

OUR COMPETITORS IN IRON SHIPBUILDING.

By CAPTAIN GAMBIER, R.N.

No. II.

THE Marine Engines constructed, and being constructed by the Orlandi, are of the largest and most recent type. The steamer Ortigia, of 4200 tons, attained a speed of $13\frac{1}{2}$ knots with 1300 indicated horse-power. The design is a compound of high and low-pressure, with four cylinders. The Vega, torpedo boat, made $20\frac{9}{10}$ knots on her official trial at Spezia. The Birmania, before-mentioned, of 5000 tons, 1100-horse power, made $11\frac{1}{2}$ knots. These are excellent results, and certainly entitle this firm to rank high as constructors of marine engines. From the design to the finish of the last nut all these engines are the exclusive work of the firm. They have also constructed several locomotive engines of the first-class, besides a variety of other machines, mills and crushing presses for olive oil, washing machines, and a variety of agricultural implements, in the construction of which the workmen acquire that technical skill which fits them to take in hand any other kind of engineering work. It will thus be seen that not alone in shipbuilding is a formidable competitor gaining ground against England, but in our particular speciality, namely, agricultural implements and tools of every kind. Nor must the fact be lost sight of that, up to the present, these Italian workshops have laboured under great disadvantages in procuring the raw material, and in having unskilled labour to deal with. These disadvantages are, however, rapidly disappearing, and it is not too much to say that the balance of advantage will soon be on their side in both respects. The Italian Government are fully alive to the importance of fostering and developing home industries, and repeat on this side of the Atlantic the example set by the United States. Strenuous efforts are being made to render Italy entirely independent of foreign aid, and with commendable and patriotic enterprise the Government have confided the construction of 17,000,000 francs worth of armour-plates to an Italian firm, whose works are at Terni. The Island of Elba supplies the iron—an ore of excellent quality, where it has been estimated that deposits of not less than 12,000,000 tons are still above the sea level. These ores are very rich, yielding an average of 58 per cent. of metal, and though containing certain quantities of sulphur, are found to make excellent pig iron, of good quality, by an admixture of the calcareous and manganiferous ores of Monte Argentario, the supply of which is inexhaustible, and can be cheaply worked. The output of the Elba mines has increased from 50,000 tons in 1871 to 403,000 in 1881, and to nearly double that amount in 1885. There are also other sites containing valuable ores in Italy; but these have not been thoroughly examined nor officially reported on. The net cost per ton in producing this iron has been from eight to nine francs—an average of about seven shillings. The freights to England were five and to the United States eight shillings per ton. The lignites in Italy are in very large deposits and of good quality for smelting purposes. At the present rate of consumption it is estimated they would last two centuries—sufficiently long for their purposes. It will thus be seen that in dealing with the capabilities of the San Rocco firm to turn out work of excellent quality everything shows that this firm may be the nucleus of a shipbuilding and machine making industry second to none in Europe. Some further details of this establishment may be interesting. As regards its actual work, we believe that this firm has been much criticised by English experts for the extreme care and labour bestowed on it, and it has been held that this excessive exactitude of measurement and this accurate planing of the edges of iron plates is so much time and money thrown away. The Orlandi, however, take a different view, and insist on having the rivet holes of their plates as mathematically exact as machinery and patience can make them. Their argument is, that at some time or other good workmanship will be found to stand where bad fails, and it is hardly too much to say that in this respect they put to blush many of our English manufacturers. To insure accuracy amongst the many admirable contrivances used by the Orlandi, is a truck running on rails, which brings the plates through which the holes for the rivets are to be bored directly and with mathematical precision under the drill, so that every hole is within the thousandth part of an inch of where it should be, whilst the drill acts automatically and independently of the man who moves the truck. Now in many of our yards it is still necessary to employ six, eight, ten, or twelve men, to pull and haul about, with clumsy and extemporised appliances of ropes and wedges, to bring the plate under the drill. Any one who has watched this operation knows the time that is wasted over this bungling kind of work, and frequently the drill is brought down out of the centre of the chalk mark, which is, indeed, not surprising when one considers the weight of the plate that has to be wriggled about to the fraction of an inch. But with the Orlandi truck all this is obviated, and mark the result. Orlandi's plates, when they come to be rivetted on the ship, lie with the rivet holes exactly in the right place; the rivets go easily into their place, and are immediately rivetted whilst still hot and malleable. The rivet holes bored on the other system do not fit, and every one accustomed to watch iron shipbuilding will have seen the frantic efforts of the rivetters to force the rivets through the holes which do not exactly correspond. It is true they do force them in, but the rivet is made to take a twist, and before the final hammering and rivetting has been accomplished is so much cooled that the work is necessarily imperfect. But the mischief does not end here. The vessel goes to sea, and under the severe strain of rolling with the enormous weight of the ship and her cargo, the maltreated rivet gives way; the head comes off, and the rivet falls out. The strain then comes on the next rivet, and if two or three of these rivets happen to be in a part where the form of the vessel brings

an extra strain on the plate from its curvature, the plate will soon snap its other rivets and come off. There is not a shadow of doubt that many a missing ship has foundered from her plates coming off, and there is no more certain method of effecting this catastrophe than bad rivetting.

To continue some further details of the Orlandi establishment, it may be mentioned that the iron foundry is capable of turning out castings of 25 to 35 tons weight. It is fitted with three revolving cranes—one of 20 tons, one of 15, and one of 8. In the workshops, the present machinery—which, however, is being greatly enlarged—is calculated to work up about 350 to 400 tons of material per month, giving employment to about 1200 to 1300 men per diem. There are upwards of seventy machines at work in these workshops, with three travelling cranes of 40, 10, and 5 tons respectively. The turning lathes are capable of turning the largest screw shafting. Amongst other work going on now in this workshop is a Government marine engine for a ship of nearly 8000 tons. The boiler shop is very capacious, and conveniently situated close to the jetty. It is a covered area of 1300 square yards. The carpenters' shops, which comprise some excellent cabinet work for the internal fittings of ships, together with the brass and copper foundries, are all on the same scale. All the workshops and the slips, are lighted with electricity. From the above details it will be seen that the dockyard of San Rocco should be able fairly to compete with any of our establishments in England or Scotland. Nothing is spared to make their enterprise successful in all respects, and during the years 1882, 1883, and 1884, no less than £27,000 was expended by the firm on plant and workshops, and this in the face of a dead loss of nearly £40,000 incurred by the failure of a company for whom they had built two large steamers. Amongst other works entirely developed out of their own resources must be mentioned the patent slips. They are worked in each case by 20-horse power engines operating on four hydraulic presses, which are arranged to work alternately, so that there is no cessation of pull at any one moment of the vessel coming up out of the water. Vessels of 2000 to 3000 tons can be hauled up in about three hours' time. For other repairs the well sheltered basin affords every facility, and here the firm have lately constructed a large revolving hydraulic crane capable of lifting 70 tons, so that the largest pieces of machinery or boilers of any dimension can be with safety deposited in the workshop.

Much attention has been turned in this establishment to the delicate and difficult art of building torpedo boats. Those constructed by the Orlandi may now be seen lying side by side in the Royal Arsenal of Spezia with similar boats built in England. It is impossible to award the palm of superiority to the latter, whilst on the measured mile the Italian boats have attained most speed. They are somewhat fuller in the run than the English boats, and have more accommodation inside. Their cost was considerably less, but the figures were not obtained. As a guide, however, in estimating the relative cost of building ironclads in England and Italy, it may be stated that the Lepanto, the colossal ironclad before alluded to, cost at the rate of 1*l.* per kilo of material employed, or about 4*d.* per English pound. The Italian Government are now having the following vessels constructed by the Orlandi, viz., the Provana, Veniero, Vesuvio, and the Clio, Vega, and Rigel torpedo boats. These vessels will be completed ready for sea by the firm, who hitherto have only built the hulls for the Government. In addition to the above mentioned, the Orlandi have built and launched some of the largest and most successful steamers of the mercantile marine, which can bear comparison with anything turned out by the best firms on the Clyde. Whether the predilection for British workmanship is likely long to remain an *idée fixe* with British ship-owners remains to be seen, but to buy vessels in the dearest market will be a severe strain on their patriotism in view of foreign freight bounties. Cheap and intelligent labour, sobriety, and minding their own business, are important factors in the development of any industry, and as the day is not far distant when Italy will be independent of foreign aid for the raw material, the dream of the Brothers Orlandi that they will some day build steamers for British owners may not be so very chimerical. It is only insular prejudice which leads us to underrate the foreign workman, whereas a very considerable experience of workmen, the marvellously adaptive Japanese at Yeddo or Osaka; the clever, quick-witted Chinese artificer, in the Naval yard at Hong-Kong; the patient and thoroughgoing Russian in the Arsenal at Sebastopol, and the Tuscan at San Rocco in Leghorn, has led the writer to form an exactly converse opinion. And why should it be otherwise? What special claim have we to intelligence in all these handicrafts over and above our fellows? On the contrary, our surroundings, our detestable climate which drives men to the public-house for shelter, and many other causes, militate against that steady, sober, contentment, without which no good work of hand or brain can be accomplished. Nor is the growing tendency of the British workman to look on himself as entitled to come on the "public good" for support whenever he happens to be out of work, at all calculated to preserve for us the supremacy in manufactures which have hitherto been exclusively our own. The decrease in last year's iron and steel shipbuilding—150,000 tons—must seriously affect trade throughout the kingdom, and it is a national disaster that our own Colonies place their orders in America and Germany, paid for by money borrowed in England.

The Italian Government have recently placed very large contracts in the hands of Italians for the delivery of steel rails of Italian manufacture extending over the next ten years, and are besides actively developing the Royal Arsenals. In a short space of time Italy will be able to build as many ironclads as they and the rest of Europe are likely to require; and in this respect the arsenal and building yard of Spezia will eventually become of the highest importance, from the impregnability of its situation. It is doubtful if we have a single building yard of any importance safe from sudden and unexpected attack.

It is true works are being tardily thrown up on the Clyde, and that Chatham, being far inland, may be considered safe; but in the absence of a fleet at Spithead, Portsmouth is practically defenceless; whilst the guns on Portsdown Hill and the neighbouring forts might thunder away in vain before being able to strike a rapidly moving vessel shelling the dockyard; and Devonport is no better. But this is entirely a side issue. There is, however, an aspect of the question of our allowing our competitors to get ahead of us that must not be lost sight of. Every segregation of human beings in the entire world, from the puniest State in the Pacific to the giant Empires of Europe and Asia, is banded together to exclude British manufactures by prohibitive tariffs; whilst, with hardly an exception, all countries are training thousands of workmen to produce what has hitherto been almost our monopoly. In a short time every European market for steel or iron must of necessity be closed against Great Britain. But there remains one outlet—an outlet which now lies ready to hand—the vast and undeveloped Chinese Empire. But even here we are likely to be forestalled by Germany.

An important Bill passed by the Italian Parliament just before the Christmas recess gives bounties to shipbuilding and navigation for a period of ten years. The chief features of this Bill are—(1) a bounty of 2*s.* per ton for iron and steel ships built and registered in Italy; (2) a bounty of 8*s.* per indicated horse-power on machinery, and of 2*s.* 6*d.* per cwt. on boilers; (3) a bounty of 10*d.* per ton weight of coal brought to Italy in Italian ships from ports lying outside the Straits of Gibraltar, provided the cargo is not less than three-fifths of the ship's burthen. A bounty on the navigation of 6*d.* per net ton for every 1000 miles run from Italy to non-European ports lying beyond the Suez Canal and the Straits of Gibraltar. Further, the Italian coasting trade is reserved to the national flag, but foreign ships may be admitted on condition of reciprocity. The adoption of the above bounties, clearly opposed to the principles of free trade, will injure British shipping engaged in the coal trade, as well as the importation from England of machinery and marine engines.

That a policy of self-effacement, or rather of self-obliteration, should be one that recommends itself to a manufacturing nation, is incredible. That the redistribution of land which experts cannot make pay amongst men who scarce know a potato from a parsnip, is a universal panacea for the misery produced through the vast building yards and other manufactories standing silent and empty—is one of those malicious inventions which ruin nations. The cost of living in England is certainly not dearer than in many foreign countries, but the habits our working classes have engendered and rendered it so to them. There is an absence of thrift amongst us which tells painfully when the pinch of depression comes, and nothing can be more instructive than the dispute, amounting to a serious quarrel, going on now in one of our largest northern cities between the trades union managers and their subscribers. It is obvious that the savings of the men have been hitherto, and are still, looked on merely as a means to carry on the war against capital in supporting and aiding strikes. Thus a double evil is effected, for the savings are wasted which should have stood the men and their families in need when bad times overtook them, and business is driven from the country. However, this is a voice crying in the wilderness, for as long as there are officials and other functionaries making a good thing out of the working man's gullibility, so long will this unfortunate state of affairs last.

PROFESSOR R. H. SMITH'S KINEMATIC DIAGRAMS.

THE following two examples have been selected from a considerable number of kinematic diagrams that have been worked out by Prof. Smith's new method. As these diagrams, if drawn to any readable scale, occupy considerable space, it is impossible to give here more than two, but these illustrations ought to be sufficient to enable any student to construct similar diagrams for any ordinarily occurring mechanism. Practice alone in this art, as in others, can give skill and facility. The draughtsman will find the working out of a few examples not only very interesting, but also extremely instructive. The principles of the method have already been explained in our issue of 31st July of last year. For a fuller exposition, and especially for the methods of overcoming difficulties that occur in dealing with particular mechanisms, the reader must be referred to the original paper itself, read before the Royal Society of Edinburgh at the beginning of last year, and printed in the volume of the proceedings of that institution just issued. The diagrams are reproduced here on about half the scale to which they were originally drawn, but the scales marked on the engravings are those of the engravings, not those of the original drawings.

Fig. 1 shows the set of diagrams for a Stephenson reversing link motion for a single slide valve with two excentrics. It is taken in mid gear. The dimensions and speed are stated on the diagram. The angular velocity of the crank shaft is taken as uniform.

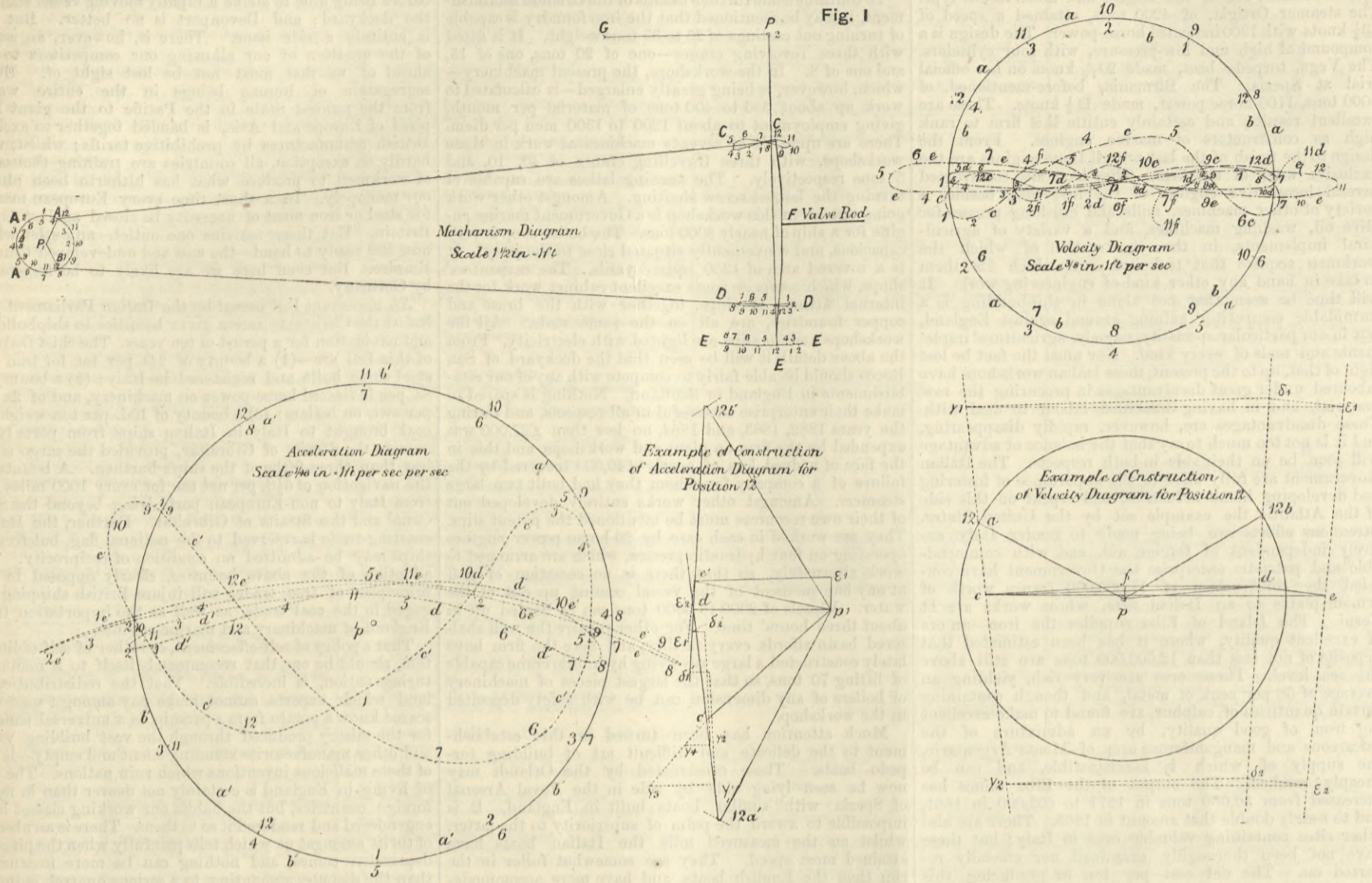
P_1 is the crank shaft bearing. A is the forward and B is the backward excentric. The link CD is suspended at the point E by the suspension rod $P_2 E$, P_3 being a fixed point regulated in position for forward or backward gear by the rocking shaft $G P_3$.

