, 7ft. 6in. diameter by 65ft. high from the grate bars. The total weight of the boiler with water in and fittings complete, in working trim, is 157 tons. The engines in regular running develop on the average about 1350 indicated horse-power, with a very moderate consumption of fuel, and an average speed of about twelve knots an hour.

The engravings supplied give a very clear idea of the whole of the general arrangements, which, carried out under the supervision of Mr. S. W. Wiles, the superintendent engineer for the Ocean Steamship Company, are of the most complete and satisfactory description, both as regards efficiency and safety, and comfort to those in charge of the machinery.

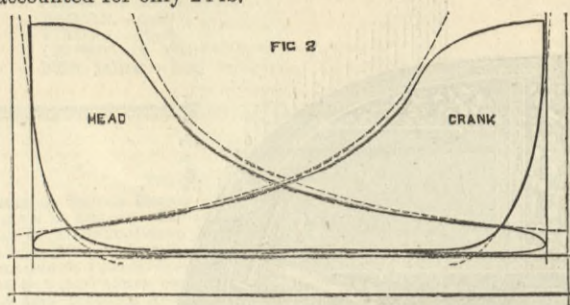
The single type of marine engine has long been a speciality with Mr. Holt. Years ago we illustrated the engines of the s.s. Teniers. That which we now illustrate here and on pp. 190, 194 is the latest development of the design, and was in its main features described by Mr. F. C. Marshall in his celebrated paper

the diameter of the tubes is 1in. outside, with a total cooling surface of 1925 square feet. The tubes are divided into

is the latest development of the design, and was in its main features described by Mr. F. C. Marshall in his celebrated paper



steam per horse-power per hour, of which the indicator accounted for only 24 lb.



MEAN CARD, SOUTHWARK ENGINE.

TABLE II.

Table with 4 columns (A, B, C, D) and 12 rows (Beginning to End) showing steam consumption and pressure data for the Southwark engine.

The table above gives complete figures. It will be seen from the accompanying diagram that the compression is very great. The vertical lines at each end denote clearance spaces. The back pressure is far above that proper to Mariotte's law. The consumption of fuel in this engine would be 46/9 = 5.11 lb.

per horse per hour; so that it is a little worse than the Porter-Allen engine. We beg our readers to compare the diagrams from these two engines. It will be seen that they closely resemble each other, except that the exhaust closes a little sooner in the Southwark engine than in the Porter-Allen engine.

We now return to the Buckeye engine, which is dealt with second in the report. Its performance was much better than that of the others. The following table gives the particulars:-

Buckeye Engine.

Table listing various specifications for the Buckeye engine, including test dates, dimensions, weights, and performance metrics like displacement and horse-power.

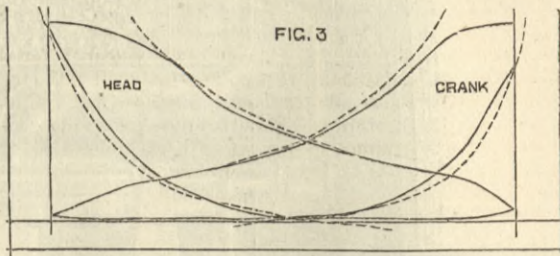
TABLE III.

Table with 4 columns (A, B, C, D) and 12 rows (Beginning to End) showing steam consumption and pressure data for the Buckeye engine.

This engine is nearly the same size as the Porter-Allen. Its speed a little slower; its power a little less. The total amount of water used was 30.93 lb. per horse per hour, of which the indicator accounted for 20 lb. The consumption of fuel would be at the rate of 31/9 = 3.44 lb. per horse-power per hour; so that it is a very much more

economical engine than either of the others. To what is this due?

The preceding table gives the precise figures. So far as we know there is nothing about the construction of the engine to make it more economical. We are compelled therefore to turn to the diagrams for a clue. We give the diagrams here cut. It will be seen that they are very different from the others. At the crank end the expansion curve is very nearly the theoretical; at the other end it falls below it. The amount of compression is very much



MEAN CARD, BUCKEY ENGINE.

less than in either of the other engines, and the curve is identical, or nearly so, with the theoretical. The ratio of expansion is about 5. In the Allen engine it is about the same, but the action of the cut-off valve is less perfect. It is difficult to say what it is in the Southwark engine, but apparently it is about 7. Now, it is known that the best point of cut-off for a non-condensing engine working with about 100 lb. pressure lies between one-fourth and one-seventh, and it is hard to say that the superior economy of the Buckeye engine is due to a greater admission. The clearance is very much less in the Buckeye than in the others. The difference in economy of this engine is by no means small, and, as we have said, it is highly desirable that some explanation should be given of the cause of it. The whole set of experiments is extremely interesting, and very little more is needed to make it eminently instructive as well.

As to regularity of speed, very elaborate measures were taken to record minute variations. The Porter-Allen engine was fitted with Porter's high-speed governor. The maximum error was 3.69 per cent. The Buckeye engine had a governor in the fly-wheel, or rather on the crank shaft. Its maximum error was 5.56 per cent.—a bad performance. The Southwark engine also has a governor on the crank shaft. Its maximum error was 2.90, by far the best performance of the three.

AWARDS TO ARTISANS FOR INVENTIONS.

To encourage the exercise of the inventive faculty amongst workmen, and to give them a share in the benefits resulting, schemes are now in operation in several shipyards and engineering works whereby inventions of new machines, or appliances or improvements made upon those existing, or upon existing methods of work, are met by the employers with awards in money; or, in the case of important ideas, with monetary and professional assistance in securing letters patent. The first scheme of this sort, it will be remembered, was instituted by Messrs. Denny Bros., shipbuilders, of Dumbarton, in 1880, and was shortly after copied by Messrs. Denny and Co., engineers, of the same town, as well as by Messrs. Edward Withy and Co., shipbuilders, of West Hartlepool. Amongst others who have since adopted this system of awards for invention we may mention Messrs. J. and G. Thompson, the eminent shipbuilders and engineers of Clydebank, and Messrs. the Carron Ironworks Company, of Falkirk; while, as the result of a tentative application of the same principle, Mr. J. Harrison Carter, the well-known flour mill engineer, of Mark-lane, London, has paid one or two large sums to foremen who have invented automatic arrangements of such merit that they have since been patented, and steps are being taken to formulate a more detailed scheme having more special application to milling mechanics.

The committee acting in connection with Messrs. Denny and Bros.' scheme, also that in connection with Messrs. Denny and Co.'s, have recently issued their annual reports. The former report that 134 claims have been considered during the year, 107 of which were new claims, and twenty-seven were carried forward from last year. Of the total number, fifty-seven have been found worthy of award, fifty-eight have been rejected, four withdrawn, and fifteen deferred for further consideration. The expenditure on behalf of the scheme for the year amounts to £289, being £9 more than last year. Of this sum £209 was paid in the form of ordinary awards, and £80 in four premiums of £20 each. The ratio of the number of successful claims, during the past year, to the number of decisions, is higher than in the previous year, being .42 in 1884 and .49 in 1885. From the results of an investigation made into the working of the scheme from its commencement, the committee state that 97.7 per cent. of the total awards made were for claims which have proved practically successful.

The rules, as recently revised, for Messrs. Denny and Bros.' scheme, show that the minimum award is £2 and the maximum £15. The regulations as to the granting of premiums bear that "whenever any workman has received as many as five awards from the committee, reckoning from the time the scheme came into force, he shall be paid a premium equivalent to the total amount of money paid to him for these five awards; for every succeeding five awards which he may earn he shall be paid a similar sum, but with the addition of £5 in the case of the second set of awards, of £10 in the case of the third set of awards, and so on by sets of five."

The committee, in concluding their report, refer to the continued success of the scheme, and express themselves confident that from the beneficial changes in the rules, and from a continuance of the same hearty interest and appreciation on the part of the workmen, the results in the future will be equally satisfactory and encouraging.

The report of the committee acting on behalf of Messrs. Denny and Co. is couched in a like encouraging strain. The scheme in this case is almost similar although quite distinct from Messrs. Denny Bros.' The report states that thirty-five claims have been considered during the year. Of this number ten have been successful, eighteen unsuccessful, one withdrawn, and five postponed for further consideration. Three claimants received awards above the minimum, one of whom received the maximum award of £12. This claim, the committee state, deserved the maximum award most highly, the subject of it being the modification of an

hydraulic rivetting machine, to do a large quantity of work hitherto done by hand labour. They add, with regard to the other claims for which awards were given, that so far as yet ascertained they are nearly all proving practically useful.