The velocities $p a$ and $p b$ are first calculated and plotted off. The constructions are shown for position 12 of both velocity and acceleration diagrams, the illustration of the construction being placed separate on the paper from the main diagrams for the sake of clearness. Through a and b are drawn the lines $\gamma_1 \gamma_2$ and $\delta_1 \delta_2$ perpendicular to AC and BD . It is known that the points c and d , giving $p c$ and $p d$ the velocities of C and D , must lie on these lines. From any points $\gamma_1 \gamma_2$ on the first of these lines are drawn $\gamma_1 \delta_1$ and $\gamma_2 \delta_2$ perpendicular to CD , and $\gamma_1 \epsilon_1$ and $\gamma_2 \epsilon_2$ perpendicular to CE . Then $\delta_1 \epsilon_1$ and $\delta_2 \epsilon_2$ are drawn perpendicular to DE , and determining the intersec-

tions ϵ_1, ϵ_2 ; so that the triangles $\gamma_1 \delta_1 \epsilon_1$ and $\gamma_2 \delta_2 \epsilon_2$ are similar to CDE, and therefore the point e , giving pe the velocity of E, must lie on the line $\epsilon_1 \epsilon_2$. But pe is perpendicular to $P_2 E$. Therefore from p is drawn pe perpendicular to $P_2 E$ and intersecting $\epsilon_1 \epsilon_2$ in e . From e

b' parallel to CA and DB. These are extremely small. From the points so obtained are drawn lines $\gamma_1 \gamma_1'$ and $\delta_1 \delta_1'$ perpendicular to CA and DB. These are known to contain the points c' and d' . On the first of these two lines are taken any two points γ_1' and γ_2' , and from them is plotted parallel

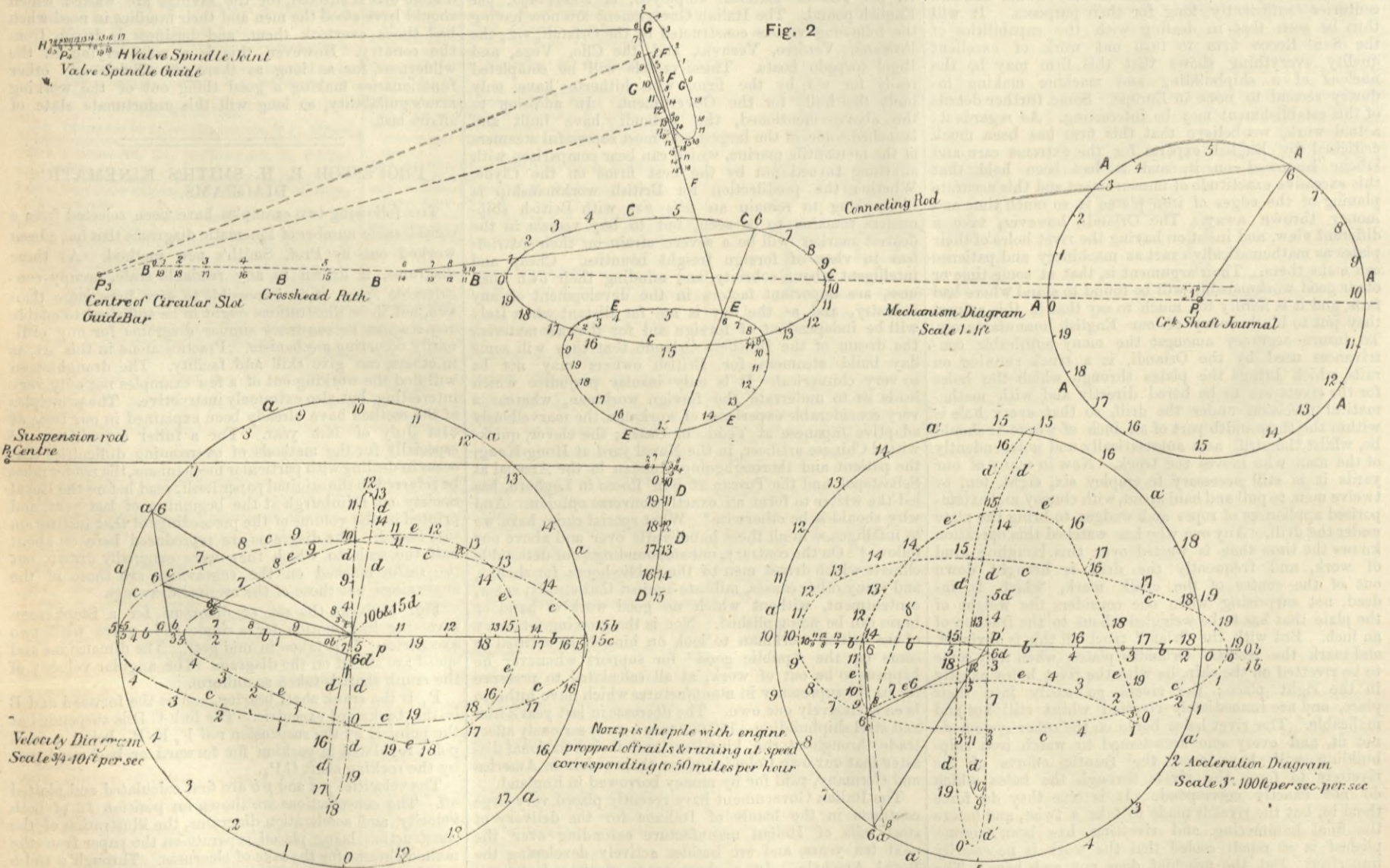
point P_2 is calculated and plotted off from p' parallel to EP_2 . It is named in the diagram $p' \epsilon_1'$. From ϵ_1' is drawn $\epsilon_1' \epsilon_2'$ perpendicular to $P_2 E$ and meeting the line $\epsilon_1' \epsilon_2'$ in e' . This is the correct position of e' , giving $p' \epsilon_1' e'$ the acceleration of E. The accelera-



thus found is constructed the triangle edc , similar to EDC, with corresponding sides perpendicular. The point f is then found by making triangle cdf similar to CDE. This completes the velocity diagram.

to DC the centripetal acceleration $(cd)^2 / CD$ of D round C, which is calculated in the usual way. From the points so obtained are drawn lines perpendicular to DC to intersect

tion of C is now found by plotting from γ_1' and γ_2' in any parallel directions, the lengths $\gamma_1' \gamma_3$ and $\gamma_2' \gamma_4$ equal to the "errors" $\epsilon_1' e_1$ and $\epsilon_2' e_2$. The line drawn through $\gamma_3 \gamma_4$ intersects the line $\gamma_1' \gamma_2'$ in the correct posi-



In the acceleration diagram $p' a'$ and $p' b'$ are easily calculated and plotted off. The centripetal accelerations $(ac)^2 / AC$ and $(bd)^2 / BD$ are then calculated and plotted off from a' and

the line $\delta_1 \delta_1'$ in δ_1' and δ_2' . The two points ϵ_1' and ϵ_2' are then found by making the triangles $\gamma_1' \delta_1' \epsilon_1'$ and $\gamma_2' \delta_2' \epsilon_2'$ similar to CDE.

The centripetal acceleration $(pe)^2 / P_2 E$ of E round the fixed

tion of c' , and from this the position of d' can be obtained by making the triangle $c' e' d'$ similar to CED. This construction amounts to "linear interpolation" between the above two "errors." The point f' can then be found directly by the construction of similar triangles.

In proceeding with the construction of the motion paths of C and D in the mechanism diagram, use is made of the directions of the velocities of C and D, already found in the velocity diagram, these directions being those of the tangents to the motion-paths of C and D. The deflection from the tangents is estimated with the help of the acceleration diagram.

Fig. 2 is for Joy's valve gear, as arranged by Mr. F. W. Webb in the Crewe compound locomotives, shows the diagrams when the reversing lever is in full forward gear. The crank shaft bearing is at P₁, the crank-pin is A, and B is the cross head. From the intermediate joint, C, in the connecting-rod a link stretches to D, at which joint it is guided to move in a circular path by the suspension-link P₂D. From the joint E in the link CD, another link stretches to F, at which joint it is guided to move along a motionless circular slot, whose centre of curvature is at P₃. This circular slot is moved into different positions for forward, mid, and back gear. The valve-rod G H is driven from the joint G in the link EF produced. The end H of the valve-rod is guided in a straight line by the guide-surface P₄. The motion of H is the same as that of the valve.

In the velocity diagram, the construction is shown in full lines for position 6, the whole crank-pin circle being divided into twenty parts. pa is drawn from the known speed of rotation, and ab is drawn perpendicular to AB to meet the horizontal through p in b . Then ab is divided in the same ratio as AB is divided in C in order to obtain the point c . From c is drawn a line perpendicular to CD and from p a line perpendicular to P_2D . The intersection of these two lines gives the point d' of the diagram, and then cd' is divided in the same ratio as CD is in E to obtain the point e . From e is drawn a line perpendicular to EF , and from p a line perpendicular to P_3F . The intersection of these two gives f , and then ef is produced to g in the ratio $\frac{EG}{EF}$. From g thus found a line is drawn perpendicular to GH to meet in h the horizontal line through p , i.e., the line through p parallel to the guide surface P_4 . This last part is not drawn in on Plate IV, in order to avoid confusion with the small scale of the engraving. In the acceleration diagram $p'a'$ is the centripetal acceleration of A in its uniform circular motion. $a'b'$ is equal to $\frac{(ab)^2}{AB}$ and parallel to BA and $b'b'$, perpendicular to BA , meets the horizontal through p' in b' . Then $a'b'$ is divided in c' similarly to AB in C . Then $c'd'$ is made equal to $\frac{(cd)^2}{CD}$ and parallel to DC , and from d' a line is drawn perpendicular to CD . Also from p' is drawn a line parallel to DP_2 and equal to $\frac{(p'd)^2}{P_2D}$ and from its extremity a line is drawn perpendicular to P_2D . This meets the line drawn from d' in the point d'' which is thus determined. The line $c'd''$ is then divided in e' similarly to CD in E . The points f' , g' , h' are then found by repetitions of precisely the same process as has just been described, but these are left out in our plate in order to leave the rest clearer.

BRAKES AT THE INVENTIONS EXHIBITION.

THE AUTOMATIC FRICTION BRAKE (HEBERLEIN SYSTEM).

THREE important systems of automatic railway brakes were shown at the Inventions Exhibition last year, and obtained gold medals, namely, the Westinghouse Air Brake, the Gresham Vacuum Brake, and the Automatic Friction Brake. Descriptions of the first and second will be found in our impressions for Aug. 21st and Oct. 16th, 1885. This week we illustrate the third and last. This is by no means to be confounded with the original Heberlein brake, as tested some years ago in this country. Indeed, there is only a general resemblance between the two.

The principle involved in making a running train apply its own brakes is very old. As far back as 1853 at all events, a brake was devised in which one axle of every carriage in the train was fitted with a roller, on which a chain was wound up when a clutch was brought into gear. This chain was coupled to two sets of brake blocks—that is four blocks for the four wheels of the coach. The clutches were thrown into gear when a continuous cord, running the length of the train, was pulled. The brakes could also be put on by shutting off steam and applying the tender brake. Then as the carriages pushed against each other and drove the buffers home, levers from the ends of the buffer rods threw the clutches into gear. This was, however, a very crude and unsatisfactory arrangement, and the invention came to nothing. Several patents for brakes of this kind were taken out, and the original Heberlein brake attained some popularity on the Continent. The Clark brake and the Clark and Webb brake followed. The automatic friction brake is without the disadvantages which have hitherto attended the use of chain brakes, the objections to the system having been got over by very ingenious methods, which deserve attention and explanation.

It will be found on examination that there is one fundamental principle underlying all successful automatic brakes, which is that a constant effort shall be exerted to keep the brakes off, and that they shall go on as soon as this effort is suspended. Take, for example, the Westinghouse brake; in it a constant pressure of air must be maintained in the pipes under the train, or the brakes will go on. In the automatic vacuum brake a constant vacuum must be maintained, or the brakes will go on. In the automatic friction brake it is necessary that a cord shall always be kept tight throughout the length of the train, to prevent the brakes from applying themselves. The result in each case is the same—if the train parts, the pipe or cord gives way, and the brakes go on. In the simple, or non-automatic brakes, the positive effort has to be made to put the blocks against the wheels. Thus, in the original Heberlein brake and the Clark brake a cord has to be pulled when the train is to be stopped; in the brake which we illustrate the cord has

to be released. This is a most important difference, and by the adoption of this system a very bad brake has been converted into a very good one.

Before going on to describe the automatic friction brake, it may be well to dispose of certain objections which may be urged against it. The first of these is that it is impossible to use the cord on a long train so as to apply all the brakes. This was only true so long as the cord had to be pulled; it has no existence when the cord has only to be slackened out. A second objection is that the chains putting the brakes on are liable to be broken by the sudden shock or "chuck" caused by the blocks coming home before the momentum is taken out of the rotating wheels. This is guarded against in two ways—first by using a chain of very peculiar construction, and secondly by taking care that the friction wheels shall not be forced home too hard. A third objection is that flat places wear on the friction wheels. As a matter of fact, a great deal of trouble was at one time caused in this way, the wheels wearing into all sorts of shapes. After a good deal of experimenting, it was found that steel friction wheels working against soft cast iron axle drums will run for many years without loss of shape. The result of the adoption of the various improvements to which we have alluded is that the automatic friction brake now plays an important part abroad, where it has been adopted on all the Prussian Government subsidiary lines, and is also in use on the following railways and light railways:—Jura-Berne-Lucerne; Swedish States; Bahia and San Francisco; Gefle-dala; Harz-Mountain; Saronno-Como; La Sarthe; Kiel-Flensburg; Saxon States; Orel-Witepsk; La Guaira and Caraccas; Brunswick; Java; Oldenburg; Puerto-Cabello and Valencia; Mecklenburg Southern; Arezzo Fossato. In this country this brake can be seen in use on the Colne Valley Railway.

The brake blocks are applied to the wheels by the apparatus shown in Fig. 4 of our supplement. The friction roller b , mounted in a frame d , which hangs from supports g , fixed to the under-frame of the vehicle, can be lowered by means of the rod h into contact with the drum a , which is keyed on to and therefore revolves with the axle of the vehicle. The roller b is thus caused to revolve, owing to the friction between it and the revolving axle drum a , and consequently to wind up on its shaft the transmission chain e , which is so constructed as to wind clear of itself at each revolution, and thus transmit the force in a constant ratio to the brake chain f by turning the multiplying roller c , to the shaft of which the latter chain is attached. To the opposite end of this chain f the brake rod itself is attached, and by its action the brake blocks are caused to press against the wheel tires. The chain is of the watch fusee type, but as will be seen from the end view—Fig. 4—each link is so made that it winds up a little to the left of the preceding link, so that the links can never ride on one another. On the frame d being again raised by means of the lifting gear in connection with the rod h , either by hand or by tightening the brake cord, the friction roller is drawn out of contact with the axle drum, and the action of a counterweight unwinds the chain and releases the brake blocks. Fig. 6 shows the small apparatus used for light rolling stock, the multiplying roller c and chain e being dispensed with, and a roller with double friction surfaces employed, with a corresponding axle drum, and with a forked brake chain, constructed on the same principle as the transmission chain e of Fig. 4, but winding up in the centre of the shaft.

The brake cord plays a very important part. It is a small, strong, flexible rope, and the way in which it is passed over pulleys attached to the lifting rods, by which the brakes are kept off, is shown by Figs. 10 and 12.

The brake is applied from the foot-plate by a very elegant device, illustrated by Fig. 14. This is one of the most ingenious friction clutches ever made. It has always been an objection to chain brakes that their action cannot be graduated, and it is sufficiently evident that, were the train rope suddenly released, all the brakes would go hard on at once. To prevent this the friction clutch reel is used. A cast iron drum, having at one end a conical internal surface, and divided into two parts c and d by a partition, in the edge of which are four slits i , runs loose upon a spindle b , which is supported on a cast iron frame a , and has mounted on it at one end a crank handle and at the other a cone, fitted with a ratchet A . On the crank handle being turned, a screw thread on the spindle draws the cone into contact with the drum, thus forming a friction clutch, by the action of which the drum is made to revolve, the cord is wound up, and the friction brake apparatus is lifted out of contact with the axle drum, and so maintained by the cone being held by the ratchet and a click attached to the frame a . When the cones are again separated by the screw being turned in the opposite direction by the crank handle, the reel drum is again free to run loose upon the spindle, thus slackening the brake cord and permitting the brake apparatus to drop into action.

The handle can be so used as to allow the reel drum to revolve backwards as fast or as slow as may be wished, so as to keep the train cord at any desired degree of tension, thus only allowing the necessary number of brake blocks to come into play. In this way the brake is used with perfect success in running down long banks. To use the brake reel the engine driver, after the engine has been coupled to the train, and the train brake cord attached by means of the coupling hooks—Fig. 7—to the portion of cord fastened to the reel, proceeds to wind up any surplus cord on the left-hand or larger division of the reel c , and then passes the cord through one of the slits in the partition on to the smaller division d , thus obtaining greater leverage for tightening the cord and taking off the brakes with a minimum of bodily exertion. The end of the cord on the last carriage should, if with carriages on the American system, be hooked into the slip catch, Fig. 8, fixed on the platform rail, any passenger being thus able to apply all the brakes in case of emergency by simply turning over the weighted handle of the catch, upon which the cord will be slipped.

By means of the apparatus which we have described,

the following conditions are fulfilled:—(1) When the system is employed as a continuous brake the engine-driver not only has the power at any moment of instantly applying all the brakes in the train by one simple movement of the brake-reel handle, but he has also a perfect control over the amount of brake-power to be given, and can thus regulate at pleasure the speed of the train. (2) It is also in the power of each guard to apply, in any emergency, the whole of the brakes; and the same power can be given, if thought desirable, to every passenger. (3) In case of any accident, the rupture of a coupling is instantly followed by the snapping of the brake-cord, when the whole of the brakes drop automatically into action. (4) Each brake is available separately as a far more rapidly-applied and efficient hand-brake than the ordinary screw-brake, which can therefore be dispensed with—the friction system thus comparing most favourably with all systems with which supplementary screw-brakes have to be fitted. (5) Vehicles not fitted with brakes, or belonging to other railways, can be coupled into the trains without in any manner interfering with the working of the brakes, since the continuous connection, and consequent control, can be maintained by passing spare lengths of brake-cord over any such vehicles. (6) Since each apparatus forms of itself a perfectly independent brake, any injury to one in no way affects any of the others in the train. (7) The friction-brake system offers the greatest possible security against dangers resulting from neglect on the part of any employes when making-up the train, because unless the continuous brake-cord is duly coupled up the train cannot leave the platform, as the engine-driver is unable to take off the brakes; so that it follows that no train can be in motion at all without its brake-power being at command. (8) The friction-brake system is specially suitable for goods trains, either continuously from the engine, or else worked in groups with a brakeman for each group only.

The question of braking the driving wheels of the locomotive, and thus making use of its great weight as a retarding force, has for many years been warmly disputed, but may now be said to be practically decided in the affirmative by the consensus of opinion of the leading railway engineers of all countries. It is, however, still an open question as to the advisability, or otherwise, of connecting the engine brake with the automatic train-brakes, so as to make it also self-acting in case of danger. Should any accident occur in the front portion of a long train at high speed, it must, doubtless, be inadvisable to apply any excess of brake power in front of the disabled vehicle, since it would cause the danger to be increased by the running up of the vehicles behind. In the system under notice, therefore, the engine drivers' driving wheel brake is invariably treated as an independent emergency brake, under his sole control; the tender-brake, on the contrary—should there be a tender—coming under the continuous control of the driver and guards, and also acting automatically in case of accident.

Our supplement illustrates very clearly the way in which this brake is used under different conditions:—Fig. 1 is a passenger locomotive, with engine and tender brakes, and with friction brake-reel and cord for the continuous control of the tender and train brakes. The engine brake is worked by hand separately as a special emergency brake only. Fig. 2: Goods locomotive, with driver's emergency engine brake. Fig. 3: Tank engine, with brake-reel and cord for the control of the continuous brakes. Fig. 4: Friction brake apparatus for ordinary rolling-stock— a , axle-drum; b , friction roller; c , multiplying roller; d , frame; e , transmission chain; f , brake chain and rod; g , support; h , lifting-rod connection. Fig. 5: Guard's van and passenger carriage, showing the mode of working the brakes with the brake-reel in the van—see Fig. 9—or of applying the brakes, in any emergency, from the brakeman's seat on the carriage by slipping the hook on the lifting-rod, and thus severing the continuous connection—see Fig. 12. Fig. 6: Friction brake apparatus for light railways, &c.— a , axle-drum; b , friction roller; c , apparatus frame, with chain roller; d , support; e , brake chain and rod; f , lifting rod connection. Fig. 7: Cord hooks, showing the method of coupling together the continuous brake cord, as well as of fastening the cord by a knot jammed in the conical head of the hook. Fig. 8: Slip for letting go the cord on the last vehicle of a train so as to apply the brakes in any emergency. Fig. 9: Guard's van brake-reel, to enable the guard to work the cord and control the brakes, if required, as well as the engine driver. Fig. 10: Lifting-rod support with bell-crank lever and lifting rod. Fig. 11: Friction brake as applied to an eight-wheeled bogie vehicle. Fig. 12: Lifting pulley and rod, showing slip arrangement for brakeman in cases of sudden emergency, and also handle and ring for working as a hand brake. Fig. 13: Portable cord-guide support, to be carried in the van and used when several strange vehicles, without fittings, are coupled in between the train and engine. Fig. 14: Engine driver's friction reel for the continuous control of the brakes— a , cast iron frame; b , shaft; c , d , drum, in two divisions, of different diameters; e , f , cone, with ratchet and click; g , crank handle; h , stop for limiting reverse movement of crank handle. Fig. 15: Passenger train and engine with engine hand brake and continuous tender and train brake, and with a wagon, without any fittings, coupled in between train and engine. Fig. 16: Mixed train, showing use of temporary cord support—Fig. 13—for enabling the cord to be worked over several goods wagons. Fig. 17: Goods wagons, coupled in brake groups, each under the control of one brakeman. Fig. 18: Steam tramway train and engine.

So much prejudice has been raised in this country against the chain brake system, owing to its notorious failures on the London and North-Western Railway, that we feel in a manner bound to justify ourselves for devoting so much space to the brake we have just described. We therefore give some extracts from statements made by independent engineers, which speak for themselves. Mr. James Livesey, engineer-in-chief of the La Guayra and Caracas line, writes:—"For a distance of nearly twenty miles there is a continuous gradient of 1 in 27, with a succession of curves and reverse curves of 130ft. radius from one end of the line to the other. To convey an idea of the

aerial character of the railway at certain points, it may be stated that the line is there carried along a mere ledge cut into the face of the perpendicular rock, some 3000ft. high, and that a biscuit dropped from the train would fall 1800ft. before touching the ground. On such a railway it requires a steady hand and strong nerve to conduct the trains, and both drivers and guards must be provided with means to meet all emergencies. The greater proportion of the traffic being up, the engines are all heavily laden. Each wagon carries, as a rule, from 10 to 14 tons, and is provided with two powerful brakes, a hand screw brake, and an automatic continuous brake, the apparatus being so arranged that both the engine-driver and guard have command over the train; and any passenger may in an instant put on the brakes throughout the train. If by accident a carriage or wagon should break adrift, not only is the brake on that wagon instantly applied automatically by the very fact of its breaking away, but the brakes are applied throughout the train, which is then brought to a standstill. The engines weigh 33 tons each, and are capable of drawing up a weight of 80 tons, exclusive of their own weight. The concession for the line having been granted in 1880, the work was commenced in January, 1882, and was expeditiously executed by Messrs. Perry and Co.* The brakes referred to are those just described. The screw brakes were fitted as a reserve until the men became accustomed to the Heberlein gear, but rolling stock recently ordered for this line and others in South America is without screw brakes.

Probably one of the most important features about a goods train brake is that it enables guards to be dispensed with, and thus reduces working expenses. On this subject we give the following statement, dated Elberfeld, March 20th, 1885:—"The groups of brake wagons fitted with the newest form of Heberlein brakes for the service of our Hochdahl-Erkrath line, with an incline of 1 in 30, have answered until now extremely well. The first group is in regular service since December, 1883, and the second one since October, 1884, each group consisting of three wagons, the brakes of which are controlled by one man. A saving in brakemen has so far been effected, that those stationed at Hochdahl, who, on certain days with much traffic, were not sufficient for the heavy goods trains, and had to be supplemented by extra brakemen, can now, since the introduction of brake groups, manage the duty without assistance, or, at any rate, do not require it to the same extent. We also hereby certify that the Remscheid passenger trains which were fitted in 1878 with Heberlein brakes, under the immediate and sole control of the engine-driver by means of a brake-reel, perform their daily service without any extra brakemen, and without any difficulty whatever, as well on the Hochdahl-Erkrath incline, as also on the Ronsdorf-Rittershausen line, which is full of curves, and has an incline of 1 in 40." (Signed) "BRANDHOFF."

Heavy votes have been passed for the construction of an immense network of subsidiary or branch lines of the Royal Prussian State Railways. A paper on these lines was read before the Society for the Promotion of Railway Science, in March, 1884, by M. Stambke, Chief of the Technical Department in the Ministry of Public Works, in which the following passage occurs:—"As is well known, the question of subsidiary lines has of late years, when planning new railways, been brought forward more prominently than that of main lines. As regards the Prussian State Railways, for instance, in the projects of law proposed on May 15th, 1882, May 21st, 1883, and now again quite recently, the lines proposed to be built consist almost entirely of such subsidiary lines. According to the 'Railway Archives,' of March 1884, No. 2, the sum of 273,992,390 marks has been granted by the Prussian Chambers since 1879 for building or subsidising new railways, and of this sum 225,522,690 marks are for 2962·7 kilometres of subsidiary lines, and only 48,469,700 marks for 373·9 kilometres of main lines.* In addition to the above a number of lines which were originally constructed as main lines are now worked, under the law of June 12th, 1878, as subsidiary lines, so that at the present time all the Royal Directions have subsidiary lines under their supervision, of which some are in traffic and others are being constructed, whilst others are being surveyed. On such lines, in order to save the expense of special brakemen, the trains are fitted up with a continuous brake. As the trains on subsidiary railways are generally mixed ones, and as the goods' wagons coupled in between the engine and the passenger carriages interfere with the working of the brakes by the engine driver,† the Heberlein brake, being the only system which could be employed, has been selected as the normal brake." With reference to the above, the following rolling stock has already been fitted on the Heberlein system for the Royal Prussian States Railways:—368 engines, 169 vans, 1034 carriages and wagons.

This concludes our notice of the railway brake systems exhibited last year at South Kensington. For obvious reasons we have instituted no comparisons between them and expressed no opinions concerning their relative merits. They one and all embody very ingenious ideas, and are the outcome of experience collected with much expenditure of time, patience, and money. We have done our best to place them impartially before our readers, and in all cases we have taken every care to arrive at the truth by personal investigation, and to put forward no statements made by inventors or exhibitors that did not appear to be founded on fact. Inventors will do well, we think, to draw a lesson from the history of the Westinghouse, the vacuum, and the chain brake, namely, that they can spend their talents, their time, and their money on no more hopeless task than the invention of a brake intended to take the place of any one of the three. They probably represent finality as much as does the locomotive engine itself.

THEATRICAL MECHANISM AT THE LYCEUM THEATRE.

The mechanical engineering of the stage has been recognised in the columns of THE ENGINEER on several occasions. In February, 1884, we published an illustrated description of the machinery used in the Paris Opera House, and later we illustrated the new aquatic circus in Paris, and we now propose to give an account of a visit behind the scenes of the Lyceum Theatre during the performance of "Faust." In our account of the Paris Opera we mentioned the very conservative nature of the theatrical machinist's craft, which, perhaps, has been handed down from father to son, each having to produce more astounding and marvellous effects with increasing difficulty, owing to the cumbrous machinery that is usually employed. These remarks cannot fairly be applied to the modern stage as illustrated by the Lyceum under Mr. Irving's management, who, assisted with a most efficient stage manager, Mr. H. J. Loveday, and an army of well-drilled stage workmen, has defied the rule of precedents, and takes advantage of all kind of mechanical devices most successfully.

Some of our readers may be unacquainted with the proportions and technical arrangements of the stage, which we will briefly describe, with special reference to the Lyceum. The width of the proscenium arch is 33ft. 5in., and from this for a distance of 40ft. is the stage proper, the apparent distance being greatly increased by the inclination given to the floor, which is about $\frac{1}{4}$ in. to the foot. The total height was formerly 48ft., but on account of the very large quantity of scenery which has to be changed during the production of "Faust," and which, failing other stowage space, has to be suspended, it was found necessary to specially raise the roof of the theatre 12ft., thus making the total available height inside 60ft. The scenery employed is nearly all "built up," instead of painted on the flat, to give a perspective appearance—that is to say, constructed of moulded cardboard coloured to imitate stone or brick; this, although a great improvement on the usual plan of painted canvas scenes stretched on what are termed "frames," would be much heavier to move if the friction were not overcome by the use of small india-rubber covered wheels. The "wings," or side scenes, are held in place by braces, iron supports covered with leather to prevent noise, jammed against the framework, and secured to the floor by a stage screw. This small matter occupies the attention of a man whose sole duty is to attend to, perhaps, six braces, and to fix and remove the stage screw at the word of command.

The lighting is obtained from gas, the side lights, which are removable, being produced from gas batterns, vertical pipes containing a number of argand burners, the top lights being similarly produced by horizontal batterns with batten burners. It is usual to have two sets of pipes so that two qualities of lighting can be produced, and the chance of a total extinction obviated. The batten lights can be enveloped from below by a framework of calico, known as a medium, the colour of the light being changed by rotating the framework and presenting a medium of the desired shade. Besides these lights, it is necessary to have some ready means of illumination which can be quickly set up in any desired spot. The plan adopted at the Lyceum is to use portable gas brackets mounted on heavy vertical stands, with arrangements for coloured mediums, and connected with the nearest union by means of a leather hose; any leakage between the gas tap, which is let in flush with the stage, and the hose is prevented by a simple water joint, care being taken always to keep sufficient head of water to overcome the pressure of the gas. This very old device appears to answer admirably, and besides being easy to connect up, draws attention to the shortness of water by the noise of the gas bubbling through. India-rubber has for some time been discarded on account of the difficulty in keeping it gas-tight; well-oiled leather appears to last well, and is not easily damaged. So far we have only considered the gas lighting, but as the spectacular effects of the Brocken scene require the combined display of twenty-five lime lights, the arrangements for their production must of necessity be on a large scale. The oxygen and hydrogen gases are stored in large vertical cylinders in what might be termed the stage basement, the necessary pressure being produced by partly filling the cylinders with water from the main. Separate pipes are led to all parts of the stage, so that to produce the light it is only necessary to connect the limelight burners to the two pressure mains; the advantage of this plan will be readily understood by those who have had experience of the old-fashioned gas bags or the still more cumbersome gas cylinders which are used in America for a similar purpose. We must confess to a slight feeling of disappointment when we were told that the electric light was not used at the Lyceum, having been much impressed by the extremely vivid lightning, which appeared somewhat tame, when it was explained that the flashes were not electrical but produced by a special powder burnt in a lycopodium pot, which was found to give a better effect than nature. A fifty cell Grove battery is used on several occasions; in the first scene, to illuminate the book which Faust signs, and also to produce the sparks which come from Mephistopheles' sword when he wards off that of Valentine who is fighting the duel with Faust. This effect is easily produced by the two performers each wearing a metal sole to one of their boots, which is electrically connected to their swords by means of an insulated wire, contact being made by stepping on two metallic plates, to which the two wires from the battery are joined. The 90 volt intermittent current which is generated, however, caused an unpleasant shock to Valentine at the first performance when he inadvertently grasped an uninsulated portion of the sword hilt. Steam takes a very important part in the play; by its aid Mephistopheles is apparently evolved from the brazier in the study scene, and throughout the piece disappearances of his satanic majesty are assisted by the same agent. The first question we asked was, How do you get rid of the noise, as the vapour appears to spring up silently and mysteriously from the stage floor? On being led below we found the appliances to consist as follows:—A gas heated boiler supplies steam at 60 lb. per square inch pressure, which is led by lin. pipes to a valve near the point of escape, from which the pipe is enlarged to 4in., and on it funnel-shaped openings, also provided with taps, look upwards. This effect, as well as every other stage device, is controlled by the prompter by means of a "pull" or signal string, to which a small weight is attached. On the prepare-for-steam signal the stop-cock is opened, the contents of the small pipe are allowed to expand into the larger one, and, on the second pull, other assistants open the several cocks which control the admission to the stage. Nothing can be simpler or more effective, yet the easy method of overcoming the noise was only arrived at after many experiments. The appearance of fire spurting from the ground where the enchanted wine has been dropped is produced by a funnel-shaped gaspipe, covered with paper, held immediately under a grating on the stage. The prompter turns up the gas, which is kept lighted, by means of a bye-pass, and the

particles of burning paper give a realistic appearance to the flame.

We drew attention, in our description of the opera of "l'Africaine," to the immense weights which have to be moved, and gave details of the shipwreck scene, in which a mass of timber framing and superstructure weighing seven tons, and having an area of 2000 square feet, had to be brought on the stage in the interval between the acts and shifted sideways a distance of 22ft. This and the subsequent lowering a distance of 6ft. to represent the sinking of the ship, although a triumph in its way, does not compare with what is nightly undertaken at the Lyceum. It is true no such ponderous weight has to be moved in a mass, although the total weight of scenery which has to be planted on the stage both in the representation of the St. Lorenz Platz and the subsequent cathedral scene is probably much greater. On the Continent long waits between the acts are the rule, but at the Lyceum the curtain rises after twelve minutes' interval, so that in order to lose no time the different heavy parts of the scene which represent the statuary, archway, market cross, &c., have to be kept ready slung in the flies, and are immediately lowered by signal on to the framework, which is quickly fitted together. There is no noise or bustle on the drop curtain descending, the scene-shifters, who all wear india-rubber shoes, fall into their respective places much like men-of-war's-men at station drill, all doing their allotted work at the word of command, which is given by signs. In this scene a very curious effect is produced which has puzzled many professionals, in that on the curtain rising the stained-glass windows of the cathedral appear to be illuminated, and later on the whole side of the church becomes transparent, discovering Marguerite at prayer, also the priests and congregation at mass before the high altar. To produce this two scenes are painted, one on opaque linen, and in front one on very fine gauze; the stained-glass windows are made of silk, and are let into the opaque cloth which, on being drawn up, leaves the semi-transparent gauze only. The whole of this scene is supposed to take place at night, so that it is necessary to fully illuminate the interior of the cathedral and leave the outside street in partial darkness; this is ingeniously accomplished by lowering a curtain from above which shuts off all the outside light, the curtain being removed when the exterior of the structure is again revealed. The scene on the summit of the Brocken is perhaps the most impressive in the piece. It has been described as a study in black and white and grey: "a mass of time-worn rocks on one hand, two weather-beaten pines on the other, between them a snowy valley, the distance a mystery of vaporous cloud, through and across which the lightning plays." After this description the reality appears rather prosaic. The rocks are of moulded cardboard, and are deftly built into one another so as to overlie a timber framework which rises at about an angle of 20 deg. from the front of the stage. On this the trees 20ft. high, also of moulded work, are easily planted, and on the spectators' right a timber framework, which, when expanded like an open parallel rule, forms a substantial foundation for the huge rock on which Mephisto stands. The peculiar lighting of this scene, imitating that from frequent lightning flashes, is produced by gas flares and groups of Argand burners turned up and down at frequent intervals; the lightning, if openly displayed, would be too vivid, so the effect is produced behind a suitably painted transparent screen hung before the background; other screens represent the moon with storm-driven clouds. The finale of the mountain on fire is perhaps the easiest part of the act, and is due to some twenty-five lime-lights with red glass slides blazing through every portion of the background and focussed on to numerous steam orifices; the tableaux is also assisted by a shower of gold tinsel distributed from the bridges above by men carrying baskets and walking to-and-fro. Two hundred and fifty persons take part in this scene which necessitates great care that the framework should be strong enough to bear their weight in motion as they climb over the rocks. This is successfully accomplished, yet the whole superstructure is cleared away, and the bare stage prepared for the dungeon scene in less than ten minutes from the fall of the curtain. Stage thunder has always been a subject of ridicule, but so many novelties have been introduced at the Lyceum in that the 6in., 8in., and 9in. cannon balls, besides rolling a considerable distance down an inclined shoot, are first of all placed in several hoppers from which they fall about 8ft. on to a lin. boiler-plate when released by slides either singly or, as in the final crash, a ton at a time. It is curious to note the prejudice against iron existing amongst theatrical machinists; out of all the hoisting drums used at the theatre we only found two with iron barrels and gear; the old form of wooden wheel and axle prevails, and the same remark applies to the ropes, which we were informed constantly have to be renewed, whereas if made of steel wire they would be far more durable; a wire rope is used in the last act to support a Jacob's ladder arrangement of T-iron, and was pointed out to us as a veritable curiosity on account of its small diameter and guaranteed strength. One other point we think is worthy the attention of stage managers—that is, the introduction of hydraulic power to lower the heavy curtain and drop, which might be easily accomplished by the prompter; as yet, however, we believe the Hydraulic Power Company has not succeeded in inducing any theatrical proprietor to try the experiment, which, if successful, would render the services of the six men who attend the curtain available for some other work.