As indicating the nature of some of the inventions and improvements for which awards have been given during the past year, the following may be extracted from the reports of both schemes, which have been freely circulated amongst all who took part in the year's work. From Messrs. Denny and Co.'s report: "For an improved hand-boring machine for boring holes inside of pump chambers, £3;" "for an improvement in tool used for facing cylinder chambers, £3;" "for a method of screwing threads of rods where gripped by machine by means of left-handed dies, £4;" "for a combined drill and cutter for boring and cutting holes in condenser flanges, £5;" "for fitting shear-blades to smaller hydraulic rivetting machine for paring front ends of furnaces, &c. &c., £12." From Messrs. Denny and Bros.' report: "For a new method of fitting upper cargo derricks to masts, £4;" "for an appliance for holding the ratchet when boring holes in the beams or ceilings of ships, £5;" "for a new method of pressing jalousie mouldings together while being glued, £7;" "for a new method of making bilge rose boxes, £4;" "for a new method of cutting the gutters in skylight bearers £5;" "for making alterations in Kirke's patent wood-boring machine, £5;" "for a new method of cramping ships' chains, £4."

By an arrangement made during 1884 with Messrs. Edward Withy and Co., shortly after they had adopted the scheme as in force at Messrs. Denny's, it was provided that if either firm desired to adopt any invention or improvement made in the yard of the other, they might do so by paying to the claimant a sum equal to that which had been awarded by the committee of the yard to which he belonged. The prospect was in this way opened up of claimants receiving a double award for inventions of merit; and in at least one instance this has been realised, Messrs. Denny having duplicated an award of £3 to one of Messrs. Withy's workmen for an improved sand-papering machine.

The results attending the institution of the awards scheme in other establishments besides those referred to above are not as yet fully reported; but it is understood the measure of success attained has more than justified its adoption. The benefits accruing both to employers and employed are not to be measured simply by the record of claims received and rewarded. The system acts as an incentive to successful and to non-successful claimants as well, to take a keen and intelligent interest in all the work that passes through their hands, or in the existing appliances and methods for doing that work, and to measure the success of their operations by other than a mere quantitative or £ s. d. standard. Not only so, but the widespread institution of schemes of this sort will be found to be a strong factor in promoting that cordiality and good-faith between employer and employed which all who have at heart the industrial and commercial prosperity of the nation desiderate. We hope to hear of the adoption of schemes of this nature throughout the industrial establishments of the whole kingdom.

SEWAGE POLLUTION.—IMPORTANT ACTION AGAINST THE MAGISTRATES OF GLASGOW.—An important action against the magistrates of Glasgow was before the Court of Session, Edinburgh, on the 26th ult. Mr. Robert Bruce claims £10,000 on the ground that his business as a papermaker has been ruined by the pollution of the river Kelvin, for which he holds the defenders responsible. He states that the pollution is caused by the discharge of the sewage not only of the riparian district, but of the populous districts of St. Rollox, Port Dundas, Springburn, and Cowcaddens. The defenders deny liability, and state that they took steps, by means of an intercepting sewer, to mitigate the alleged nuisance.

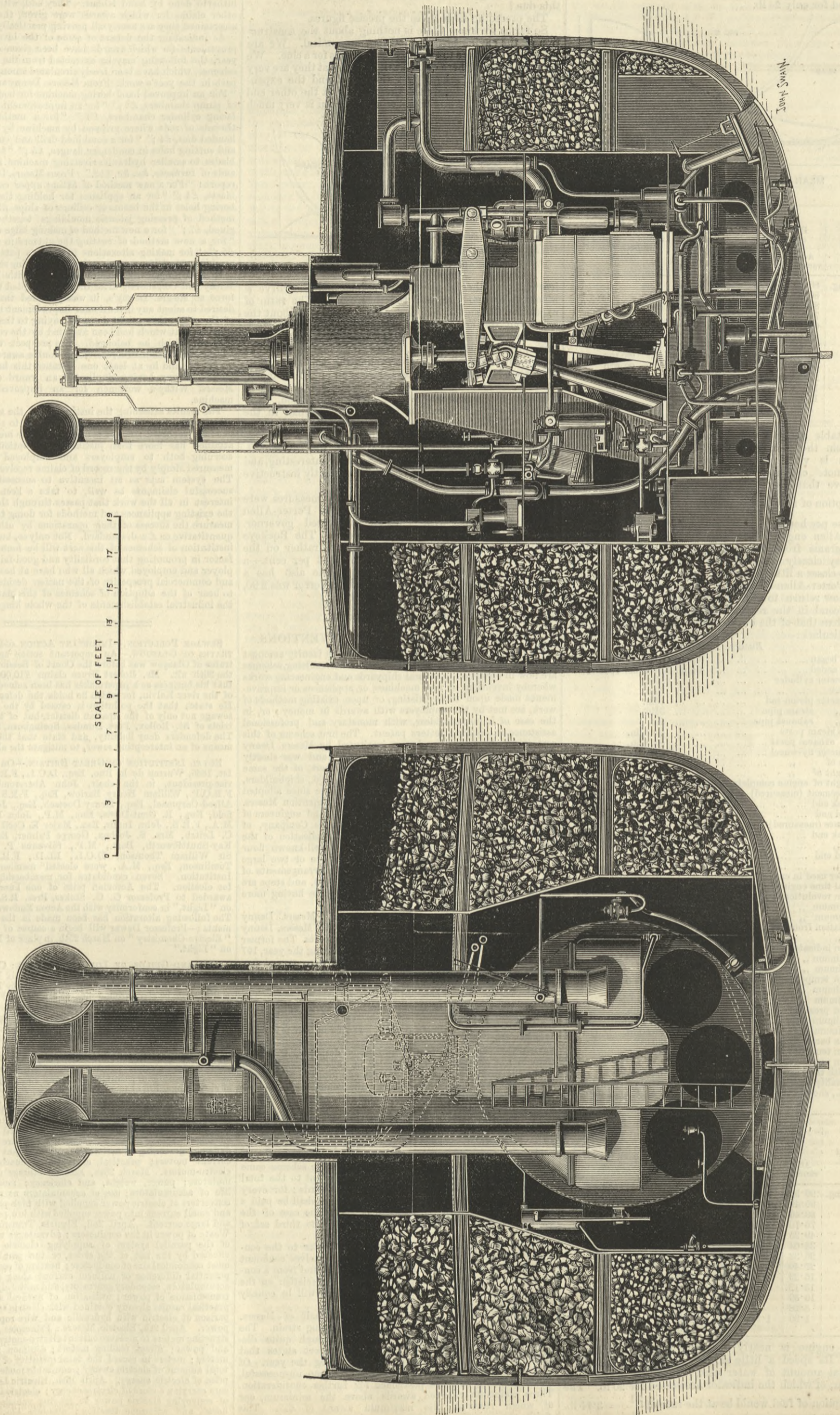
ROYAL INSTITUTION OF GREAT BRITAIN.—On Monday, March 1st, 1886, Warren de la Rue, Esq., D.C.L., F.R.S., manager and vice-president, in the chair, John Abercrombie, sen., M.D., F.R.C.P., William Henry Barlow, Esq., F.R.S., M. Inst. C.E., Alfred Carpmael, Esq., Henry Doetsch, Esq., John Piggin Fearfield, Esq., R. Gent-Davis, Esq., M.P., John Hopkinson, Esq., M.A., F.R.S., John Inglis, Esq., Major E. Cecil Johnson, Mrs. T. C. Leitch, Mrs. S. Joshua, George Palmer, Esq., Sir Ughtred Kay-Shuttleworth, Bart., M.P., Silvanus P. Thomson, Esq., Sir William Thomson, D.C.L., LL.D., F.R.S., and Walter Tomlinson, Esq., M.A., were elected members of the Royal Institution. Seven candidates for membership were proposed for election. The Actonian prize of one hundred guineas was awarded to Professor G. G. Stokes, Pres. R.S., for his lectures on "Light," in conformity with the Acton Endowment Trust Deed. The following alteration has been made in the lecture arrangements:—Professor Dewar will begin a course of four lectures on "Electro-Chemistry" on March 25th, in place of Professor Tyndall on "Light."