NAVAL ENGINEER APPOINTMENTS.—The following appointments have been made at the Admiralty: William J. Maudling, engineer, to the President, additional, for temporary service at the Admiralty; David J. Bennett, engineer, to the Indus, additional, for temporary service as Admiralty overseer on the Clyde; and Joseph H. W. H. Ellis, to the Vernon, additional, for temporary service at torpedo store; Charles W. Thorne, engineer, to the Algerine; John Hale, staff engineer, to the Tourmaline; William S. Coope, chief engineer, to the Royalist.

ROYAL INSTITUTION.—Dr. Lodge is about to give a course of two lectures on fuel and smoke, considered with reference to the scientific principles underlying the use of the one and the avoidance of the other. They are to be delivered on the following days, at three o'clock. Lecture 1, Saturday, April 10th: The requirements of perfect combustion; The three stages of a coal fire: distillation gas burning, and coke burning; Products of combustion and of incandescence; Coal-tar products; Customary methods of supplying air to houses; Principles involved in any proper system of warming and ventilation; Defects, real and imaginary, of gas fires; Objections to solid fuel in any form as involving attention, labour, and dirt; Principles involved in proper stoking; Reasons why gaseous fuel may be expected to become more generally used. Lecture 2, Saturday, April 17th, 1886: Principles involved in the management of furnaces; Various kinds of "smoke consumers;" Various kinds of gas producers; Gas producers and furnaces combined; Minton's oven for pottery; Siemens' regenerative furnace; The use of powdered fuel; Principles involved in the deposition of soil; Effect of crude coal burning on pictures, buildings, vegetation; Effect of smoke on water vapour; Formation of offensive fogs; Defensive system of treatment.

* Further sums of 49,484,000 and 57,742,000 marks have been granted for 1885 and 1886 for the construction of additional subsidiary railways.

† This necessarily refers only to the air-pipe connections of the other system of compressed air brakes (Carpenter system) adopted by the Prussian Government for the express trains on the main lines, and with which the coupling in of any one vehicle without the air pipes at once renders all the brakes in rear of it useless.

RAILWAY MATTERS.

THE total length of the Norwegian railways at present is 1100 miles.

THE Scotch railways are joining with those of England in the opposition to Mr. Mundella's Railway and Canal Traffic Bill.

THE North Metropolitan Tramways Company notifies its intention of applying to Parliament in the present session, by petition, for leave to insert in its No. 1 Bill, now pending in the House of Commons, a clause or clauses authorising the company to use electricity as a power for moving carriages on portions of its existing or authorised tramways in West Ham, East Ham, and Leyton.

A REPORT by Major-General Hutchinson on the collision which occurred on the 8th February, at Ings Junction, near Wakefield—Kirkgate—station, on the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway, has been issued by the Board of Trade.

MR. THOMAS RAY, chief goods manager of the London and North-Western Railway, died at the North-Western Hotel, Crewe, on Wednesday, under melancholy circumstances.

DERAILMENTS continue to be the chief of the frequent accidents on American railways. The accidents on American lines are classed as to their number and causes as follows by the Railroad Gazette.

THE most frequent cause of railway accidents is the failure of axles. Besides the 773 accidents on our railways reported last year as causing personal injury, there were 1252 cases reported involving no personal injury.

THE third main division of the report on the railway accidents in the United Kingdom in 1885 deals with accidents to servants, whether of companies or contractors, caused by the travelling of trains or other vehicles on railways.

THE total length of the Austro-Hungarian railways in 1885 was 21,980 miles, against 20,818 in 1884, showing an increase of 1162 miles, equal to 5.6 per cent.

A REMARKABLE instance of the effect of competition by sea and land which at present exists has been brought to our notice within the last few days. The Railway News says a contract has just been entered into between the agents of Italian railways for the delivery at Venice of coal shipped at Cardiff and Swansea, free of all charges, at 20s. per ton.

A SOMEWHAT novel design for a convertible sleeping and day car is described by the Railroad Gazette, introduced by Mr. W. K. Tubman, of Baltimore, Md. The main feature is a series of compartments, formed by removable partitions, along one side of a car with an aisle along the other, and removable yielding berths athwart the car supported upon springs.

NOTES AND MEMORANDA.

THE Times' obituary of March 23rd included advertisement notices of 81 deaths, of which number 44 represent a total of 3133 years, or an average of 78 years each.

HERR A. BLUEMCKE has published determinations of the specific heat of soda solutions containing more than 50 per cent., as possessing a practical value in connection with Honigmann's soda process.

THE Colonies and India says:—"Great satisfaction is felt by the press throughout Western Australia at the satisfactory condition of the colony's finances for the past year, the revenue exceeding the expenditure by nearly £90,000.

A RECENT number of the "Journal" of the Russian Physico-Chemical Society contains an elaborate paper, by K. Kraewitch, on the relation between the elasticity and density of the air in a rarified condition.

IN a note read by M. Sarrau at the Paris Academy of Sciences, on the compressibility of fluids, the author shows that the formula—

p = RT / (v - a) - K / (T(v + beta)^2)

proposed by M. Clausius for carbonic acid, in which p = the pressure, v = volume, and T = absolute temperature, is applicable to other gases.

A CURIOUS phenomenon has been observed by M. Blondlot, and communicated to the French Academy of Sciences. A disc of platinum and a disc of copper, 0.03 metre in diameter, were fixed vertically in front of each other by help of two platinum stands.

FROM a large number of determinations of the electro-motive force of the currents yielded by zinc-copper and lead-platinum couples in various simple saline solutions, B. C. Damien—Ann. Chim. Phys.—finds that the electro-motive force as a rule decreases with the time the couple is immersed.

THE following is suggested in the Electrician as a perfectly fair arc lamp carbon test:—Take a dynamo machine, with its full complement of lamps, and trim the lamps with the same make of carbons; note the speed of the dynamo carefully, and during the test measure the current at frequent intervals with an ammeter; see that all the lamps burn freely, without hissing, and yet not with arcs so long as to flame.

A NEW sweetening agent has been produced from coal-tar. It is known to chemists as "benzoyl sulphuric imide," but it is proposed to name it "saccharine." The discoverer is Dr. Fahlberg, a German chemist in America, and its preparation and properties were recently described by Mr. Ivan Levinstein at a meeting of the Manchester Section of the Society of Chemical Industry.

MISCELLANEA.

MESSRS. KINCAID & Co., engineers, Greenock, have contracted to supply, at a cost of between £2000 and £3000, dock gates for the San Fernando Dock Company.

MESSRS. A. SMITH AND STEVENS have recently connected their hydraulic balance lift at Lloyd's Rooms, Royal Exchange, with the Hydraulic Power Company's mains.

OPERATIONS which have been proceeding for some time at the Marquis of Lothian's Newbattle Colliery, with the object of developing the workings, are now almost completed.

IN accordance with the recommendation of Sir John Coode, tenders have been accepted for the extension of the eastern break-water in Cleveland Bay, Queensland, 300ft. instead of 1500ft., as at first projected.

MESSRS. SCHAFFER AND BUDENBERG, of Manchester, are supplying the whole of the injectors for feeding the boilers in connection with the engines at the Colonial and Indian Exhibition.

EFFORTS which proved futile a couple of years back are again being made in the West Lancashire district to establish a sliding scale for the regulation of miners' wages.

MR. WATERHOUSE, accountant to the North of England Board of Arbitration, has just issued his report for the months of January and February. The average net realised price of plates, bars, angles, and rails was £4 14s. 9d. per ton, being a reduction of 2 3/4d. per ton when compared with the previous two months.

WATERWORKS are about to be established at Abbots Langley, Herts, and Messrs. Le Grand and Sutcliffe, of Bunhill-row, London, have been instructed by the company to sink one of their Artesian tube wells 150ft. deep, and of sufficient size to be capable of yielding 100,000 gallons per day of ten hours.

AT the Edinburgh International Exhibition, which is to be opened in May and continue till October, the manufacturers of Sheffield are to be worthily represented. An Exhibitors' Committee has been formed, and many of the most skilled artisans of the town have responded to the invitation to exhibit.

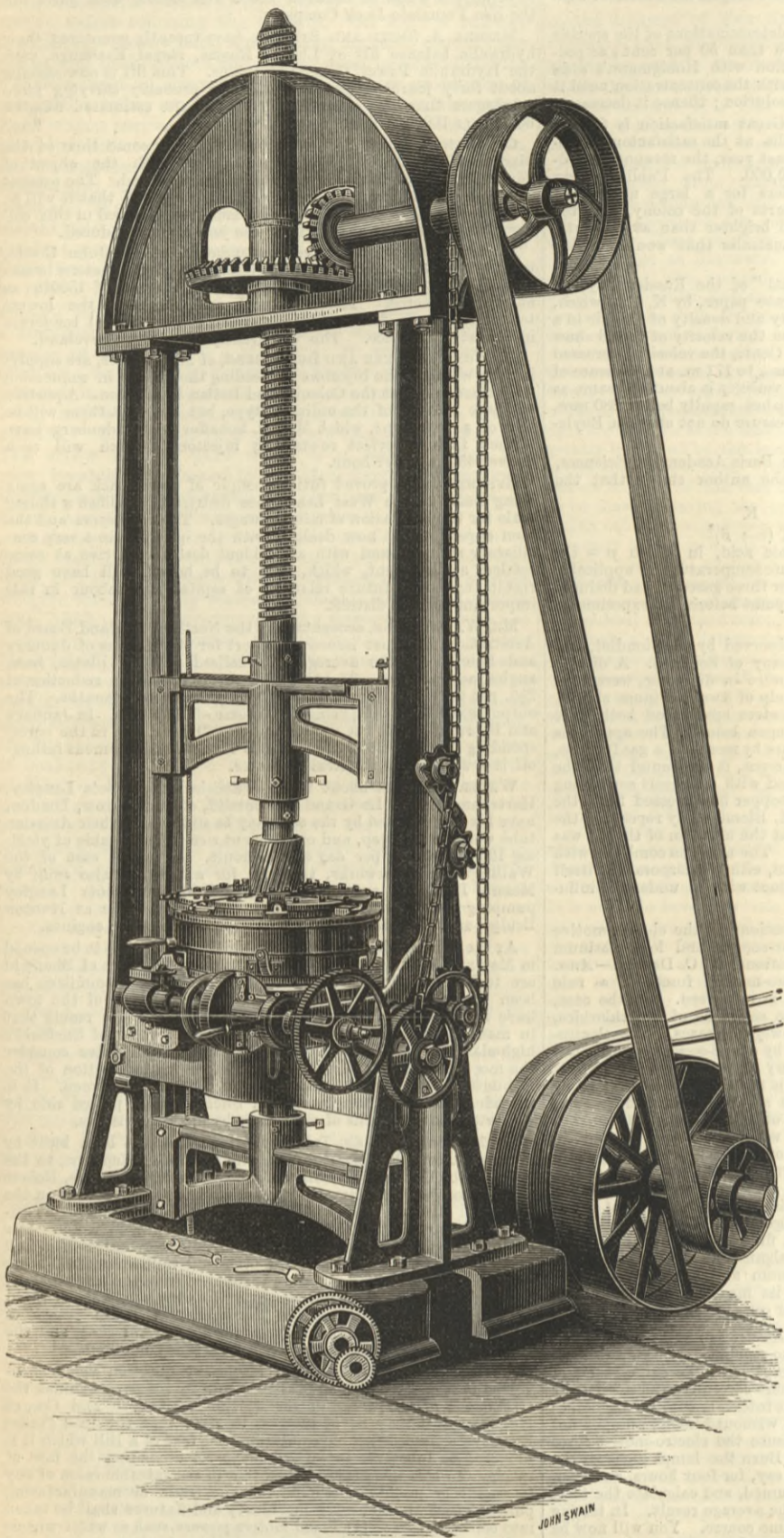
ON 28th inst. the s.s. Talisman, which has just been built by Messrs. R. and W. Hawthorn, Leslie, and Co., Hepburn, to the order of the Ocean Steamship Co., and engaged by Messrs. Robert Stephenson and Co., Newcastle, had a very successful trial on the measured mile at Hartley.

WITH regard to the rating of machinery question which is involved in the important appeal case now in progress against the assessment of the works of Sir Joseph Whitworth and Co., of Manchester, it may be of interest to state that the Iron Trades Employers' Association have published the text of a Bill which it is proposed to introduce into Parliament for amending the law of rating.

THE discussion session of the Manchester Association of Engineers was brought to a close on Saturday last, when Mr. T. J. Daltry read a paper on "Certain Motions used in Weaving." The paper was confined to a description of the various drop-box motions in use, with a narrative of the progress which had been made by different inventors, and in conclusion Mr. Daltry briefly referred to an invention he had himself recently patented.

THE plans and proposal of Mr. W. H. Radford, C.E., of Nottingham, for the drainage of Newhaven have been accepted. Eighteen competitive plans were sent in. The scheme retains those sewers which are in good condition, and utilises the remainder for surface water only.

THE MESSER ROLL CORRUGATOR.



THE MESSER CORRUGATOR.

THE above illustration represents a machine for grooving rolls, and described in the *Age of Steel* as the "Messer corrugator for corrugating mill rolls," casual mention of which was made in their columns a short time ago. A brief description will enable the reader to understand its working. "The roller to be cut is held firmly by both ends, and travels straight up and down through an opening in the tool head, which, rotating simultaneously determines the degree of spiral. This rotation is accomplished by means of a worm operating on a large worm wheel, which forms the outside of the base of the tool-head. The degree of rotation of the worm shaft being governed by a set of change gears, which can be combined similar to those used in screw-cutting on a lathe, the broad base of the tool-head is graduated as an index plate with a sufficient number of circles, properly divided, to enable any practicable distributions of corrugations per inch of circumference, thus making it certain that at the completion of the roll there will be no extra wide or narrow corrugations. The tool-head can be compared in a general way with a large universal combination chuck with eight jaws; each of these jaws carries a tool. One motion of a lever moves all the tools forward to the work on the down stroke of the roll, while a reverse motion of same draws them back on the up stroke to prevent wear or breaking. Besides this universal motion, each tool can be given an independent adjustment if desirable. The tools used are of ordinary tool steel, and as easily made as a chaser for cutting threads in a lathe. The setting of the tools on the tool-head requires no special skill or experience, the arrangement being such that once put in the tool post it is bound to find its proper place. After making the starting cut on the roll, the tools need no further care until the roll is finished. As each tool is required to cut only one-eighth of the face or circumference of the roll, the wear, and consequent grinding of tools so common to chilled ironwork, are dispensed with, and a smooth, uniformly cut roll is the result. It is well known that on machines only using one tool it becomes necessary to grind and reset them several times before a roll is finished. Grinding takes time, and proper resetting is a delicate operation.

On machines where the roll is held by one end only, and operated upon by a single tool, there is naturally a strong

tendency to spring away from the cut. In this machine the roller being held at both ends, the manufacturers overcome the spring or torsion of the gudgeons. Furthermore, there being eight tools spaced diametrically opposite one another, each serves as a support to the other, thus relieving each from an unnatural and injurious strain. Besides being used as a corrugator, this machine is very efficient as a means for scraping off old rolls before grinding, which makes a marked saving in emery wheels. The most prominent merit of this corrugator is the quantity of work which can be accomplished with it. Six rolls can be cut per day by a good man on rolls not coarser than sixteen per inch, and the workmanship be correct. Nevertheless, the manufacturers guarantee only four 9 by 18 rolls, twenty corrugations, as an average ten hours' work. Some corrugations, of course, will admit of a larger output and some—for example, two per inch less—depending somewhat on the operator. The manufacturers do not claim that the Messer corrugator is cheaper than others now in general use, but they do claim that its increased first cost is more than counter-balanced by the superiority of its merits. The Messer corrugator, though in constant practical use for over a year, has only lately been placed on the market, and has received a very flattering reception from the very best firms in the country. Messrs. Hill, Clarke, and Co., of St. Louis, are the makers."

A CRUISER FOR SPAIN.

It may be remembered by many of our readers that towards the end of last summer the Spanish Government issued invitations to some of the largest ship constructors in Europe to submit designs and tenders to build two third-class cruisers of 1000 tons displacement and one first-class cruiser of 4300 tons. Unlike the English naval constructors, the Spanish ones preferred to trust to private enterprise and competition rather than to their own skill exclusively. By this means they placed themselves in the happy position of critics instead of acting the martyr-like part of the criticised. The principal necessary conditions were clearly and fully laid down, and the competing constructors were left to produce the highest results in coal endurance, speed, and protection at the most reasonable price. A committee consisting of some of the most eminent naval officers and naval architects in Spain

has been sitting for some months past, and has at length decided that Messrs. J. and G. Thomson have produced a design and tender which in all respects is the most satisfactory. This eminent firm has associated itself with high-speed steamers for many years past, and is second to none in success in this interesting but risky business. It is only necessary to say that they are builders of the *Servia*, *Aurania*, *America*, *Columba*, *Scout*, &c., to justify one in saying that the Spanish Government have a sufficient guarantee that whatever can be done to produce the highest possible speed will be done by these constructors. We find by reference to the programme of conditions, and to information recently to hand from Madrid, that the design of Messrs. Thomson is of the following particulars and dimensions:—

Length between perpendiculars	300ft.
Breadth, moulded	50ft.
Depth, moulded	31ft. 6in.
Displacement	4300 tons.
Speed under natural draught	18½ knots.
" " " " forced	20½ knots.
I.H.P. of engines	11,000.
Draught of water	20ft.
Coal capacity	1100 tons.
Distance can steam at cruising speed	12,000 knots.
Complement of men and officers	300.
Armament:—4 12-ton guns of Hotarior type; 6 5in. guns of Hotarior type; 8 6-prs. rapid firing; 8 Nordenfelt machine gun; 5 torpedo tubes; 10 torpedoes.	

A complete protective deck will be constructed from end to end of vessel. This deck is 6ft. below water-line at side, and rounds up to the water-line at the middle. This deck is 4½ in. thick on sloped part in way of machinery and magazines, and 3in. thick on flat part. Before and abaft these spaces the deck is reduced 1in. in thickness. The vessel is very completely sub-divided in the greatest practicable number of compartments. In the vicinity of the water-line above the protective deck the whole space is cut up by bunker bulkheads and cofferdams, so that when the ship is fully laden it will take a considerable amount of destruction of the thin plating to render the vessel in anything like a critical condition as to buoyancy or stability.

The above outline description will enable any one familiar with the subject to say that this vessel, for her size, is very formidable. In the descriptions of the belted cruiser or improved

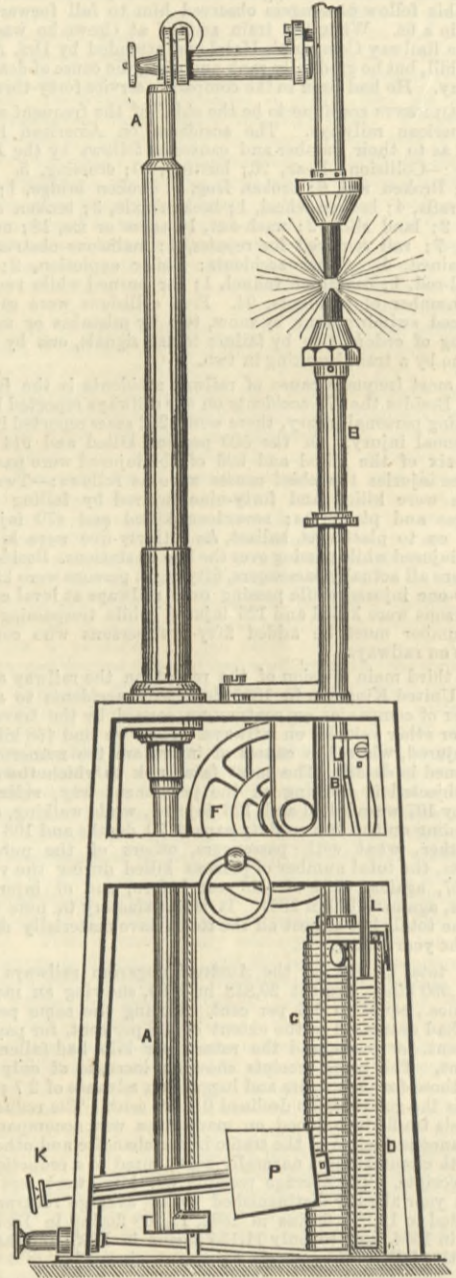
Mersey type we have already published, it will be found that the speed of these vessels is to be 18 knots, their armament is two 18-ton and ten 6in. guns, their protection is a partial belt of 10in. side armour, 5½ ft. wide, surmounted by a deck 2in. thick. These vessels are 300ft. long by 56ft. wide, and are of 5000 tons displacement. We place these facts in juxtaposition to the description of the Spanish cruiser not to disparage the former so much as to show that when matters of ship designing were left to private enterprise the result is not inferior to that which is obtained by the united wisdom of the naval officers and naval constructors of our own Admiralty.

We may remark that this is the second high-speed warship entrusted by the Spanish Government to Messrs. Thomson.

THE JASPAR ARC LAMP.

AMONG the most satisfactory lamps at the Antwerp Exhibition of last year must be included the Jaspas, which, although by no means a pretty lamp to look at, burns with perfect steadiness, and is very simple in construction.

The lamp is made in two patterns, one for suspension, while the other, which we illustrate, is intended to be supported on a stand. It is of the Archereau type improved. Our engraving shows the lamp when the carbons are nearly burned out. The



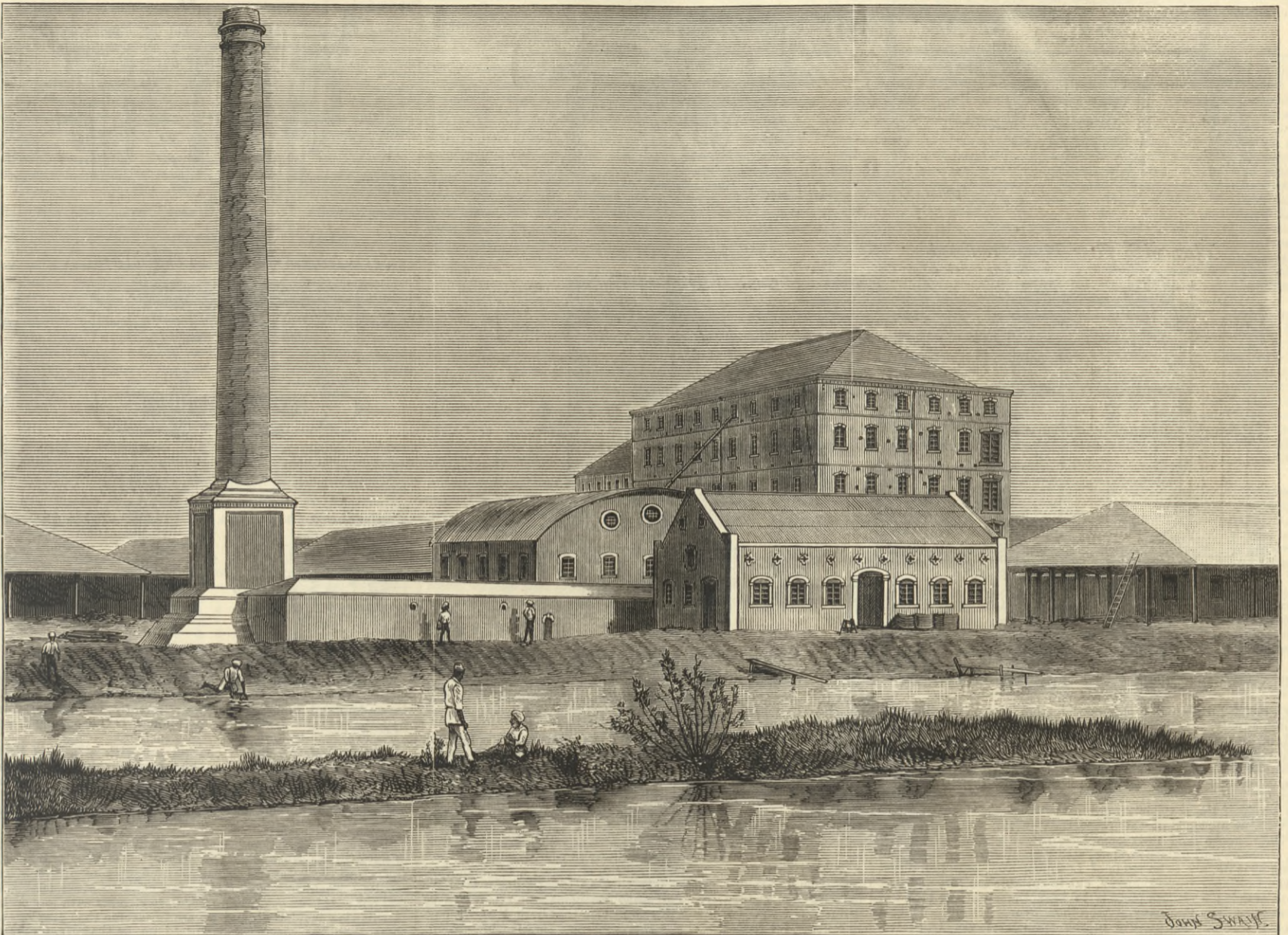
rod A is coupled to the positive wire, and is thoroughly insulated from the rest of the lamp. The upper end of the rod is fitted with an adjustable carbon holder, the mode of action of which will be understood at a glance. The rod A can slide up and down in the guide tube which supports it, as shown. A fine cord passing over a pulley serves to connect the two carbon rods. The iron rod B is connected with the negative wire of the circuit. The cord from B passes over a pulley F, half the size of that before mentioned, and as the two pulleys are fixed on one axis the ascent of the negative carbon takes place at half the rate at which the top carbon falls, because the top carbon burns away twice as fast as the bottom carbon. A dashpot D is filled with mercury. The piston of this is coupled by a link L to the rod B. A counterweight P adjustable on a lever is coupled by a cord to a third pulley keyed on the same axis as those carrying the other two already noticed by means of the button K. The position of the weight can be adjusted on the lever carrying it.

The action of the lamp is as follows:—As soon as the current is turned on, the solenoid C acts on the iron rod B, which forms its core, drawing it down and striking the arc. When the arc becomes too long the action of the current becomes weakened, and the carbons so urged by the weight of the rod A approach each other. The current then becomes stronger in the solenoid, and the further advance of the carbons is prevented. The counterweight F pulls against A, and as it can be adjusted for any current, the same regulator can be used on different currents through a wide range. The dashpot prevents the carbons from jumping. At first sight it would appear that the distance between the carbons would augment as they became burned away. This is prevented by the varying action of the counterweight P.

It will be seen that this lamp is entirely dependent for its efficiency on the mercury dashpot, and there is no provision for working it in series. The lamp we illustrate is intended to run alone with a current of 25 amperes. The lamp can, it is claimed, be worked successfully in multiple arc. It is certainly extremely simple, but it will not commend itself to English electricians, who have set their faces against the use of dash-pots in any form, whether filled with glycerine or any other liquid.

RICE MILL AT RANGOON.

ERECTED FOR MESSRS. MOHR BROTHERS AND CO., BY DOUGLAS AND GRANT, ENGINEERS, KIRKCALDY, SCOTLAND.



RICE MILL AT RANGOON.

THIS mill, which, we understand, is the largest rice mill in the East, has been in operation for the last two years. It is capable of turning out 400 tons of Straits quality white rice in twenty-four hours. The brickbuilding was executed by a local firm. The columns, girders, and iron roofing, together with the engines and boilers, and the whole internal machinery of the mill, were supplied by Messrs. Douglas and Grant. This firm has been known for many years as the most extensive makers of this class of work. The engines are compound surface condensing, and develop 700 indicated horse-power. The boilers, five in number, are fitted with paddy husk burning apparatus, which supersedes the use of coal as fuel. Messrs. Douglas and Grant are at present erecting a large rice mill in the French settlement of Saigon.

DYNAMO WINDING MACHINES.

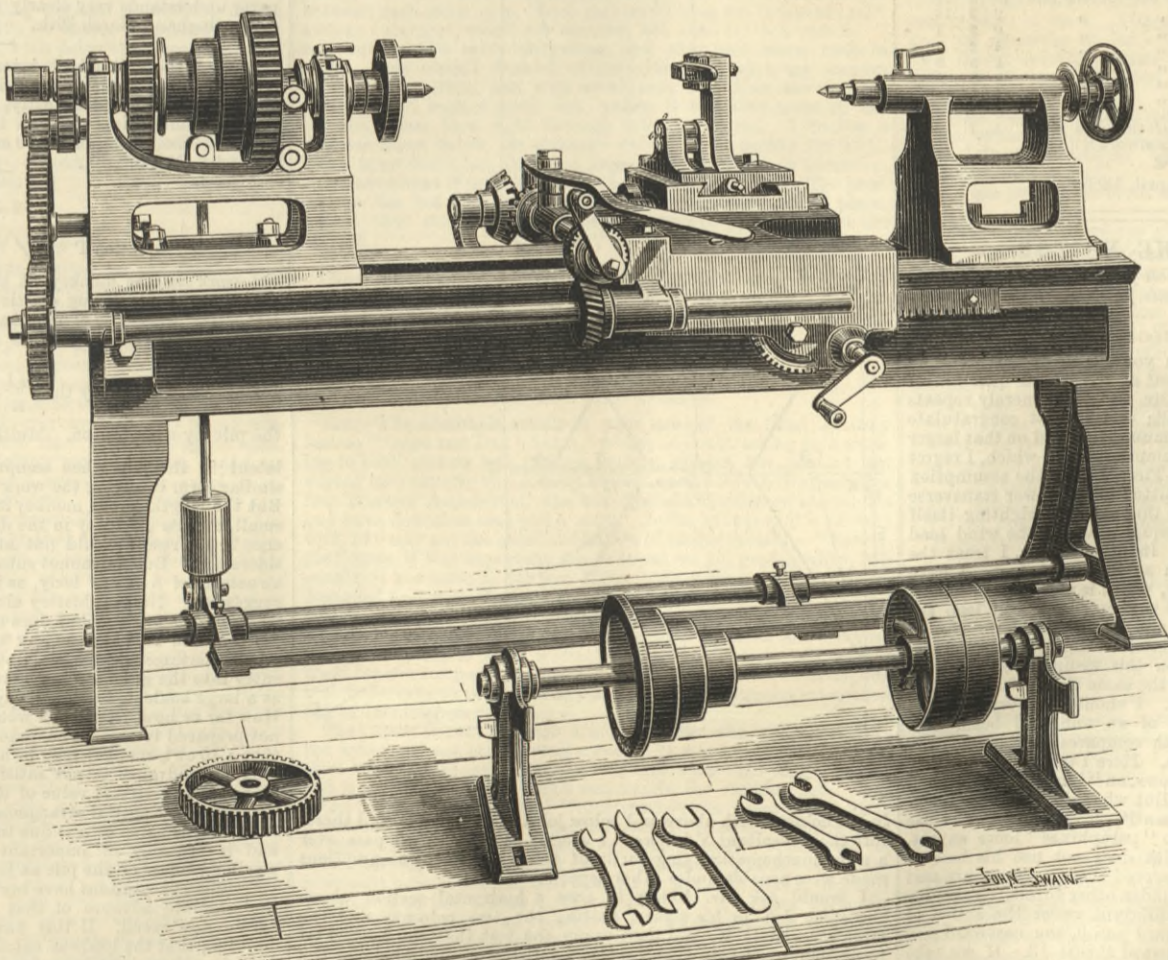
THIS machine for winding the wire on dynamo armatures is designed so as to wind the wire tightly and evenly on the armatures; the machine is arranged with friction-feed for wire, hand-reversing motion to feed-slide, and pedal-stop motion to spindle. The whole of the machine is under the command of one attendant, who does not require to move from his place, the stopping, reversing, &c., being under easy control. The machine will no doubt be very useful for makers of dynamos. The machine as shown will admit 20in. diameter and 3ft. between the centres. It is made by Messrs. Wilkinson and Lister, Keighley.

INTERCOLONIAL RAILWAY OF CANADA.

At a meeting of the Association of the Manchester Students of the Institution of Civil Engineers, held on Wednesday, 17th inst., Mr. W. T. Olive, Assoc. M. Inst. C.E., chief engineering assistant to the Manchester Corporation, read a paper on "Some Features of the Intercolonial Railway of Canada." The author at the outset dwelt at considerable length on the difficulties that were experienced in regard to the question of the boundary line between New Brunswick and Maine, through the action of the United States when it had

become known that a direct railway between Quebec and St. John was in contemplation. The drainage areas of the country being involved in the negotiations which followed, an enlarged map showing the various watersheds was supplied, to which frequent reference was made in following the several routes that were from time to time surveyed and proposed. At last, in 1842, the Maine boundary was finally settled by the Ashburton Treaty, whereby

it was forced to make a considerable detour to avoid entering the State of Maine and for military purposes, thus necessitating the construction of an additional 250 miles of railway, and an expenditure of £2,000,000 which otherwise would not have been required. Proceeding to other difficulties which had to be met, Mr. Olive instanced in detail (1) the negotiations which took place ere the necessary capital was forthcoming—eventually a Bill in 1867 provided £3,000,000; (2) the opposition encountered by the engineer-in-chief, Mr. Sandford Fleming, C.E., C.M.G., the chief engineer also to the Canadian Pacific Railway, in determining that all superstructures of bridges be of iron instead of wood; (3) the detriment to the line, for all time, coming through turning it a long way out of its course to serve private interests; (4) the interference of the commissioners appointed to manage the railway as to the basis on which contracts should be entered into; (5) the lack of any surveys or maps of the country passed through, &c. The engineering character of the line was next dwelt upon, and was illustrated by pen-and-ink sketches, showing (a) the system of deep drainage in embankments and cuttings to prevent damage from the severe frosts; (b) the clearing of the line in forest land to avoid obstruction from falling trees or risk of bush fires; (c) the form of cutting to allow for the heavy snowfalls of some districts and of the action of snow ploughs—cuttings generally were 30ft. wide at formation, with slopes 1½ to 1; (d) the type of box culverts, with deep apron walls; (e) the arch culvert for streams requiring a waterway from 4ft. to 20ft.; (f) iron pipe culverts bedded in concrete, with masonry cross-walls; (g) the arrangements for diversion of streams in crossing ravines; (h) the detail of the permanent way—steel rails, 57 lb. to the yard, with scabbard joints, and spiked to cross sleepers; (i) the forms of piers or towers used, in place of abutments and wing-walls as in this country, with a contrast of the cost, showing a great economy in the adoption of this system; (j) ice breakers for the river piers of bridges, &c. In the Nova Scotia district occur the