CITY AND GUILDS OF LONDON INSTITUTE: CENTRAL INSTITUTION, EXHIBITION-ROAD, S.W.—A course of six lectures on some of the industrial applications of electricity, by Professor Ayrton, F.R.S., will be given from 5 p.m. to 6 p.m., on Friday afternoons, March 12th, 19th, 26th, April 2nd, 9th, and 16th, of which the following is a syllabus:—March 12th, Electric Lighting: The lighting of houses, streets, trains, ships, lighthouses, and large areas with arc and incandescent lamps; cost of electric lighting compared with that of using gas or oil; construction and regulation of arc lamps; current, potential difference, electro-motive force, resistance, and electric power; mode of measuring electric power; cost of a watt hour; candle power and efficiency of lamps; mode of measuring; life of incandescent lamps; most economical potential difference to use with incandescent lamps. March 19th, Electricity as a Motive Power: Construction and action of an electro-motor; starting, stopping, and reversing; power and efficiency of a motor; mode of measuring; effect of the speed on the power and efficiency; action of an electro-motor compared with that of a dynamo; governing of motors to run at constant speeds; alternate current motors; practical examples of machinery driven by electro-motors. March 26th, Electric Storage of Energy: Accumulators; power, weight, and efficiency; mode of measuring; life of accumulators; use of accumulators as regulators; use as converters of electric power supplied with high potential difference and small current into power supplied with low potential difference and large current. April 2nd, Electric Transmission of Power: Waste of power in the conductors; advantages and disadvantages of the parallel system of supplying electric power; economy effected by the use of the series, or the parallel-series system; most economical size of conductors; heating of conductors; uniform potential difference or uniform current along the mains; use of accumulators, secondary generators, and motor-dynamos, in electric transmission of power; utilisation of natural sources of power; practical results already obtained with electric transmission; comparison of electric with hydraulic and wire-rope transmission of power. April 9th, Electric Meters: Principles employed in constructing meters to measure current electro-motive force, resistance, and power; direct reading meters; common faults in existing meters; meters to record the total quantity of electricity, or the total amount of electric energy; equitable modes of regulating the price of electric energy. April 16th, Electric Locomotion: Trams carrying a store of electric energy; electric launches; methods of conveying electric power to moving vehicles; electric, steam, horse, and wire-rope traction; absolute blocking with electric railways; telpherage; and probable future developments in the applications of electricity.

ENGINE AND BOILER OF THE S.S. PROMETHEUS.

MESSRS. R. STEPHENSON AND CO., NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE, ENGINEERS.

(For description see page 101.)



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SCALE OF FEET

JOSEPH SWAIN

FOREIGN AGENTS FOR THE SALE OF THE ENGINEER.

PARIS.—Madame BOYVEAU, Rue de la Banque.
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NEW YORK.—THE WILMER and ROGERS NEWS COMPANY, 31, Beekman-street.

CONTENTS.

Table listing contents of THE ENGINEER, March 5th, 1886. Includes sections like AMERICAN BRIDGE DESIGN, LABOUR IN EUROPE, FALL OF ELECTRO-MOTIVE FORCE, etc.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

Registered Telegraphic Address—"ENGINEER NEWSPAPER, LONDON."

Letters to the Editor regarding technical questions, such as 'All letters intended for insertion in THE ENGINEER...', 'We cannot undertake to return drawings...', 'In order to avoid trouble and confusion...'

WIRE WEAVING MACHINERY.

SIR.—Can any of your readers inform me who are the makers of wire weaving machinery? G. P. London, March 2nd.

MOULDERS' BLACKING.

SIR.—Will some of your readers kindly tell me through your paper where moulders' blacking can be obtained that will do for heavy or light castings, and which will not run before the metal, swim or burn, and give the castings a skin of good colour, and cause them to be easily fettled? Alfreton, February 25th. IRONFOUNDER.

SUBSCRIPTIONS.

THE ENGINEER can be had, by order, from any newsagent in town or country at the various railway stations: or it can, if preferred, be supplied direct from the office on the following terms (paid in advance):— Half-yearly (including double numbers)... £0 14s. 6d.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

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order in payment. Alternate advertisements will be inserted with all practical regularity, but regularity cannot be guaranteed in any such case. All except weekly advertisements are taken subject to this condition. Advertisements cannot be inserted unless delivered before six o'clock on Thursday evening in each week.

MEETINGS NEXT WEEK.

THE INSTITUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS, 25, Great George-street, Westminster, S.W.—Tuesday, March 9th, at 8 p.m.: Ordinary meeting. Paper to be read with a view to discussion. "On the Explosion of Homogeneous Gaseous Mixtures," by Mr. Dugald Clerk, F.C.S. Friday, March 12th, at 7.30 p.m.: Students' meeting. Paper to be read, "The Process of Coining Gold, as carried on at the Melbourne Branch of Her Majesty's Mint," by Mr. V. W. Delves-Broughton, Stud. Inst. C.E. Mr. Joseph Newton, Assoc. M. Inst. C.E., in the chair.

DEATH.

On the 14th Jan., at Rio, Brazil, aged 41, CHAS. WM. CHALMERS, C.E., eldest son of the late Chas. Boorn-Chalmers, of Cults, County Aberdeen, and grandson of Sir Chas. Wm. Chalmers, Bart. (N.S.), of Appledore, Devon, Captain R.N. Canadian papers, please copy.

THE ENGINEER.

MARCH 5, 1886.

WORK AND WAGES.

In another page will be found a summary of the sixty-first annual report of the Steam Engine Makers' Society. It will be seen that the friendly work of this Society has been done efficiently and in a very satisfactory way. The members of the body appear to work harmoniously together; and we search in vain for evidence that they are handled like puppets by their leaders.

Mr. Swift very naturally deprecates proposals that wages should be reduced, and he has some very pertinent arguments to adduce on his side—arguments which we do not think employers ought to dismiss without careful consideration. "It is," writes Mr. Swift, "the old story; numbers are out of employ, and capital at once asserts it is labour that has brought about the depression, and the only remedy is to reduce wages and increase the hours of work. The remedy for depressed trade is proclaimed in this strain in all the capitalist's organs; yet no improvement is perceptible after the operative has been starved into subjection, as trade keeps in its normal condition, no matter how cheap the production may be."

working to the best advantage in other respects. The inquiry should begin at home. Does the master employ himself to the best advantage? We met with one case some years ago, where the master, himself a good engineer, spent almost his whole time in looking for orders, which were carried out by the foreman, who played the part of works' manager when the master was away—that is to say, about four days a week. The result was quite unsatisfactory, and a very small profit was realised instead of a large one. The establishment was not gigantic. It gave employment to fifty or sixty hands, and work in great variety was carried out, from casting cog wheels for roll trains to putting new fire-boxes in portable engines. The work cost a great deal more than it ought to cost, discipline was lax, and there was neither system nor method. The master would have been worth £1000 a year in his shops as a manager; he was not worth £150 a year as a traveller. In another instance there were three partners. Two remained at home, the other travelled. Unfortunately the two first were totally devoid of the commercial element, and spent so much time and money in scheming and altering patterns, and introducing petty so-called improvements, that in a couple of years they lost a good business and all their capital. We could multiply examples of this kind, were it necessary. We have no doubt whatever that the administration, so to speak, of works in this country is not what it should be, and what it must become if profits are to be made at future prices. There are notable exceptions to this statement; shops where the management is as nearly as possible perfect, and others where it is simply marvellous that any money at all is earned. The average struck between these two is too low. We do not say that matters are always pushed to such extremes as those we have named; but we do say that able shop managers do very often waste their skill and their energies abroad, in hunting up and dealing with foreign contracts, when they ought to stop at home; or in trying to recover debts due in France, Germany, or Italy, while three times as much is lost at home in their absence. Again, how many employers seriously consider the host of sundry expenses which run away with profits, and do little or nothing to help on business? How much is spent on clerks and agents which need not be spent? How much on foreign agencies, printing, stationery, and branch establishments got up magnificently in sheer rivalry of others? These things, are, however, but as a drop in the ocean, compared with the waste of time and money incurred in making engines and machinery designed on wrong principles and manufactured in the wrong way. If we take up any list of tenders we shall find an astonishing difference between the highest and lowest. The man who has sent in the highest is certain to say, "Well, how on earth A is to get a profit out of that job, I do not know"—and he does not know. This is the key to the whole position. In well-managed works a profit can be got which is quite impossible in badly-managed establishments, and even first-rate management may cost too much. As soon as it can be shown that in well-conducted shops a profit cannot be made, then wages must come down. Mr. Swift and the Engine Makers' Society have good grounds for complaint if wages are reduced to compensate for errors in management and absence of business aptitude. If twice as much money is spent on patterns, for example, as need be spent, it is hard that the pattern-makers should be made to pay the difference. We think that all dispassionate men will agree with us thus far.

skill were apparent than now. There has been a gradual process of deterioration going on for years past, and the Unions have only themselves to thank. If a first-class man can earn no more than one utterly incompetent, who spends his time tramping from shop to shop, what is the good of being sober, steady, industrious, and skilful? The Unions—we do not address Mr. Swift in particular—should make it their special study to enlist none but good men. The fact that a man belongs at all to a Union ought to be a direct guarantee that he is steady and competent. With the picture of the Steam Engine Makers' Society, as set forth by Mr. Swift there is much reason to be satisfied. We know that its policy has been—and we have no doubt will be—an exception in many respects to that of other Trades Unions, but we should have been still better pleased had we discovered some evidence in Mr. Swift's report that the Executive Council appreciate the necessity for quality as well as quantity in the ranks of the Society.

Mr. Swift has a good deal to say on foreign competition, which we shall not consider now, we may return to it at another time.