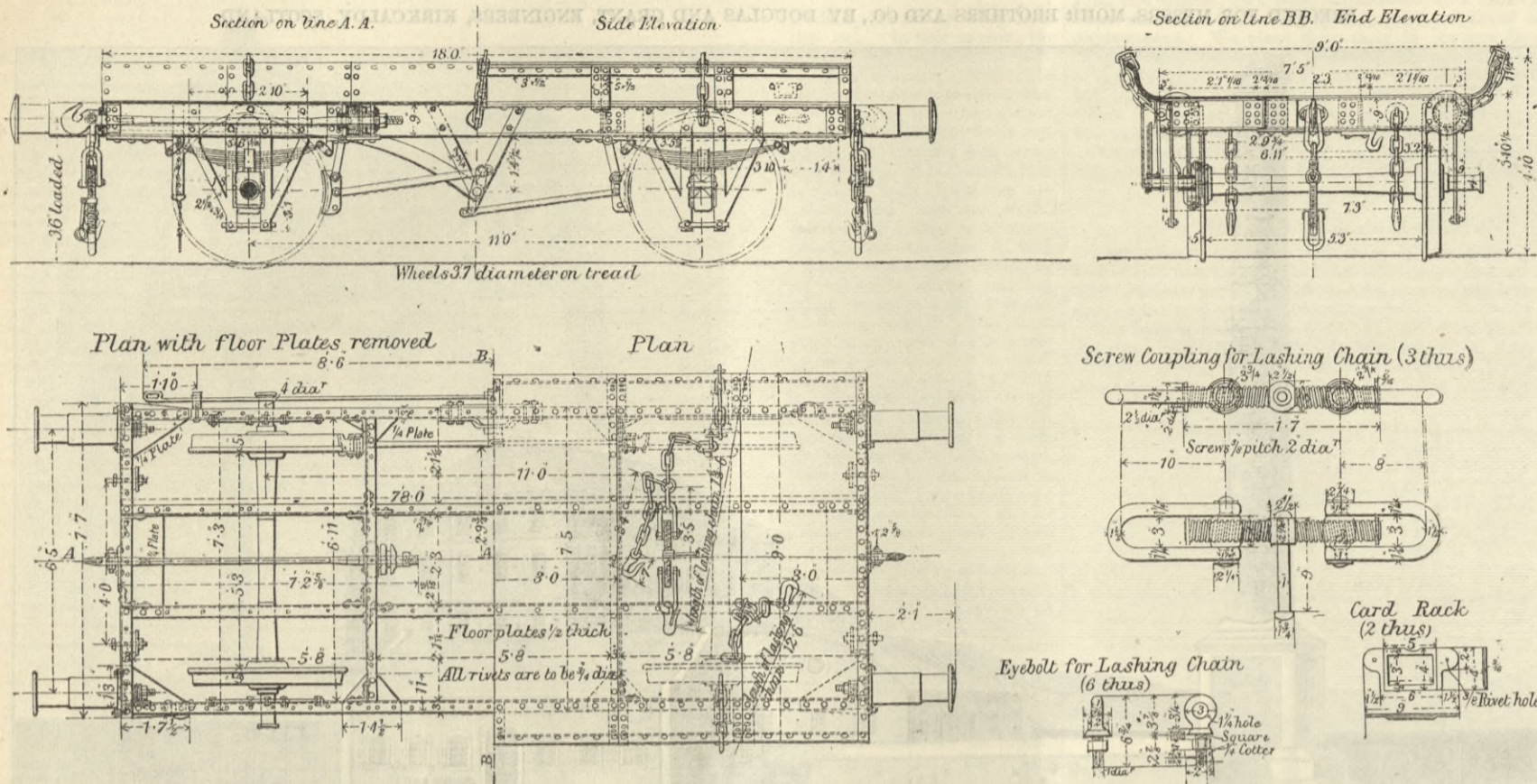


WILKINSON AND LISTER'S DYNAMO WINDING MACHINE.

the boundary was carried some hundred miles to the north of that defined in the treaty of 1783, thus ceding to the United States 11,000 square miles of British territory, equivalent in size to two of the smaller States, its effect being almost to sever the geographical connection between the maritime provinces and the Canadas. The location of the line being necessarily confined to British territory,

sharpest curve—1432ft. radius—the steepest gradient—1 in 100—the highest bridge, and the deepest embankment. On the Intercolonial Railway the bridge spans range from 24ft. the minimum to 200ft. the maximum. A description was given in detail of the Melis and Amqui Bridges, and the mode of their erection, and a series of views of the most important structures was exhibited.

CONTRACTS OPEN—IRON TIMBER TRUCKS.



CONTRACTS OPEN.

INDIAN STATE RAILWAYS—PUNJAB NORTHERN RAILWAY.

THE work required under this specification comprises the construction, supply, and delivery in England, at one or more ports named, of underframes, underframe and body ironwork, with all requisite bolts and nuts and rivets for putting the work together in India, for fifteen iron timber trucks, 18ft. long. The contract does not include wheels and axles, bearing and draw and buffer springs.

The whole of the materials used to be of the best quality, and subject to the approval of the Inspector-General. All draw-bars, with their hooks and nuts complete, safety chains with their hooks, eyebolts and nuts complete, screw couplings complete, and coupling shackles, are to be made of Lowmoor iron, supplied direct from the Lowmoor Iron Company, cut to suitable lengths and sizes for each article; and each piece is to bear the stamp or brand of the Lowmoor Iron Company. All other wrought iron to be best best, or iron of similar quality in the opinion of the Inspector-General. No iron of foreign manufacture is to be used in any part of the work under this contract. The channel bars of steel and the angle bars and plates may be made of steel of such strength and quality that it shall be equal to a tensional strain of not less than 26 tons, or more than 29 tons, with contraction of 35 per cent., and must be capable of being bent double on itself without showing any signs of fracture. Every piece of iron or steel must be made to template, and be interchangeable.

	Cwt.	qr.	lb.
Total weight of steel channel bar for one underframe	15	3	0
ironwork	9	2	18
buffer ironwork	6	3	4
Lowmoor ironwork	4	2	6
cast iron	1	0	9
brake gear	2	3	9
body ironwork	19	0	11
bolts and nuts	0	2	0
rivets for one underframe and body	1	1	0
Estimated total weight of steel and ironwork required for one iron timber truck, 18ft. long	81	2	22

Tenders to be sent in by the 6th April, 1886.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR.

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

AMERICAN BRIDGES.

SIR,—The two letters appearing in your issue of this week do not appear to advance the settlement of the vexed question of unbraced cantilevers under wind. Mr. J. Reilly merely repeats Waddell's treatment in greater detail; and I must congratulate him both on the good tone of his communication and on that larger capacity for swallowing Waddell's assumptions, with which, I regret to say, nature has not endowed me. First, I deny the assumption that the wind load is entirely transmitted to the lower transverse bracing; on the contrary, I hold that the frame, in righting itself under excentric load, casts about an equal share of the wind load upon the upper and lower systems. In other terms, I treat the frame for torsion free to move both at head and foot. I have outlined this idea in my second paper, which is now in your hands. Then, again, the assumption that the shearing force can leap the unbraced panel and reach the feet E and F, without giving rise to local bending moments at those points, is simply preposterous. Professor Smith's diagram depends on this assumption, which he acknowledges in his last note, but at the same time tries to saddle the same error upon my shoulders. I should be very sorry to accept Professor Smith's treatment of an unbraced beam as a Bollman truss. Then Professor Smith compares his "ideal" bars to "imaginary quantities" in algebra. Here I am disposed to take him at his word; for, as everybody knows, an "imaginary quantity" is an even root of a negative value. But what the Professor really means is, of course, a "subsidiary quantity." Then, why not use the correct term, and avoid having to "paraphrase" loose expressions? But the fact is Professor Smith does not use his bars as subsidiary quantities, which, having served their purpose, are cast aside in name but retained in value under other forms. Take, for instance, the joint K, which is in equilibrium under the action of the downward pull O F or 6, the upward pull 9, the eastward pull 8, the westward pull 11, and the eastward thrust 12. If we take away any one of these stresses the joint ceases to be in equilibrium; therefore, I strongly object to Professor Smith taking an axe and ruthlessly chopping away his bracing. But let us look at the very foundation of the diagram, where Professor Smith, assuming that the point F is a double point at which the two bars 5 and 6 meet, considers that the two forces 1 and 2 compound into a single resultant force R, resolving itself into a downward pull O F, or 6, along the lower part of the column, and a dig or thrust along the rafter 5. Here, at the very outset, I object that there is no rafter;

that the joint F is not a double but a single point with only one bar 6 terminating there; that, therefore, the forces 1 and 2 cannot compound and resolve themselves in two directions as shown, but that the system reduces to a force and a couple incapable of further simplification. To these objections Professor Smith can find no better answer than that they are "very funny."

Mr. Reilly is not correct in taking the stress in the column as O F, for the line O F is really the resultant of the supposed tensions O F or 6 in the lower half, and D E or 9 in the upper half of the column, or what Waddell calls "the released weight V," and would cease to exist with the tensions of which it is the difference. It will be seen by the figure that lines O F and D E increase in length as the imaginary rafters approach the columns, becoming infinite when the former vanish into the latter. In my last note I put O and C at infinity in consequence of F and E passing to infinity. This, of course, is merely a mathematical deduction depending on the fact that an infinite line must have both its ends at infinity. The same mathematical result can be deduced from Professor Smith's admission that both F and E pass to infinity, for then $V = OF - DE = \infty - \infty$; that is, the tensions

whereas the same value, as deduced from his formula for V, gives us $V \tan \theta = 2(2P + P^1)$.

Further, Professor Smith remarks that my assumption that D C bisects O 4 (O z) is incomprehensible. Here Professor Smith fails to understand his own diagram; for, by the figure, since by hypothesis $OC = D z$ and the direction of D C is constant, we have $z y = O y$.

Lastly, Professor Smith charges me with attacking Professor Waddell in his absence. Now, he must know that the "attack" — if a free and frank expression of implicitly invited opinion can be so misnamed — was not perfectly spontaneous on my part.

March 27th.

R. H. GRAHAM.

SIR,—Mr. Graham and Professor Smith are doing a great deal of harm to the cause of graphic statics. They are both apostles of the science of using lines instead of figures to arrive at certain results. Their discussion has, so far, gone to prove that graphics will not enable an engineer to calculate stresses with any certainty. If this view is rejected, and we are to assume that graphics are all right, then the conclusion is forced on us that Mr. Graham and Professor Smith are unable to use them.

To calculate the stress in a trussed bridge is not a very dreadful operation, yet I find that your correspondents are each unable to perform the operation in a way that satisfies the other. How is this? They are dealing with matters of fact, not of theory or opinion; and unless your correspondents can advance something newer and more valuable than they have yet done, the sooner the discussion is closed the better. Up to the present it has been most unedifying, and well calculated to convince students that neither party understands very clearly what he is writing about.

Birmingham, March 30th.

JUVENTUS.

SIR,—I think it might interest some of your readers if Mr. Graham would explain why it is that "the tension along the post F H is not a constant quantity, but varies from the value W at the foot to a much less value in the neighbourhood of the joint K." (See THE ENGINEER, page 180 ante).

Cardiff, March 28th.

W. B. COVENTRY.

PILE DRIVING.

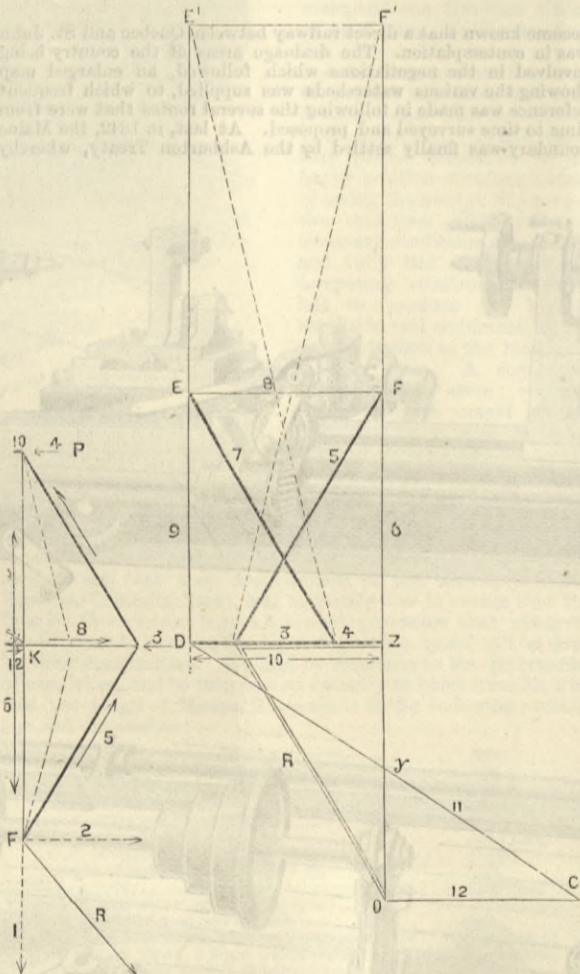
SIR,—My equation $P = \sqrt{\frac{2 W h E A}{L}}$ is obtained by equating the work in the monkey at the time of impact with the work stored in the pile during elastic compression, clearly shown in my last letter, where the expression is given from which equation (1) is derived. If that expression needs further analysing for Mr.

Donaldson, I must say that $\frac{dL}{L} = \frac{P}{E A}$, dL being the shortening of

the pile by compression. Multiplying dL by $\frac{P}{2}$ we get the work latent in the pile when compressed. We might add to this a similar term involving the work latent in the compressed monkey. But the length of the monkey in the numerator of the term being small, and its elasticity in the denominator being large, the difference in the result would not materially affect the practical consideration. But we cannot substitute the complicated articulated structure of a man's body, as in Mr. Donaldson's extraordinary suggestion. Natural history alone should have taught him that what applies to a monkey does not always apply to a man. The 134 tons and 190 tons and any other loads evaluated from equation (1) are contingent values only attained when piles soon after their entry into the ground come upon some unyielding obstruction, such as a large boulder, in such a way that the shoes are not broken up. How far or how little a pile would be damaged by such a load I am not prepared to say. The practical experience adduced to show that a 10 cwt. monkey may be allowed to fall 4ft. on a pile which makes no advance is not satisfactory, because in that case there may still be a virtual value of d, which is an amount to be measured by some special arrangement attached to the pile near ground level. This value of d is due to elastic compression of the ground, and is probably of important magnitude when we reach such small advances of the pile as $\frac{1}{2}$ in. Hence, we cannot accept $d = \frac{1}{2}$ in. unless precautions have been taken to prove that it includes the absolute advance of that part of the pile at ground level before any recoil. If this has been done I see no reason for doubting that the loads as calculated by the formulae are correct, providing there is no excessive loss through friction at the guides.

We must remember, too, that the value of L will be affected if we consider the pile when any considerable length of it is in the ground. If we assume the resistance of the ground to be equally spread over the buried length of the pile, the value of L will be the length standing out of the ground plus half the buried length.

The interpretation of the equation $m v = W \sqrt{\frac{2 H}{g}}$ is a very different thing from the interpretation of the result after using it



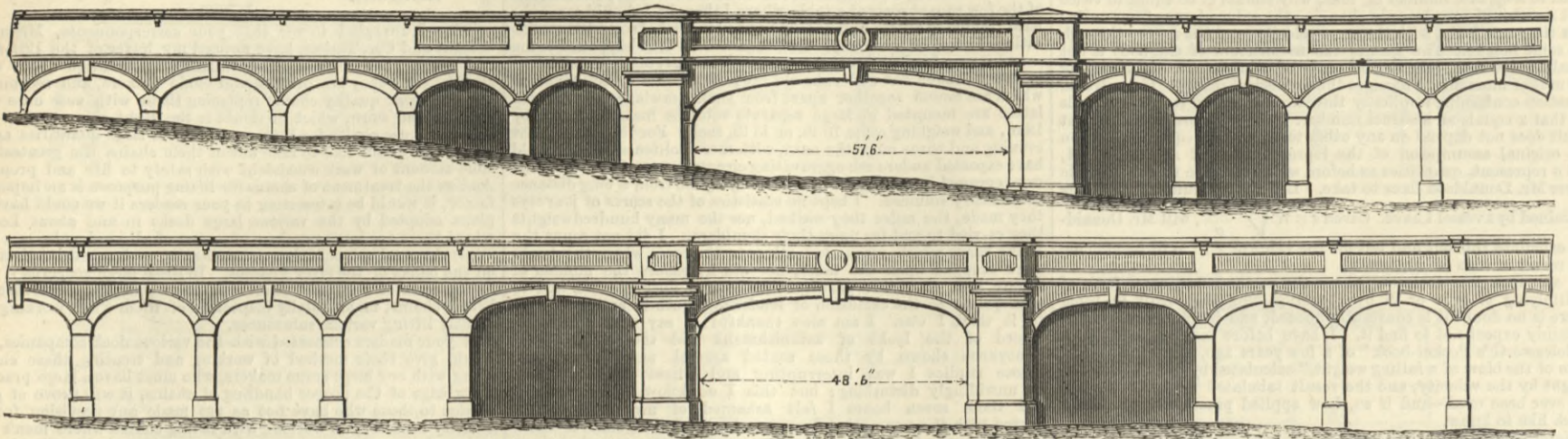
in the column both above and below joint K are infinite, and therefore their resultant V is zero. I would, however, easily pass over a mere mathematical singularity of this kind, if the assumptions made were tenable under other aspects.

I would ask Mr. Reilly to pass a horizontal section above the strut J K in his figure, cutting the two columns and the vibration rod G K, and then apply the test that the horizontal projection of the stresses in the severed bars should balance the horizontal projection of all external forces between the section and the free end of the cantilever. The column stresses, being vertical, have no horizontal components; that of the vibration rod is, when $d = 2f, V \tan \theta = 2(2P + P^1)$; whilst the sum of external horizontal forces is only 2P. It will be seen that this is merely an analytical repetition of the objection I put into graphic form in my article of the 5th, where it is worth notice that the reciprocal figure of the joint K, drawn to fit Waddell's formula for the stress J K, gives us $V \tan \theta = 2P = \text{sum of external horizontal forces,}$

SEWERAGE OF CLAPHAM, BATTERSEA, WANDSWORTH, AND PUTNEY.

SIR JOSEPH BAZALGETTE, M.I.C.E., ENGINEER.

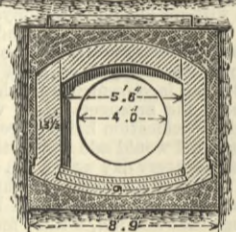
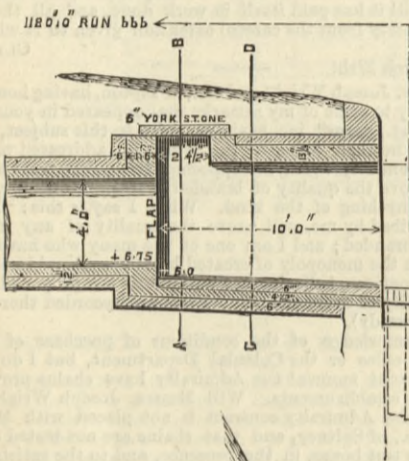
(For description see page 270.)



SECTION ON LINE A.B.

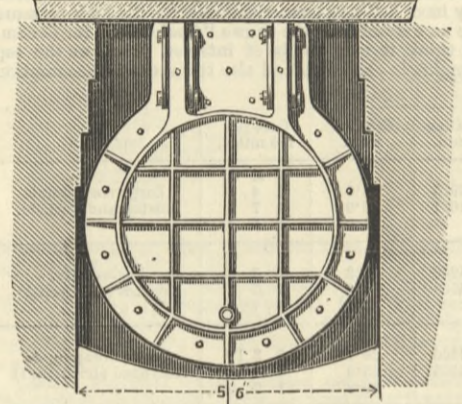
SECTION ON LINE C.D.

ELEVATION OF CAST IRON FLAP



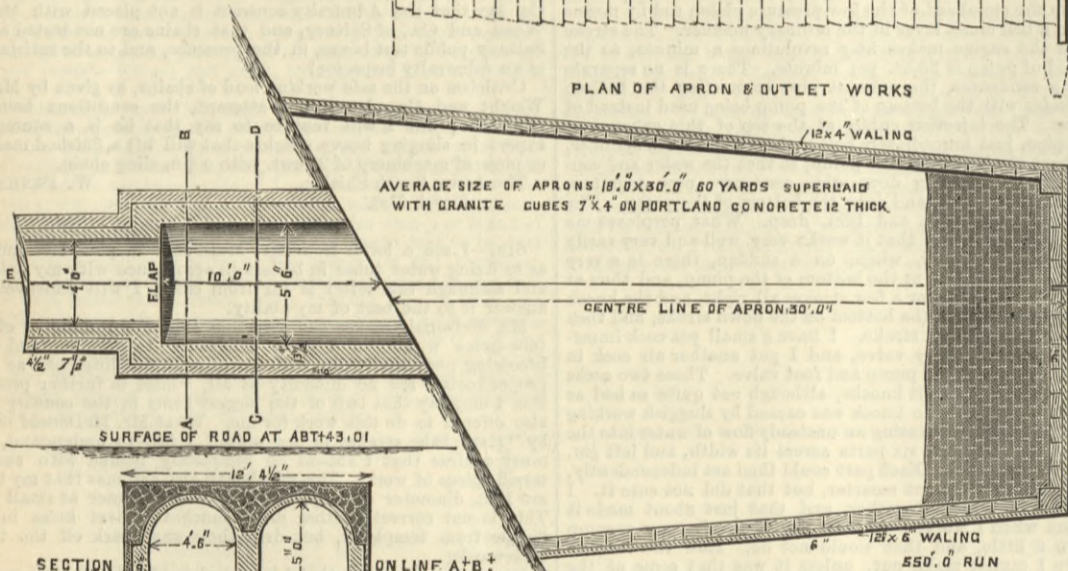
OUTLET WORKS C.C.C.

SECTION ON LINE E.F.



SECTION ON LINE C.H.

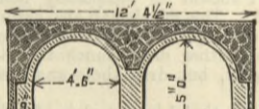
PLAN OF APRON & OUTLET WORKS



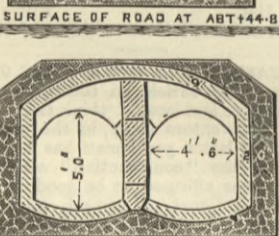
AVERAGE SIZE OF APRONS 18.0x30.0 60 YARDS SUPERLAID WITH GRANITE CUBES 7x4 ON PORTLAND CONCRETE 12 THICK

CENTRE LINE OF APRON 30.0 FT

SURFACE OF ROAD AT ABT+43.01

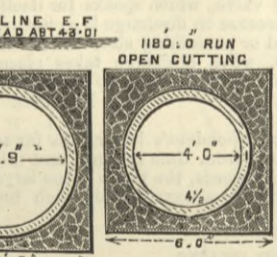


SECTION ON LINE A+B

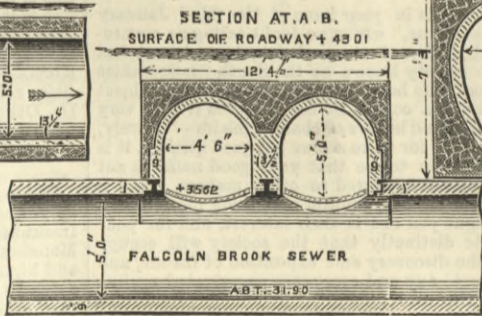


SECTION ON LINE C.D

SECTIONAL ELEVATION

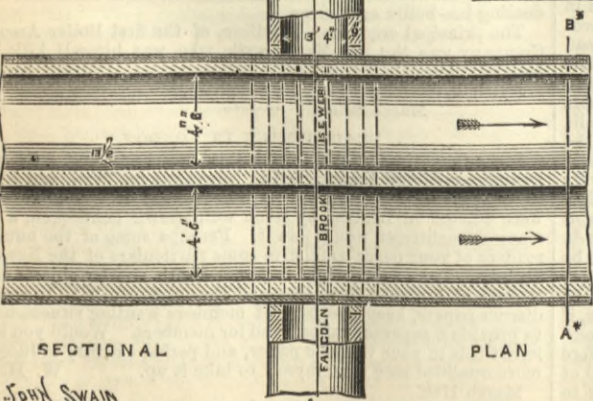


SECTION AT A.B. SURFACE OF ROADWAY +43.01



FALCOLN BROOK SEWER

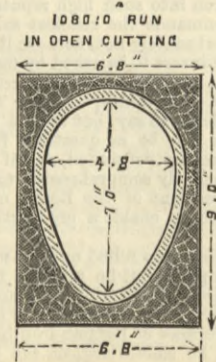
ABT-31-90



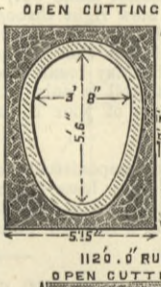
SECTIONAL

PLAN

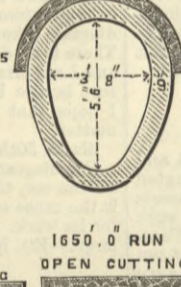
JOHN SWAIN



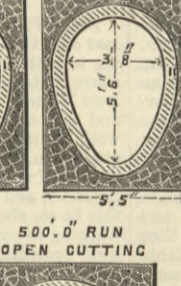
1080.0 RUN IN OPEN CUTTING



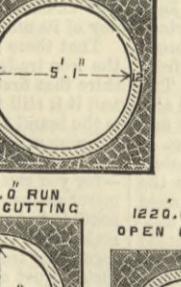
550.0 RUN OPEN CUTTING



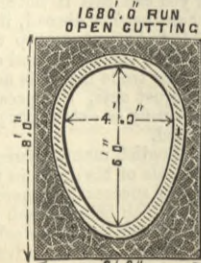
1440.0 TUNELLING



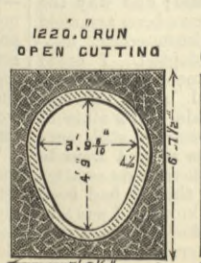
1650.0 RUN OPEN CUTTING



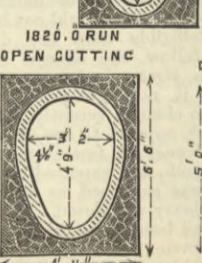
500.0 RUN OPEN CUTTING



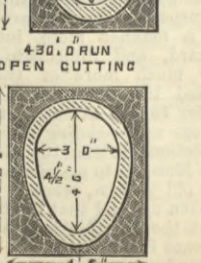
1680.0 RUN OPEN CUTTING



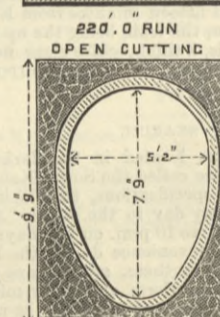
1220.0 RUN OPEN CUTTING



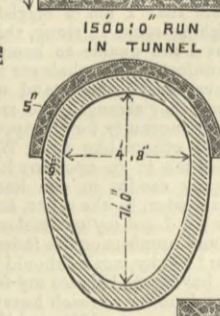
1820.0 RUN OPEN CUTTING



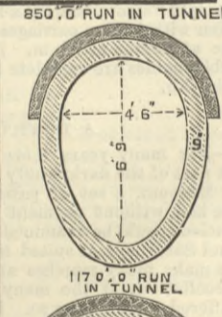
430.0 RUN OPEN CUTTING



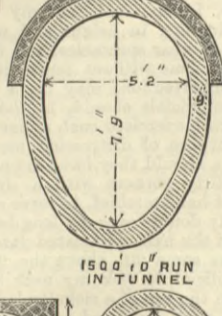
220.0 RUN OPEN CUTTING



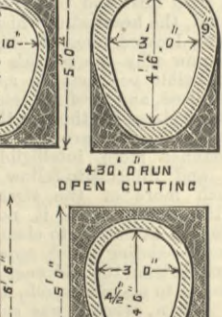
1500.0 RUN IN TUNNEL



850.0 RUN IN TUNNEL



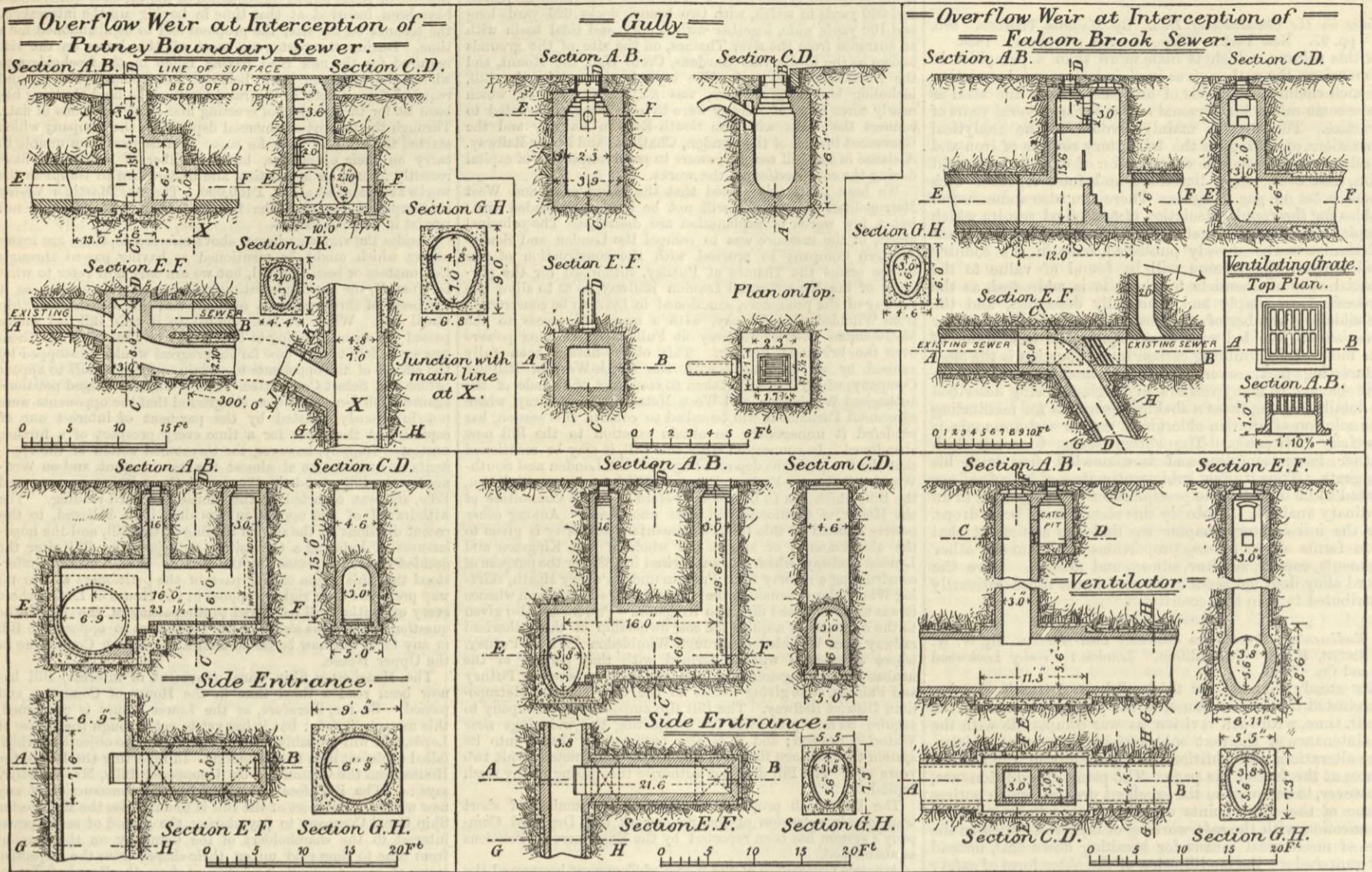
1170.0 RUN IN TUNNEL



1500.0 RUN IN TUNNEL

SEWERAGE OF CLAPHAM, BATTERSEA, WANDSWORTH, AND PUTNEY.

SIR JOSEPH BAZALGETTE, M.I.C.E., ENGINEER.

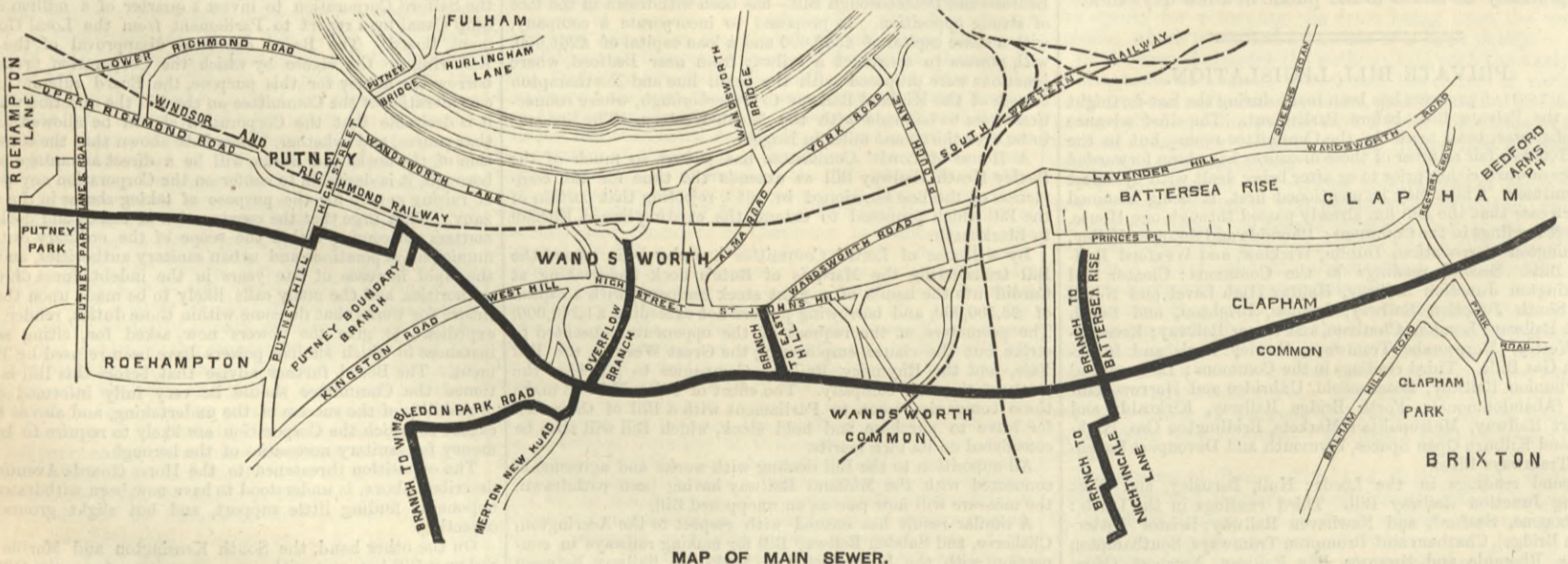


SEWERAGE OF CLAPHAM, BATTERSEA, WANDSWORTH, AND PUTNEY.

SOME very extensive and important works for the drainage of the above-mentioned places, which have been constructed by the Metropolitan Board of Works, are now nearing completion. The work has been done by Mr. John Waddell, as contractor under Sir Joseph Bazalgette, as engineer. In our impressions of the 12th and 19th ult., we published engravings of some of the leading features of the work, including the sewage aqueduct at Wandsworth. Of the latter, and of the sewers at various parts, we

worth, along Wandsworth Plain, and Frogmore-lane, across the Parish Wharf situate on the tidal portion of the river Wandle, this part being designated "overflow branch from Merton-road to the tidal portion of the river Wandle," and illustrated by plan and sections of the branch and overflow at p. 210, and by one of the engravings on page 266, the main line and branches comprising an aggregate length of 42,156ft. run of sewers. There is also the sewer aqueduct at Wandsworth for carrying above the ground a portion of the main line—see p.p. 210, 228, and 266—and other sewers and works in connection with the aggregate length, all in the parishes of Clapham, Battersea, Wandsworth, and Putney.

as represented on page 266. They were executed in open cutting, and include two splays of 10ft. run each, and for the whole of the remaining 230ft. run comprises two lines of culverts 5ft. by 4ft. 6in., or together 460ft. run of that size, and these culverts for the short length where they cross over the existing Falcon Brook sewer are constructed with cast iron invert or bottoms supported by cast iron girders, as shown by three sections on page 266. See also above. The main line, part 2, includes 4340ft. run of 7ft. 9in. by 5ft. 2in. egg-shaped sewer, brickwork 9in. thick, executed in tunnelling except where the sewer passes under the London and South-Western Railway at Wandsworth-common. This part also included 340ft. run of 7ft. 9in.