#### THE LOADING OF SHIPS.

THE art of loading a merchant vessel so as to enable her to pursue her voyage with the least possible risk of straining or capsizing should, by this time, be well understood by the maritime population of these islands. The seamen of a country which for so long a period has claimed dominion of the seas, and which now conducts fully three-fifths of the world's carrying trade thereon, should, one would suppose, be taught all that it is necessary to know in order to load a ship safely and well. And yet, if we follow the proceedings of the Wreck Commissioners' Court, our confidence in the qualifications of those who make the loading of ships their business is sometimes very rudely shaken. Stevedores and shipmasters do, without doubt, to a large extent possess and act upon the surest of all possible sources of information—viz., experience; and in the great majority of cases their work is satisfactory. But now and again experience with them does not lead to correct results, simply because they have deduced erroneous inferences therefrom. In these cases it too often happens that no opportunity is afforded for a discovery of the error that has been made, and in consequence the mistake may be frequently repeated before it is exposed. Such as this is more likely to occur in these days of rapid change in the type, form, and proportions of ships than was at all probable years ago, when very few types prevailed, and those which existed were well understood. New departures in naval design are continually being taken at the instance of both shipowners and shipbuilders; and each of these innovations must needs be studied by those who have to handle them before their knowledge of the latter can be trustworthy. But the period of experimental study must inevitably be one of risk; for it is only by failures, or tendencies to failure, that the school of experience teaches us anything at all worth knowing. Is it, then, too much to suppose that much valuable property, with even more valuable lives, have been lost in the course of this tentative process of acquiring information regarding the proper loading of ships?

It is not creditable to us, as the first maritime nation of the world, that towards the close of this nineteenth century we should still tolerate rule-of-thumb procedure in regard to the production and control of our merchant shipping. Knowledge upon all such questions is at hand, but, unfortunately, it is possessed by but a few. Those who are acquainted with the first principles of physical science which relate to the strength and stability of ships are, it is to be feared, those who have the least to do with the practical operations in regard to the safety of vessels which are governed by those principles. The average stevedore's knowledge of naval science is immeasurably small, while his contempt of it is as immeasurably great. He professes to proceed upon considerations affecting the vessel's safety, while his chief regard is for the immobility and well-being of the cargo. It is true that the seaworthiness of the vessel is largely dependent upon both these conditions; but it is also dependent upon many others which are not so obvious to the uneducated mind. While it is most important that the cargo should not move, so as to give the vessel a permanent list, or even damage her structure, it is no less important that it shall not be stored so as to unduly strain her, or to render her stability unsatisfactory. With homogeneous cargoes, such as grain or sugar, the stevedore has no other duty than to pack closely and prevent movement; for as the ship will carry her full capacity, her stability and the strains upon the various parts of her structure are determined by her form and proportions, which are, of course, wholly beyond his control. It is when dead-weight cargoes, and those composed of materials having very various densities, are to go into a vessel that the skill of those superintending her lading is most severely taxed. In such a case the stevedore should know at what height the centre of gravity of the cargo ought to be, in order that the vessel may (1) be safe against capsizing, and (2) be not unduly stable. He ought further to know how the cargo should be arranged in the hold and 'tween decks, in order that its centre of gravity may be at the height required.

If we closely question this responsible official in regard to the principles upon which he proceeds, we shall generally find that, up to a certain point, they are sound, even though he may not be able to give a sound reason for them. But beyond this the basis of his procedure is too often very unstable. For instance, he will tell you that a certain ship stands up without ballast when discharged, even with every spar aloft, and therefore he keeps a dead-weight cargo as high as possible when loading her, because she shall not be too stiff. He tells you, very truly, that this vessel is well adapted for carrying a grain cargo. Of another ship, which requires a large quantity of ballast when her cargo is out, he will tell you that she is tender, and that he has not so much trouble in stowing her with a dead-weight cargo on that account. It will be observed that these are qualitative statements, and that is very often the full measure of information which can be obtained.

But of vessels which will shift without ballast there are all shades and degrees of stiffness, and of those which require ballast when their cargoes are out there are all shades and degrees of tenderness. To stow all stiff vessels of a certain size with the centres of gravity of their cargoes at the same height would obviously not give the same results at sea, unless they were all of the same stiffness. The popular criterion of a vessel's stability among seamen and stevedores is the relation of her breadth to her length. Because a vessel is broad, it is taken for granted that she must be stable, and in judging of her breadth the length is placed in comparison with it. It is surprising how widely this fallacy prevails. The ratio of breadth to depth is that which primarily governs the initial stability of a vessel, so far as her form and proportions are concerned; and adding to the length of the midship body of a ship increases her stability. So that, as will be seen from this, the popular conception is blind to the principles which really govern the whole matter, and falsely interprets others which are subordinate to them. Only a short time ago an intelligent stevedore—and, indeed, a superior man of his class—stated in evidence before the Wreck Commissioner, that by concentrating heavy weights, such as pig iron, at the centre line of the lower deck of a vessel she was made to roll slower and easier than if these weights were moved out on the same level towards the sides. Strange to say, even the Wreck Commissioner accepted the statement, and agreed with it. Now one would have thought no fact in naval science is more clearly established than that what is termed "winging the weights"—i.e., moving them out from the axis of rotation—tends to increase the period of rolling, and, therefore, having regard to the ordinary period of the waves, to diminish its amplitude.

While such erroneous notions as these prevail, not only among stevedores, but those who often have stevedores under examination, it cannot be a matter of surprise that accidents are very frequent through the improper stowage of ships. It is open to question whether overlading is a greater source of disaster than improper lading. Ships are often designed, or their dimensions are fixed, by men who are in no way competent to do so; and when built they are laden by other men who are as ignorant of the hydrostatical qualities of the vessel as was he who determined what her dimensions and form should be. It is scarcely necessary to call certain disasters of recent years to remembrance in order to enforce the truth of this assertion. Every vessel has a certain amount of stability or instability, due to her form, when immersed to her load line, and the function of the stevedore should be to so dispose the cargo put into her that the resulting stability due to both her form and the position of her centre of gravity may be neither so great as to make her uneasy, nor so small as to make her unstable. If she be unduly stable she will strain herself through the violence of her rolling motion, and the rapid changes in its direction. Sailing vessels are sometimes dismasted through this cause, and such casualties are often either attended with or followed by even more serious disasters. But if stiffness is a source of danger, what shall be said of instability? That a well-built and equipped vessel should ever capsize, without even her cargo shifting, is most discreditable in view of the advances which have been made, and the knowledge acquired up to the present time, in naval science.

There are, however, other sources of danger due to improper loading besides those which have been considered. When a cargo is so dense that only a fraction of a vessel's stowage capacity is equal to her displacement, it becomes a difficult matter to dispose it, not only in regard to the question of stability, but also with reference to the vessel's strength. In order to keep the centre of gravity of such a cargo high, it is evident that it must be concentrated at one place, or else that a larger proportion than usual must be placed in the 'tween decks. There is, of course, the alternative of fitting a strong platform in the bottom of the ship, such as for many years has been adopted in the copper ore carrying trade. But such platforms are expensive, and although they may be economically used when a vessel is always carrying one description of cargo, it becomes a serious tax upon the freight when the very dense cargo is only carried at rare intervals. After laying as much dunnage as is necessary for levelling the foundation of the cargo, the only course open to the stevedore is to pack it openly and firmly. It is in this respect that the stevedore has opportunities of helping the vessel to bear her burden. The 'tween deck beams can only carry a fair share of the total load, and the remainder must be laid in the hold. To place it all in a heap under the main hatchway is only to set up enormous bending moments and shearing stresses, which may permanently cripple the ship, or even break her asunder in a seaway; and yet this is often done, the excuse being that a similar cargo was similarly stowed before, and the ship took it out in safety.

While stevedores work by the piece and competition prevails, it is hopeless to expect better results except under close and trained supervision. But where is the supervision to come from? It is to this question we would address a few closing remarks. Mr. John Corry, the chairman of the General Shipowners' Association, in his recent presidential address, spoke of the necessity of not only training our seamen by the apprenticeship system, as in the olden time, but also of training our mercantile officers in a naval college somewhat similar to that at Greenwich. Is it not time that we took energetic steps of this kind to avoid the dangers which must ever be associated with the exercise of enormous responsibility without previous preparation and training? It is astounding that the loading of ships should be habitually handed over to men who do not clearly understand what they are doing. If the elementary principles underlying the whole of these things were so disseminated that shipmasters, mates, and stevedores were made acquainted with them as part of their ordinary training, there can be little doubt that marked improvements would soon be discerned in the statistics of losses and other casualties at sea. Greater care is now exercised by naval architects and engineers in the determination of stability and stresses than at any previous time, but all this extra care and cost is useless unless the work of

which we have written is performed with some intelligence.