MAP OF MAIN SEWER.

now give further engravings, together with a map, showing the locality of the main sewer, more particularly that of the aqueduct across the Wandle valley. There are in all 27,876ft. run of main line sewer. Commencing at the Bedford Arms, Clapham, the sewer passes along High-street, Clapham, across Clapham Common, Wandsworth Common, St. Anne's-hill, South-street, Wandsworth, the river Wandle, the Merton-road, along nearly the whole length of Ringford-road, along the Upper Richmond-road, across Putney-hill, Putney Park-lane, and grounds, to Roehampton-lane. Besides this, there are also 2060ft. run of sewer from the main line at the eastern end of Chatham-road, Battersea, to Battersea Rise; 2730ft. run of sewer from the same place southwards along Webb's-lane, Broomwood-road, Gayville-road, Thurleigh-road, Winchelsea-road, and Nightingale-lane, to the Falcon Brook sewer—see page 266 and above—also 1320ft. run of sewer from the main line near Allfarthing-lane, along Geraldine-road to East-hill, Wandsworth; also 5460ft. run of sewer from the main line at Merton-road, along Merton-road, Wimbledon Park-road, West Hill-road, Melrose-road, and Sutherland-road, across Granville-road, and into Wimbledon Park-road; also 300ft. run of sewer from the main line into the Upper Richmond-road, Putney, along the route of the existing Putney boundary sewer; also 2410ft. run of sewer from the main line at or near Merton-road, under High-street, Wand-

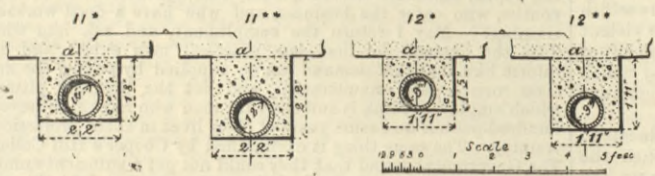
The sewers are partly of brickwork in Portland cement-mortar and partly in Portland cement concrete, and of the lengths, sizes, and forms shown by the cross sections and plans, we give numerous sections at page 266 and above. The main line, part 1, commences with 700ft. run of 7ft. 3in. barrel sewer near the Bedford Arms with a connection with existing sewers. The brickwork is 4½in. thick, executed in open cutting. There is next 7420ft. run of 9ft. by 6ft. egg-shaped sewer, in continuation of and along the main line route to a point at the western side of Clapham-common and eastern end of Chatham-road, the brickwork being 9in. thick, and executed in tunnelling. In this length the sewer passes at a considerable depth under Clapham-common. There is next 330ft. run of 8ft. 3in. by 5ft. 6in. egg-shaped sewer in continuation of the main line route, with brickwork 9in. thick, executed in tunnelling. There is 25ft. run of splayed sewer between the last-mentioned and next-mentioned lengths, brickwork 9in. thick, and concrete outside squared off and extending to 7½in. above, 7½in. below, and 7½in. on each side, executed in open cutting. Next is 160ft. of 6ft. 9in. barrel sewer in continuation, brickwork 4½in. thick, executed in open cutting. By reference to page A the difference in thickness and character of the sewer and concrete support, or cover, when built in cutting and in tunnel, are clearly shown. The 250ft. run of sewers in Chatham-road, Battersea, are of special construction,

by 5ft. 2in. egg-shaped sewer in continuation, the brickwork 4½in. thick, executed in open cutting, 20ft. of splayed sewer between the last-mentioned and next-mentioned lengths. The brickwork to be 9in. thick, and the concrete outside of it squared off and extending to 7½in. above, 7½in. below, and 7½in. on each side, and executed in open cutting; 130ft. run of 6ft. 3in. barrel sewer in continuation. The brickwork above the springing 13½in. thick, and below the springing only 4½in. thick, and executed in open cutting. The sewer and eastern approach to the aqueduct include 128ft. run of 6ft. 3in. barrel, and other work. The sewer aqueduct comprises 2064½ft. run of 7ft. 9in. by 5ft. 2in. egg-shaped sewer, with sewer viaduct of the same length carrying it above ground, the length comprising twenty-four arches or spans east of South-street, Wandsworth, one straight span over South-street, sixty arches west of South-street, and eighty-six piers, including the end or abutment piers; total, eighty-five spans. The span No. 25 is a skew iron girder bridge, 44ft. on centre line on plan. The sewer bridge, span No. 25, and cast iron sewer, shown particularly on page 228, is over South-street, Wandsworth, and is oblique, or skew 68 deg., on plan. The span in the clear between the abutment piers is 40ft. 10in., measured on the square, or 44ft. on the skew, and the headway at the centre

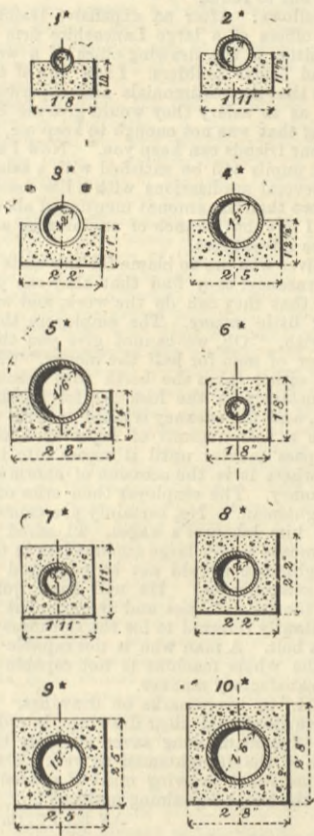
SEWERAGE OF CLAPHAM, BATTERSEA, WANDSWORTH, AND PUTNEY.

SIR JOSEPH BAZALGETTE, M.I.C.E., ENGINEER.

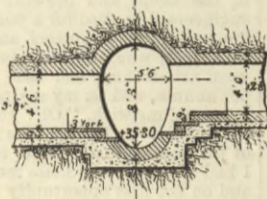
CROSS SECTIONS OF STONWARE PIPES UNDER INVERTS OF SEWERS (see specific clause 7) SECTION ON LINE E.F.



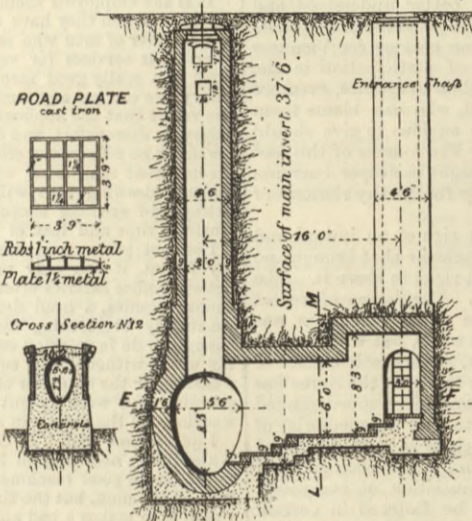
CROSS SECTIONS OF STONWARE PIPE SEWERS LAID IN CONCRETE



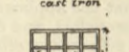
SECTION ON LINE J.K.



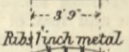
SECTION ON LINE A.B.



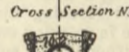
ROAD PLATE cast iron



Ribs 1/4 inch metal Plate 1/2 inch metal



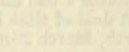
Cross Section N.12



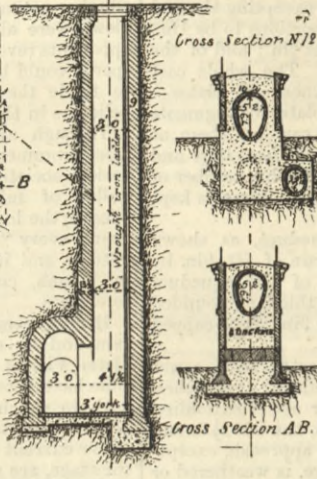
Entrance shaft



Surface of main invert 37.6



SECTION ON LINE G.H.



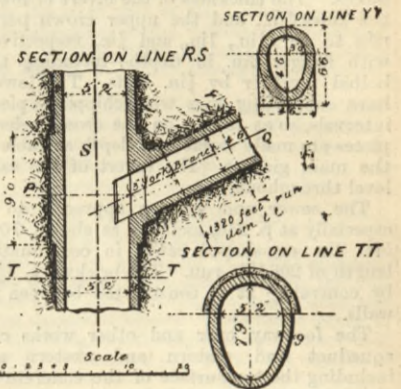
Cross Section N.12



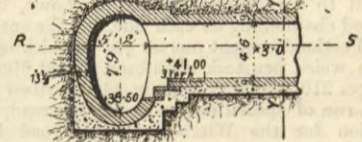
Cross Section A.B.



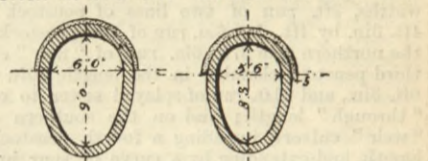
JUNCTION OF BRANCH TO EAST HILL WANDSWORTH



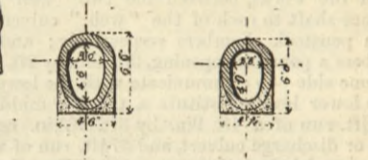
SECTION ON LINE P.Q.



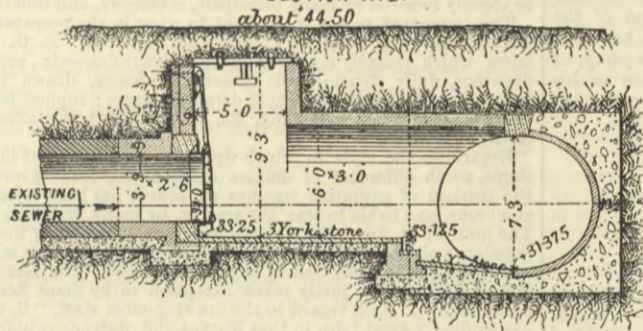
SECTION ON LINE U.U. SECTION ON LINE V.V.



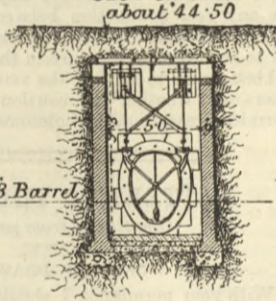
SECTION ON LINE W.W. SECTION ON LINE X.X.



SECTION A.B. about 44.50



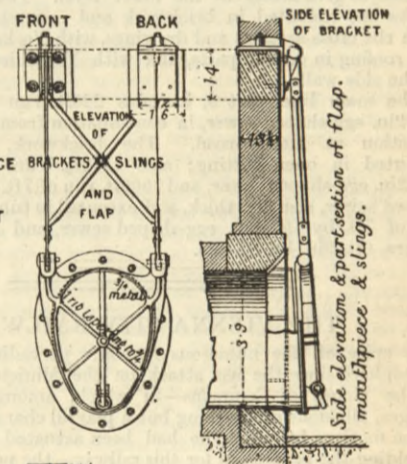
SECTION G.H. about 44.50



DETAILS OF FLAP &c.

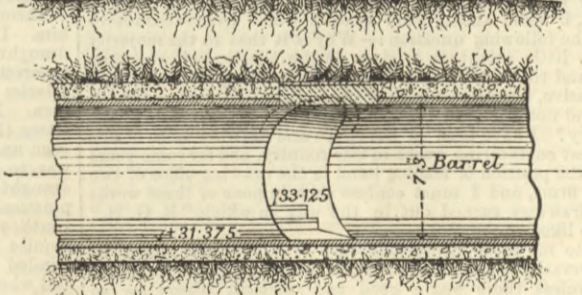
ELEVATION OF MOUTHPIECE BRACKETS SLINGS AND FLAP

HALF BACK HALF FRONT

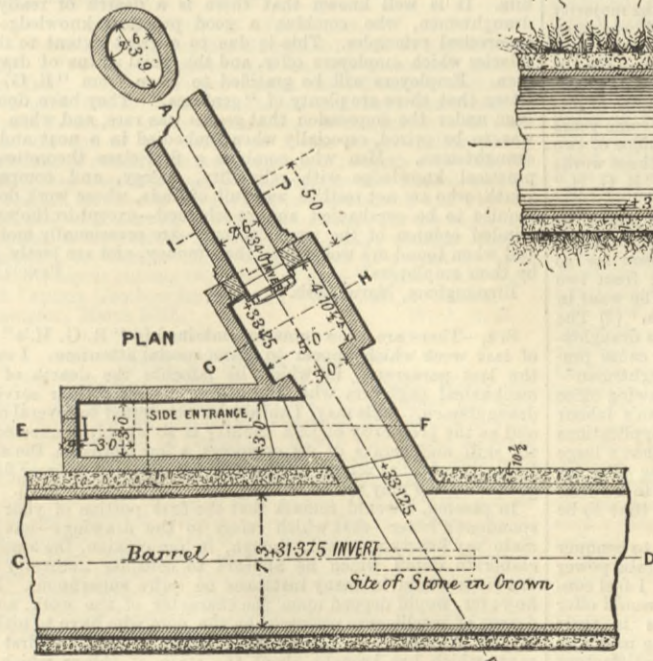


PLAN OF BRACKET.

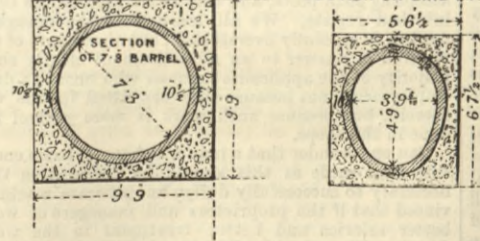
SECTION C.D. about 44.50



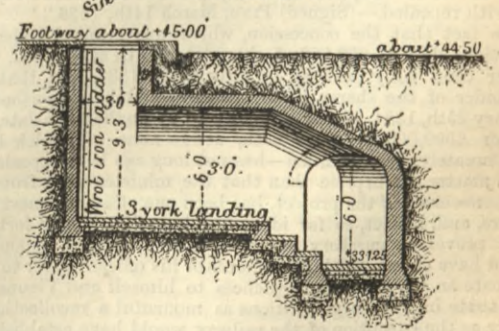
SECTION I.J.



SECTION ON LINE E.F.



SECTION E.F.

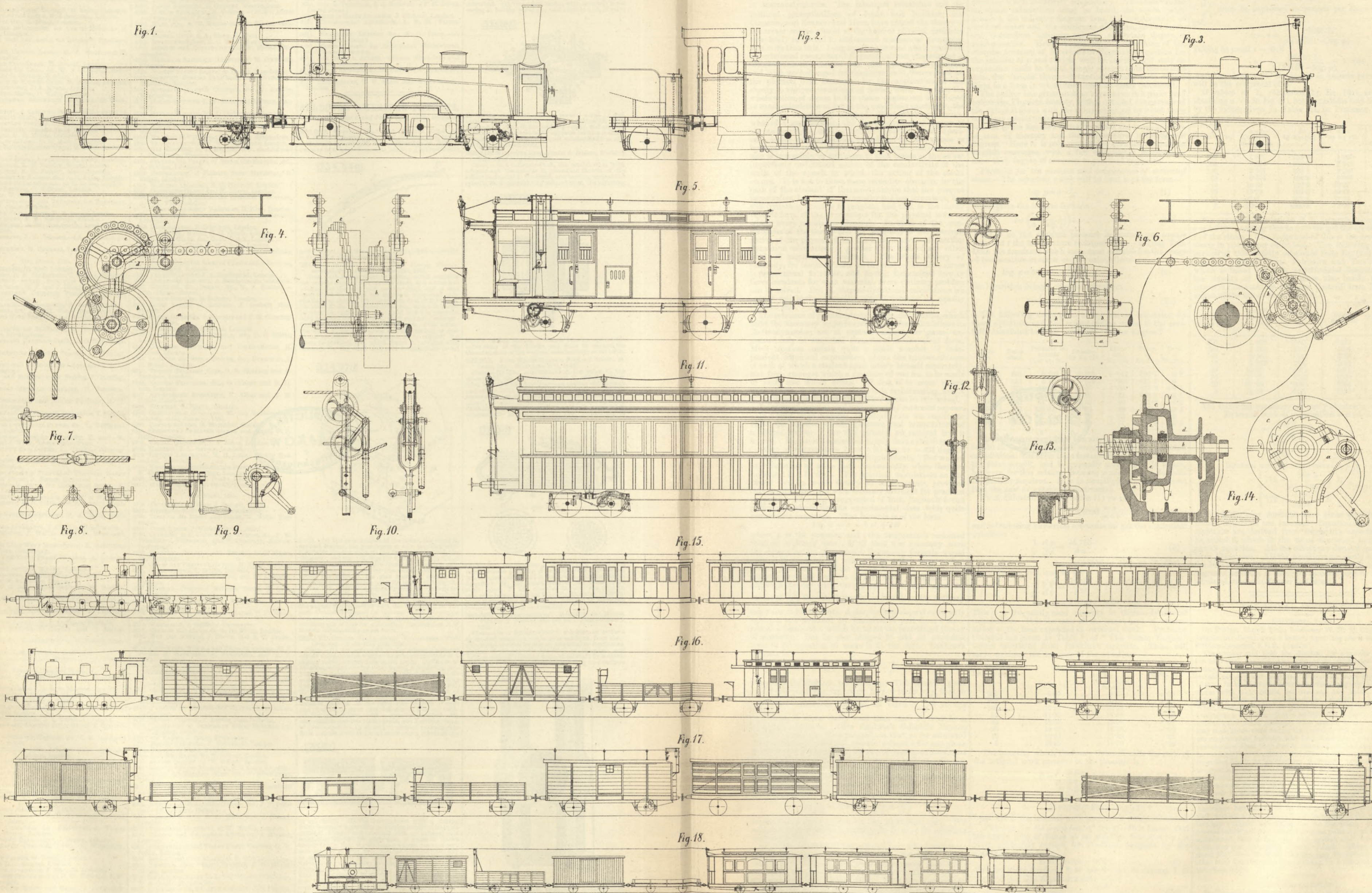


about 17ft. above the middle of the carriage way of South-street. The abutment piers are built on a bed of concrete 3ft. thick, and of the dimensions and forms shown generally in our engravings. The cast iron egg-shaped tube or sewer is carried by eight wrought iron cross girders resting on two wrought iron main girders, and a footway is formed over the sewer by wrought iron curved plates, supported by sixteen cast iron girder joints resting on the top of the main girders, as shown on page 228. The two main girders are single web-plate girders, placed 7ft. 7in. apart from centre to centre, their total length

being 50ft., with uniform depth of 9ft., measured from back to back of angle irons, the top flange being 15in. wide, and the bottom flange 18in. wide; the upper flange of each girder consisting of one plate 15in. by 1/2 in., extending the whole length of the girder, and one plate 15in. by 1/2 in., extending for a distance of 15ft. 11in. on each side of the centre line of girder. The bottom or lower flange to consist of one plate 18in. by 1/2 in., extending the whole length of the girder, and one plate 18in. by 1/2 in., extending for a distance of 15ft. 11in. on each side of the centre line of girder. The joints of the flange plates are covered

by plates and strips of the lengths, widths, and thickness as shown on the engravings. Each flange is attached to the web by two angle irons, 4in. by 4in. by 1/2 in., with rivets 1/2 in. diameter, having a pitch of 4in. as shown. The web of each girder is constructed of plates 9ft. in length by 3ft. in width, excepting at the ends, where the plates are to be 2ft. in width, the thickness varying from 1/2 in. to 3/4 in. The joints of the web plates are covered alternately by tee irons 6in. by 3in. by 1/2 in., placed back to back, and by angle irons 3in. by 3in. by 1/2 in. placed back to back, fastened to stiffening plates 3/4 in. thick. Each main girder

THE AUTOMATIC FRICTION BRAKE.—"HEBERLEIN SYSTEM."



W. K. E. I. H. E. B. B. R. E. I. N. I. S. T. Y. S. T. E. M.



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