#### THE RAIL TRADE ASSOCIATION.

THE statements which have appeared respecting the probable collapse of the International Steel Rail Makers' Association have created a profound sensation in the North of England. Although it is understood that, so far, the only action taken has been to give six months' notice of withdrawal on the part of two firms, still it is thought that the Association cannot survive the blow, and that neck-and-neck competition will shortly ensue. While the combination lasted in full force, merchants found themselves quite unable to do any business in buying and selling rails. If they obtained orders from consumers and endeavoured to place them with manufacturers they were at once referred to a central officer, who informed them on what terms the orders could be accepted, and dictated who should execute the same. Anything like the pleasant and profitable practice of pitting one needy maker against another until a good margin for the merchant was obtained was for the time being impracticable. Now, however, this elaborate system for preventing competition seems likely to end. It has become manifest to the stronger and better situated rail makers that they at all events have not benefited by the combination. They are still subject to the competition of weaker and worse-situated firms who could not otherwise have survived so long. They have found out that working fully without profit, or even at a slight loss, would have been more beneficial to them during the last two or three years than working fitfully with an apparently good profit but insignificant output. There is, therefore, no doubt but that it is the larger and stronger, and better situated makers, who are now dissatisfied with the combination, and who are determined to have nothing more to do with it. This is only one more instance of the impossibility of interfering with economic laws without eventual punishment. Such interference is always tempting at first, but it never stands the test of time. The immediate effect of the announcement has been the withdrawal of almost all rail orders in the market or in prospect. Buyers naturally argue that if the combination is to come to an end in six months there must be present weakness, and eventually lower prices. This hesitation on the part of buyers affects prices adversely in the meantime, and puts rail makers into a dilemma. Either they must be prepared for extreme slackness until the termination of the notices, or they must arrange voluntarily to break up the combination at once, and let the market find its level. The latter course would probably be the best for them. It is said that great efforts are being made to reconstitute the syndicate upon the basis of reduced figures to meet all outside competition. It is difficult, however, to imagine that these efforts can be successful. It is clear that the most influential firms cannot now be in love with syndicates on any terms. That a reconstructed syndicate would hold together better than the present one is not likely, and if it did, it is scarcely probable that it would suit the interests of the more influential makers any better than open competition.

#### GAS PRODUCTION.

WE gave, some months ago, in THE ENGINEER, a series of figures to show the cost and profit of gas production in one of the large boroughs of the North. It may be interesting now to supplement these figures with others relating to the same question for the past year, and for the Bishop Auckland district. It is exceptionally situated for the purposes of comparison, because it is in the very heart of the Durham coalfield, and the company does not engage in any other trade beside the distribution of gas. In the past year it sold for ordinary purposes rather over 24,000,000 cubic feet of gas, and a considerable—but not specially named—quantity for public lighting. From the sale of gas it received £4644, and from the sale of residuals £951; whilst there were other and smaller incidental receipts. The cost of the manufacture of gas was £2247, and that of the distribution £185; whilst taxes, management, &c., brought up the expenses to £2996, leaving a profit on the manufacture and sale of £2672 for the year. In the year there were 3663 tons of coal carbonised, and the estimated quantity of coke made was 2496 tons; that of tar, 188 tons; and that of ammoniacal liquor 306 tons. It would appear that, roughly speaking, the cost of the coal deposited at the works averaged about 7s. per ton; and as the gas was sold at 8s. 6d. for the larger part, and 4s. for that of the remainder—except that sold for public lighting, of which there is no detailed price—the result of the work may be fairly said to be lessened by the rather high price charged for the gas. Had the price been lower it is probable that there would have been a much larger consumption. The company pays for the year dividends on the two classes of its shares of 8 per cent. on the original, and 5 per cent. on the additional capital, so that its return to its shareholders is a substantial one, though it is one which would probably have been materially increased had a lower price been charged so as to stimulate the consumption of gas instead of discouraging it by a price which is high. It would be well if the proprietors of gasworks would learn that the proper plan is to enlarge the production and sale by cheapening the price, so as to allow the use for many purposes for which gas is usable, but is scarcely used when the price is so high. The utilisation of the means of distribution in the daytime is one of the things which the proprietors of gasworks are only slowly learning, but it is one that they would find of the utmost advantage to themselves as well as to their customers. It is true that the receipts from residuals are very seriously less than they were, but that might have been expected after the great growth in the production of gas, and after the enlargement of the production of ammonia in other industries; and the practical result of the change should be to induce the owners of gasworks to devote their time more and more to the primary object of their undertakings—that of the manufacture and sale of gas for the many uses to which it may now be fitly applied.

#### ACCIDENT TO TORPEDO BOATS.

TWO of the first-class steel torpedo boats recently arrived in Canton, supplied by the Vulcan Shipbuilding Company of Stettin, Germany, for the Chinese Government, and were being reviewed, near Canton, by His Excellency the Viceroy of Kwangtung and His Excellency Pang Yu Lin, the Imperial Commissioner for Coast Defence, when a sad accident happened to one of them. The boats were steaming full speed past the Viceroy when the fly-wheel of the fan flew into a dozen pieces, striking the second engineer, and wrecking the engine-room. Mr. J. A. Betts, C.E., who was in attendance on the Viceroy, was sent for to see if he could do anything for the wounded man; but as he found the man's skull was fractured, and that he was otherwise fearfully injured, he at once saw the case was hopeless; the man died almost immediately. The engine-room looked as if a shell had burst in it; the crank-shaft was bent,

some of the guides broken, and a hole some 6 in. square knocked through the skin of the boat.

TOOLS FOR THE COLONIES.

COMPLAINT has long been made of the unsuitable character of many of the tools exported to such of our colonies as largely employ native labour.

THE PATENT OFFICE.

IT is satisfactory to know that there is no fear of a temporary shelving of the important question of reorganising this department.

SANITATION IN LONDON SUBURBS.

THE ever-extending growth of London beyond the metropolitan drainage area must soon bring into prominence the question of dealing with sanitary requirements.

TENDERS.

FOR two steel boilers of the Lancashire type, put down for the Bedford Brewing and Malting Company, made to the specifications and under the inspection of the Manchester Steam Users' Association.

Table of boiler tenders listing names like John Musgrave and Son, Thomas Beeley, etc., and prices per boiler.

For the construction and fixing of a pair of wrought iron entrance gates 12ft. wide by 10ft. high, and a wicket-gate 3ft. wide by 6ft. 9in. high.

Table of gate tenders listing names like Jones and Willis, Richardson, Ellson, etc., and prices for designs.

TESTING THE COMMERCIAL EFFICIENCY OF DYNAMO MACHINES.

By GIBBERT KAPP.

ONE of the main features by which sound scientific engineering is distinguished from mere rule-of-thumb work on the one hand and from abstruse theorising on the other hand, is the application of rigorous methods of measurement to all problems connected with it.

a reduction of current results of necessity in a reduction of the intensity of the magnetic field, and that necessitates an increase of speed in order that the counter-electro-motive force may balance the electro-motive force of the generator.

The anomalies here set forth are all due to the fact that the commercial efficiency of the machine, whether generator or motor, has not been sufficiently distinguished from the purely electrical efficiency.

The usual way of measuring the commercial efficiency of a dynamo machine is by employing some kind of transmission dynamometer placed between the prime mover and the dynamo, and taking simultaneous readings of the energy transmitted and the electrical energy obtained.

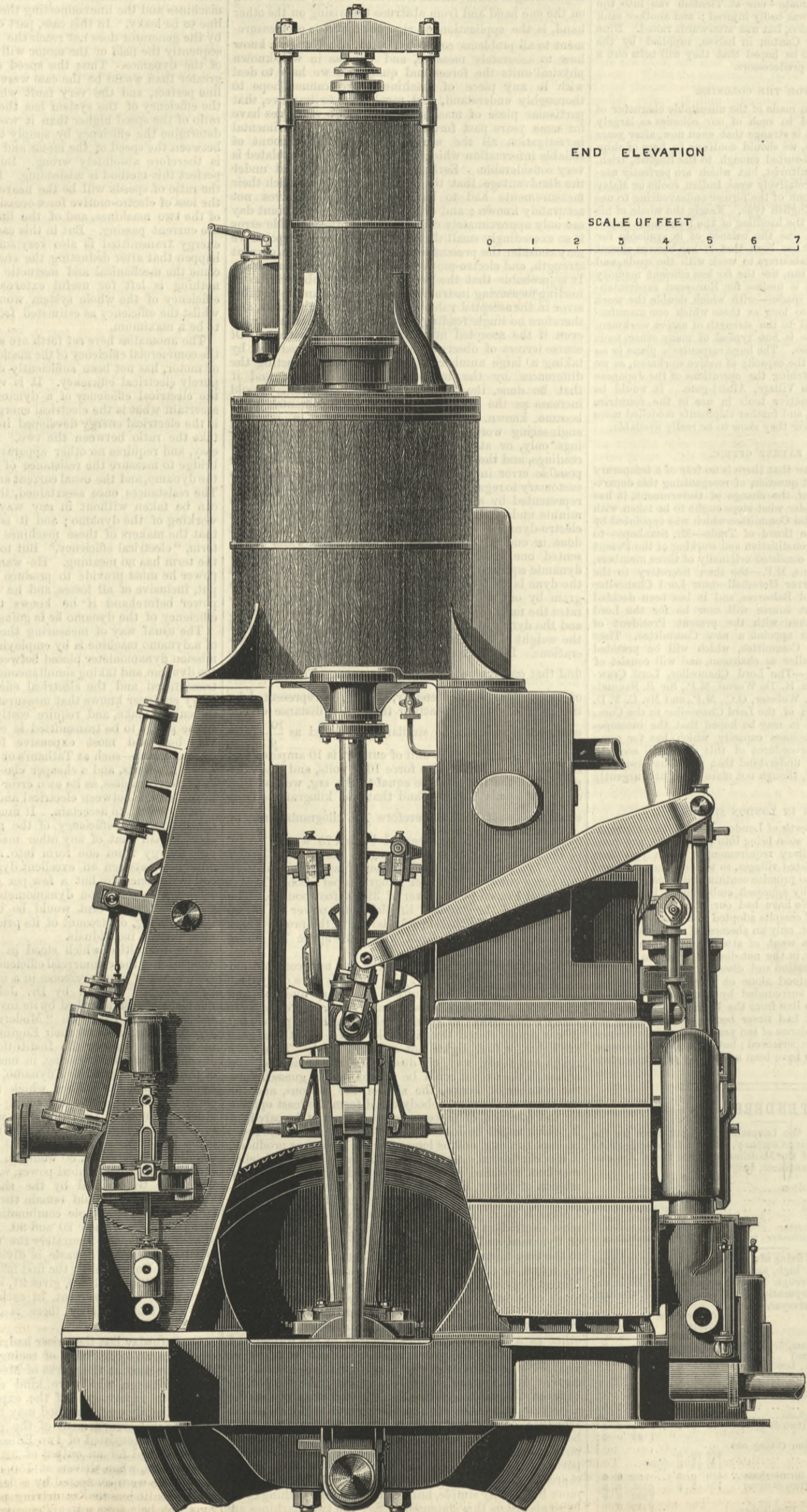
The difficulties which stood in the way of accurately determining the commercial efficiency of dynamo machines have recently been overcome in a most ingenious manner by a method devised by Dr. John Hopkinson.

On Saturday last the writer had, in company with other engineers, an opportunity of seeing this method put into actual practice at the works of Messrs. Mather and Platt, in Manchester.

COMPOUND ENGINE OF THE S. S. PROMETHEUS.

MESSRS. R. STEPHENSON AND CO., NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE, ENGINEERS.

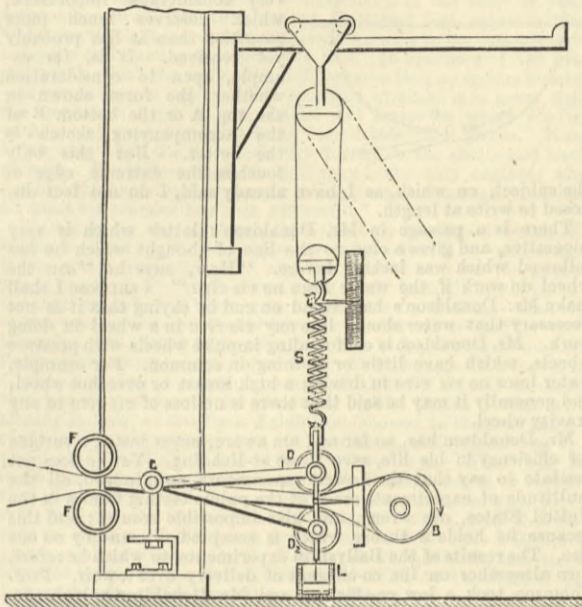
(For description see page 187.)





diagrammatically in Fig. 1, where B is the pulley connecting the shafts of the two dynamos. D, D<sub>2</sub> are loose pulleys supported by a frame, which is pivoted at C, and S in an adjustable spring suspended from a crane overhead. The vibration of the frame is reduced by a dash-pot L. The two ends of the belt are taken through guide pulleys F F so as to bring them parallel to the dynamometer. If motion takes place in the direction of the arrow it will be evident that the strain in the lower belt must exceed the strain in the upper belt, and there will be a tendency to displace the frame downwards. To counteract

Fig. 1



this tendency the top of the spring must be raised until the pointer attached to the frame again returns to a zero mark which had been made whilst the system was at rest. It is easy to see that in this position the difference in tension between the two sides of the belt must, under all circumstances, be proportional to the increase of tension in the spring, which can be read off by an upper pointer and scale as shown.

The constant of the dynamometer is simply dependent on the geometrical proportions; it is 2.705—that is to say, to each division on the scale corresponds a tangential pull of 2.705 lb., acting at a radius equal to that of the pulley plus half the thickness of belt. To avoid the possibility of error in the geometrical determination of the constant, the latter was verified by combining the transmission dynamometer with an ordinary Prony brake, and comparing the power registered on the dynamometer with the power measured on the brake. One revolution of the pulley represents 3.63 ft. advance of belt; hence  $S \times 2.705 \times 3.63 n = H.P.$ , where S represents the tension

$\frac{33,000}{n}$  of the spring in divisions on the scale, n the number of revolutions of the pulley per minute, and H.P. the horse-power. We have also

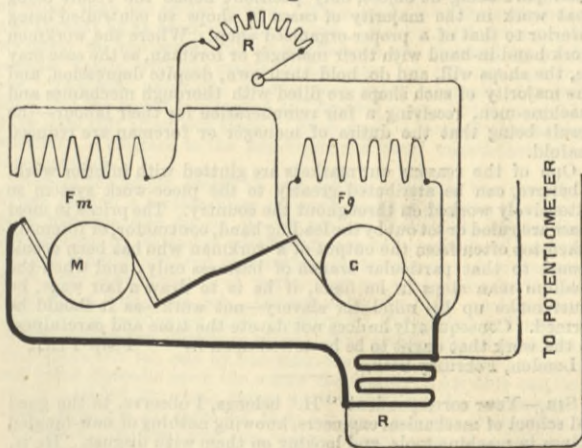
$$H.P. = .000298 n S.$$

It will be seen that n and S are the only mechanical data required. The electrical data are the current in the two armatures, and the electro-motive forces created in the armature coils. We can, of course, only measure the external electro-motive forces, and must compute the internal electro-motive forces by adding the loss due to the resistances of the armatures. The two dynamos are shunt wound, and their resistances are as follows:—

	Ohms.
Armature of generator...	.009947
Armature of motor ...	.009947
Field magnets of generator ...	16.44
Field magnets of motor ...	16.93
Resistance of leads, including platinoid coil ...	.00777

The electrical connections will be understood from the diagram, Fig. 2, where G represents the armature of the

Fig. 2



generator, and M that of the motor, the two being drawn side by side for clearness of illustration, and not in line one behind the other—which is their actual arrangement. F<sub>g</sub> represents the field magnet coils of the generator, and F<sub>m</sub> those of the motor, both being supplied with current from the brushes of the generator. Now, it will easily be seen that if the exciting current were alike in both cases, the counter electro-motive force created in M would be equal to the electro-motive force created in G, and no current would pass from one armature to the other. To allow a current to flow it is necessary to slightly lower the counter electro-motive force of M, and this is done by reducing the exciting current in F<sub>m</sub>. The more we reduce the power of this magnet, the more easily will the

armature of the motor be overpowered by the armature of the dynamo, and the more current will flow through both armatures, and the circuit shown in thick lines. In order to regulate the exciting power of the motor field magnets, a rheostat r is inserted into the circuit, and by turning the handle of this rheostat one way or the other we can increase or decrease the main current flowing through the system, and therefore the total amount of mechanical energy supplied to the armature of the generator. The main current is measured by observing, on a potentiometer placed in a distant room, the difference of potential existing between the terminals of a platinoid resistance R. This resistance is so low—.0058 ohms—that the strongest current which is used during the range of experiments does not sensibly heat it. Moreover, the temperature correction of platinoid is so small that this resistance can be considered to be practically constant. We therefore find the current by dividing the potential at the terminals of R by .0058. The potentiometer is arranged according to Poggendorff's method. Let in Fig. 3 a b represent the terminals of the two wires leading from the platinoid resistance R, let C represent a standard cell of known electro-motive force—1.453 volts—and let G be a galvanometer connected by a key K to a variable resistance ρ. The current flows from a through a fixed resistance of 2220 ohms past the point d where the galvanometer is connected and through the resistance ρ to b. By suitably varying the latter resistance we can vary the strength of the current, and therefore the difference of potential between a and d. If that difference be exactly 1.453 volt, then no deflection of the galvanometer will be observed upon depressing the key, because the standard cell just balances the electro-motive force between a and d. The difference of potential between a and b is in that case

$$E = \frac{1.453 (2220 + \rho)}{2220}$$

It will be noticed that this method can only be used if E > 1.453. For smaller values a similar method is employed, but the standard cell is replaced by a secondary battery of known electro-motive force. It would be beyond the scope of this article to enter in detail into the different arrangements necessary. Those who wish for more information will find it in Mr. Kemp's excellent book on "Electrical Testing." The experiments were carried out in the following manner:—The two dynamos were first run with the brushes off, neither of the two fields being excited. This gave the power necessary to overcome the friction in the bearings, the resistance of air and that used up in the dynamometer itself. The next experiment was to excite the two fields separately and run the dynamos still with the brushes off. This gave the power required to overcome the resistances just specified plus the energy absorbed by revolving the two armatures in magnetic fields, or as it might be termed the power absorbed by magnetic friction. Roughly speaking the magnetic friction was found to increase the power required for running empty by 50 per cent. The field coils were then coupled up as shown in Fig. 2, and the proper power tests were made. In the following table are given some of the results obtained:—

Dynamometric Experiments on two similar Edison-Hopkinson Dynamos.

Scale divisions on spring balance ...	21.6	30	60	48.5	44
Revolutions per minute ...	808	802	764	808	808
Electro-motive force at brushes of generator ...	—	—	110.12	118.87	124.41
Electro-motive force at brushes of motor ...	—	—	107.34	116.86	122.97
Electro-motive force in armature of generator ...	—	—	113.79	121.56	126.40
Counter electro-motive force in armature of motor ...	—	—	103.78	114.29	121.12
Main current in amperes ...	—	—	358	258	186
Shunt current in field of generator ...	—	—	6.9	6.72	7.21
Shunt current in field of motor ...	—	—	6.7	5.23	5.92
Current in armature of generator ...	—	—	370	271	200
Current in armature of motor ...	—	—	358	258	186
Horse-power registered on dynamometer ...	5.18	7.17	13.66	11.70	10.60
Horse-power converted in armature of generator ...	—	—	56.20	44.00	34.00
Horse-power converted in armature of motor ...	—	—	49.80	39.60	30.20

The horse-power converted in the armature of the generator is that actually appearing in the form of internal electrical energy. The power which has to be supplied to the spindle is somewhat greater than the horse-power converted, and the problem is to find how much greater; in other words, we want to find the efficiency of conversion. Similarly the horse-power converted in the armature of the motor is the electrical energy disappearing in the process of conversion into mechanical energy, which flows through the coupling back into the spindle of the generator. This power is somewhat smaller than that given in the table, because a certain loss occurs during conversion, and we want to find how great this loss is. Since the two machines are similar in size, we shall not commit any great error if we assume that the unknown loss in conversion is the same in both armatures. Let X represent the horse-power thus lost. Then we have the following relation in reference to the experiment given in the third column:—

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Power supplied from the external source} & \dots \dots \dots 13.66 \\ \text{Power supplied by the motor} & \dots \dots \dots 49.80 - X \\ \text{The sum of these two must be equal to } & 56.20 + X, \text{ which} \\ \text{represents the power actually supplied to the} & \text{spindle of the generator. We have therefore the equation—} \\ & 13.66 + 49.80 - X = 56.20 + X, \\ \text{whence } & 2X = 13.66 + 49.80 - 56.20 \\ & X = 3.63 \end{aligned}$$

It should here be remarked that in taking 13.66 as the power actually supplied to the whole combination we have made no allowance for the loss occurring in the dynamometer itself. Now from the first column it appears that 5.18-horse power are required to overcome the purely mechanical resistance of the dynamometer, the friction of armature spindles in their bearings and the air resistance of the armatures. The latter two must properly be charged to the dynamos when determining their commercial efficiency, whereas the former should be deducted. It is extremely difficult to separate these losses, and we shall have either to neglect the loss in the dynamometer altogether, which would make the dynamos appear less efficient than they really are, or we must deduct the losses due to the dynamometer and the mechanical friction of the armatures together, which would make the dynamos appear more efficient than they really are. In the latter case the power applied externally would be  $13.66 - 5.18 \frac{764}{808} = 8.76$ , and the unknown quantity X = 1.18.

This value agrees fairly well with the tests in the first and second column where the increase of power due to the magnetisation of the iron core of the armature had been directly ascertained. But there is one point which has not been taken into account, and which would slightly modify the efficiency when either of the dynamos were used in actual practical work. This is the increase of mechanical friction in the bearings due to the strain of the belt. It is a very different thing to transmit 10-horse power through a belt embracing three-fourths of the pulley and to transmit 60-horse power through a belt embracing say only four-tenths of the pulley. The strain in the driving end of the belt will, in the latter case, be probably ten times greater, and therefore the pressure of the spindle against its bearing and the power absorbed by friction will also be considerably increased. In order to make an allowance on this head, probably the fairest thing to do is to take the mean between the two values for X, and in this case we have:—

Horse-power in the belt driving the dynamo...	58.60
Horse-power delivered electrically at the terminals	53.60
Commercial efficiency, 91.5 per cent.	

Similarly we have for the motor:—

Horse-power delivered electrically to the terminals	53.60
Horse-power obtainable at the belt ...	47.40
Commercial efficiency, 88.5 per cent.	

In this case the commercial efficiency is somewhat lower for the motor, which is probably due to the fact that the field magnets were not fully excited.

In the same manner we find the average value of X for the figures in the fourth column to be 2.36 and that for the figures in the last column to be 2.10. This gives for the dynamo:—

Horse-power in belt driving the dynamo	46.36 and 36.10
Horse-power delivered electrically at the terminals ...	42.00 ,, 30.40
Commercial efficiency ...	90.6% ,, 84.0%

And for the motor:—

Horse-power delivered electrically to the terminals ...	42.00 and 30.40
Horse-power obtainable at the belt ...	37.24 ,, 28.10
Commercial efficiency ...	88.7% ,, 92.0%

The method here adopted by the writer in analysing the experimental results is somewhat different from that adopted by Messrs. Mather and Platt, but the results arrived at by either method agree fairly well. The commercial efficiency determined according to the makers' way of reckoning is 93.23 per cent. for the tests recorded in the third column, and the discrepancy of 1.7 per cent. is due to the fact that in the calculation which gives the higher efficiency, no allowance was made for the increase of friction in the bearings due to the greater pull of the belt where the latter is transmitting the full power, instead of only that portion of the power which is wanted. These results are very instructive. In the first place they prove that an actual commercial efficiency of 90 per cent. and more can be obtained with a high class dynamo. They also show that the dynamo, when designed on sound scientific principles, is equally efficient, whether used as generator or motor, a point which has been much discussed of late in the columns of the scientific press. A very important result of the experiments is also that it has been proved to be possible to electrically transmit energy over short distances with a total loss not exceeding 20 per cent.

PRIVATE BILLS IN PARLIAMENT.

WHAT is called the contentious business in connection with the Private Bills of the session has at last commenced, a Select Committee of the House of Lords, with the Earl of Limerick as chairman, having met on Wednesday to consider a group of five Bills. The first of these was the Brighton, Rottingdean, and Newhaven Direct Railway Bill. This is one of two schemes which to some extent are rivals, the other being the Brighton, Rottingdean, and Newhaven Railway Bill, and both follow very much the same course. The direct route scheme begins by two junctions with the Kemp Town branch, a short distance from the Kemp Town station, and thence pretty much parallel with the coast, meets the Lewes and Seaford branch about half a mile away from the Newhaven Town station. The effect of this line will be to bring Brighton and Newhaven within half an hour's journey of each other. The other schemes before this Committee are the Bristol Corporation Docks Bill, the Bristol (Totterdown Bridge) Bill, the Morecambe Tramways Bill, and the Swansea Harbour Bill. None of them involve any very serious conflict, and they are likely to be quickly disposed of.

In the House of Commons the General Committee on Railway and Canal Bills have formed these schemes into groups, and appointed Committees upon them, the first of which will meet on April 6th; among the Bills to be taken earliest being the Ship Canal Bill. This session the Railway and Canal Bills only constitute seven groups, whereas last year there were ten. Three of the seven relate to Lancashire and the North. Although these Committees will not begin their investigations until next month, some of the miscellaneous measures will be taken into consideration on Monday next. In the meanwhile the Highgate and Kilburn Open Spaces Bill is the first private measure of the session to pass the Committee stage in the Commons, it having become unopposed. The object of the Bill is to enable the Ecclesiastical Commissioners to transfer certain lands







NEW COMPANIES.

The following companies have just been registered:—

Appleby Brothers, Limited. This company proposes to acquire the business of Messrs. Appleby Brothers, manufacturing engineers and contractors, with the leasehold land, workshops, and buildings held by them on the River Thames, at East Greenwich, together with the plant, machinery, and other assets of the firm. It was registered on the 20th ult. with a capital of £50,000, in £10 shares. The subscribers are:—

Table listing subscribers for Appleby Brothers, Limited, including Thomas Greenwood, John Wallace, W. R. bert Green, Charles Appleby, Percy V. Appleby, T. G. enwood, G. Higgs, and their respective share amounts.

The number of directors is not to be less than three nor more than five; qualification, 100 shares; the first are the subscribers denoted by an asterisk. The minimum remuneration of the directors (other than Mr. C. J. Appleby, or any managing director) will be £300 per annum, and a further sum equal to 10 per cent. of the balance of the annual net remaining after 6 per cent. has been paid upon the ordinary capital. The remuneration of Mr. Appleby will be such sum as may from time to time be agreed upon between him and the board.

J. E. H. Andrew and Co., Limited.

This company proposes to manufacture, buy, sell, and deal in gas and electrical engines and motors of all kinds and all apparatus used in connection therewith, and for such purpose will acquire the goodwill of the business of J. E. H. Andrew and Co. It was registered on the 20th ult. with a capital of £30,000, in £20 shares. The subscribers are:—

Table listing subscribers for J. E. H. Andrew and Co., Limited, including C. H. Andrew, Mrs. E. H. Andrew, H. H. Andrew, J. A. A. Andrew, Hugh Williams, T. Nicholson, and E. Robinson Walker, with their share amounts.

The number of directors is not to be less than three nor more than eight; qualification (except for Mr. H. Williams), £1000 in shares or stock; the first are the subscribers denoted by an asterisk; the company in general meeting will determine remuneration.

Abbots Langley Waterworks Company, Limited.

This company proposes to construct waterworks for supplying the village and neighbourhood of Abbots Langley, Hertfordshire. It was registered on the 23rd ult. with a capital of £3000, in £10 shares. The subscribers are:—

Table listing subscribers for Abbots Langley Waterworks Company, Limited, including G. Turnbull, H. Gilliat, Rev. F. H. Hodgson, J. E. Littleboy, Rev. E. T. Vaughan, E. H. Lloyd, and A. F. Phillips, with their share amounts.

The first six subscribers are appointed directors; qualification, five shares.

Derbyshire Chemical Company, Limited.

This company proposes to acquire chemical works situate at Kilmarsh, near Chesterfield, and to carry on business as chemical manufacturers and refiners, tar distillers, cement manufacturers, lime burners, &c. It was registered on the 22nd ult. with a capital of £10,000, in £10 shares. The subscribers are:—

Table listing subscribers for Derbyshire Chemical Company, Limited, including J. Abbott, J. Forbes, F. Leonard, F. Ince, F. H. Tildesley, G. C. Parnaby, and W. Russell Jackson, with their share amounts.

The number of directors is to be five; the first are the subscribers denoted by an asterisk. The directors, including the managing director, will not be entitled to any remuneration other than expenses out of pocket, and such further sum for special services as the company in general meeting may determine.

Eli Tricycle Company, Limited.

This company proposes to acquire and work patents relating to velocipedes, and for such purposes will adopt an agreement entered into with Alexander James Eli. It was registered on the 21st ult. with a capital of £2000, in £1 shares, with the following as first subscribers:—

Table listing subscribers for Eli Tricycle Company, Limited, including N. Robinson, A. Rayner, S. E. Lambert, J. M. Johnston, E. Horsey, M. Freemantle, H. Follett, and their share amounts.

The number of directors is not to be less than three nor more than seven; qualification, shares or stock of the nominal value of £10.

Moulding and Artists' Materials Manufacturing Company, Limited.

This company proposes to take over the business of a moulding and artists' canvas and materials manufacturer and dealer, carried on by Messrs. Alfred Jeffries, Max Otto Hübner, and Arthur Wellesley Maxwell, at 107, New Oxford-street,

the Grove Works, Este-road, Battersea, and at Woodbridge, Suffolk. It was registered on the 24th ult. with a capital of £10,000, in £1 shares. The subscribers are:—

Table listing subscribers for Grove Works, including H. J. Blackham, J. S. Downes, W. Maxwell, W. A. Maxwell, W. F. Robinson, A. H. P. Snow, and W. H. W. Moss, with their share amounts.

The number of directors is to be six; the subscribers are to appoint the first and act ad interim; qualification, 20 shares. Messrs. A. W. Maxwell and Max Otto Hübner are appointed managers at salaries of £4 per week each.

Thomas Turton and Sons, Limited.

This is the conversion to a company of the business of manufacturers of steel, files, saws, edge tools, springs, wire, mining tools, and other articles, carried on by Mr. Frederick Thorpe Mappin, trading as Thomas Turton and Sons, at the Sheaf and Spring Works, Sheffield, the buildings, machinery, plant, and stock-in-trade being included in the transfer. It was registered on the 18th ult. with a capital of £100,000, in £100 shares. The purchase is regulated by an agreement of the 20th February, the consideration being £87,386 9s. 6d., payable as to £19,000 in fully-paid shares, and the balance in cash. The subscribers are:—

Table listing subscribers for Thomas Turton and Sons, Limited, including F. Thorpe Mappin, Frank Mappin, Wilson Mappin, Samuel Wilson Mappin, Thomas Waterhouse, R. Churchill, W. J. Thompson, and their share amounts.

The number of directors is not to be less than three nor more than six; qualification, 10 shares; the first are the subscribers denoted by an asterisk. The remuneration of the ordinary directors will be £50 each, or such other sum as the company in general meeting may determine. The managing director will be entitled to a remuneration of £1000 per annum, or such other sum as the shareholders may vote in general meeting.

Reddish Pottery Company, Limited.

This is the incorporation as a limited company of the business of stoneware potters, manufacturers and merchants, carried on by Mr. Edwin Johnson, Mrs. Rose Ann Johnson, and Robert Auld Mathieson, trading as R. A. Mathieson and Co., at Reddish, near Stockport, Lancashire. It was registered on the 18th ult. with a capital of £100,000, in £10 shares, with the following as first subscribers:—

Table listing subscribers for Reddish Pottery Company, Limited, including Edwin Johnson, Robert A. Mathieson, Thomas Glover, F. Walsley, G. H. Russell, Mrs. R. A. Johnson, and J. W. Sayer, with their share amounts.

The number of directors is not to be less than three nor more than five; qualification, 50 shares; the first are the subscribers denoted by an asterisk. The company in general meeting will determine remuneration; Mr. R. A. Mathieson is appointed manager for five years at a salary of £150 per annum, and subject to the previous payment of 10 per cent. dividend, he will be further entitled to a commission of 10 per cent. of the net profits.

Wigram and Co., Limited.

This company was registered on the 20th ult. with a capital of £10,000, in £10 shares, to trade as ironmasters, colliery proprietors, coke manufacturers, miners, smelters, engineers, steel converters, and metallurgists. The subscribers are:—

Table listing subscribers for Wigram and Co., Limited, including E. F. E. Wigram, W. H. Witnall, Miss L. K. Wigram, Rev. W. Gray, Rev. R. Lang, Rev. F. E. Wigram, and Major-General George Hutchinson, with their share amounts.

Mr. Edmund Francis Edward Wigram is appointed first director, and may retain office so long as he remains entitled to 600 shares. Most of the regulations of Table A of the Companies' Act, 1862, are adopted.

Stratford, Ilford, and Romford Tramway Company, Limited.

This company proposes to apply for Parliamentary powers for the construction of tramways, and for working the same by electrical, steam, mechanical, or animal power, in the county of Essex. It was registered on the 23rd ult. with a capital of £75,000, in £5 shares, with the following as first subscribers:—

Table listing subscribers for Stratford, Ilford, and Romford Tramway Company, Limited, including Captain F. L. H. Penzance, G. Davis, D. J. Gladden, G. Pumbley, H. J. Newell, J. Dixon, and H. W. Atkins, with their share amounts.

Registered without special articles.

THE PATENT JOURNAL.

Condensed from the Journal of the Commissioners of Patents.

Applications for Letters Patent.

\*\* When patents have been "communicated" the name and address of the communicating party are printed in italics.

23rd February, 1886.

- List of patent applications numbered 2582 to 2606, including titles like 'MANUFACTURE OF EARTHENWARE JUGS', 'PROPELLING STEAM VESSELS', 'PORTABLE FOLDING BOOT STAND', etc.

- List of patent applications numbered 2667 to 2766, including titles like 'PREPARING WOOL', 'ELECTRICAL ANUNCIATORS', 'FORCEPS AND KNIVES', etc.

25th February, 1886.

- Continuation of patent applications numbered 2724 to 2766, including titles like 'LASTS FOR BOOTS AND SHOES', 'BREACH-LOADING SMALL-ARMS', etc.

