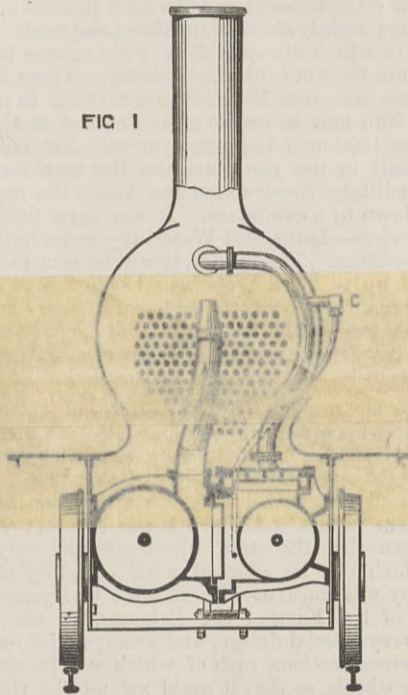


THE INSTITUTION OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERS.

It will be remembered that our report of the proceedings of this Institution was brought down last week to Wednesday morning, when, as we have said, a paper was read by Mr. Sandiford, of Lahore,

ON THE WORKING OF COMPOUND LOCOMOTIVES IN INDIA.

The author gives particulars and results of the trial which in the early part of 1883 he determined to make on the Scinde, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, for testing the value of the compound principle when applied to locomotive engines working under the conditions met with on that line. These conditions are altogether so different from those under which the principle has been tried on the Continent by M. Mallet, and in England by Mr. Webb, that its success on the Indian railway appeared sufficiently doubtful to render this independent experiment desirable. In order to carry out the trial at a moderate cost, and in such a manner that in the absence of success it should be easy to revert to the ordinary plan, two engines were selected—the Vampire and the Vulcan—which had come into the shops for heavy repairs, both of them requiring new cylinders. Each had 3ft. 6in. leading wheels, and four 5ft. wheels coupled. The Vampire had 15in. cylinders



VAMPIRE.

with 23in. stroke, and the Vulcan 16in. cylinders with 24in. stroke. As the alterations were confined almost wholly to

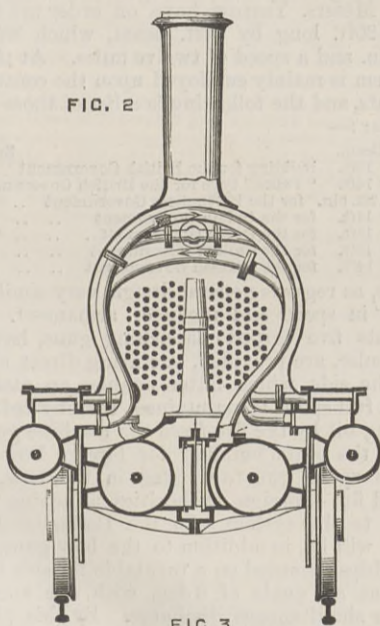


FIG 3

VULCAN.

the cylinders and valve gear, the accompanying engravings will make his arrangements clear.

In the Vampire, Fig. 1, the two original 15in. cylinders were replaced by an 18in. high-pressure and a 24in. low-pressure cylinder, these being as large as could conveniently be got in; the original stroke of 22in. was retained in each cylinder. The slide valve of the low-pressure cylinder is worked direct, and that of the high-pressure through the intervention of a rocking shaft. Excepting the slight modification thus rendered necessary, the gear remains precisely the same as it was, the distribution being controlled by a Stephenson link motion; the arrangement works exceedingly well and gives no trouble. To meet the contingency of the high-pressure cylinder sticking on a dead centre, a cock is provided, by which steam can be admitted direct from the boiler into the steam-chest of the low-pressure cylinder. As the result of an extended trial the engine has been found to work satisfactorily, and there has been no difficulty whatever in starting. Being regularly employed on goods and mixed trains, which are timed at eighteen to twenty-two miles per hour, the engine takes

with ease a gross load of 500 tons including itself, and consumes 13½ per cent. less fuel than an ordinary coupled engine with 16in. x 24in. cylinders. The records of performance in running 6555 miles showed an average consumption of 33.10 lb. of coal per train-mile, with an average gross load of 489 tons, at an average speed of twenty miles per hour. For the ordinary engines on the same run the average consumption was 38.28 lb. of coal per train-mile, under very similar conditions as to load and speed. The fuel used was Bengal coal, which is of very fair quality.

The other engine, the Vulcan, Figs. 2 and 3, as now compounded has four cylinders, the two original 16in. cylinders having been replaced by a pair of 11½in. high-pressure outside cylinders and a pair of 17in. low-pressure inside cylinders; the original stroke of 24in. has been retained for all four cylinders, and the crank pin of each high-pressure cylinder is fixed opposite to the crank of the corresponding low-pressure cylinder. Here, again, the distribution is by a Stephenson link motion, with the addition of rocking shafts for working the slide valves of the high-pressure cylinders, and the arrangement is found to work well. The two high-pressure cylinders being, of course, connected to right-angled cranks, the engine, as might be supposed, starts freely in any position. It is regularly employed on goods and mixed trains, which are timed at 18 to 22 miles an hour; and hauls gross loads of 500 to 550 tons, including itself. It has been fairly tested over an extended period in charge of a driver of ordinary capabilities, with the result that in the first half-year of 1885 he took the highest prize for economy in fuel, and in the last half-year the Vulcan was still at the head of the list, being nearly 13½ per cent. lower in consumption than any of the ordinary engines in the same district. The first records of performance were obtained in running 14,830 miles, in which the consumption averaged 33.13 lb. of Bengal coal per train-mile, with an average gross load of 520 tons, at an average speed of 20 miles per hour.

In recent discussions upon the workings of locomotives, a good deal of stress has been laid on the disadvantage of coupling-rods; and in the author's opinion much more has been said against them than they deserve. Having found their brasses run for years with scarcely any appreciable wear, he believes that whatever wear there is will be more than counterbalanced by the unequal wear certain to be produced on wheels which can revolve at different speeds, as can the uncoupled wheels of the three-cylinder compound locomotives. In the four-wheel coupled engines, with solid coupling-rod ends and brass bushes forced into the rod ends, the wear is very small; from three to three and a-half years, or from 70,000 to 90,000 miles is a common record, and then the play is inconsiderable, say one-tenth of an inch. Regarding the blast, the four-cylinder engine has a good deal a sharper blast, and is capable of steaming better than the two-cylinder; but the latter is never short of steam, although it has only one puff against the other's two. There is no doubt the four-cylinder engine can do more, and makes more steam when pushed, than the two-cylinder. In consumption of oil there is a small difference against the four-cylinder engine, which is only natural. The line which these engines work is practically level, but is exposed to strong side winds. The stoppages are numerous, the runs averaging less than six and a-half miles. Fuel being exceedingly expensive, economy is imperative.

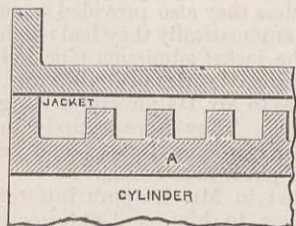
This paper being concluded, the discussion on Mr. Borodin's paper was resumed, both papers being taken together. It was begun by the secretary reading a letter from M. Malet. The substance of this letter was that two cylinders should be used in preference to a greater number; that the ratios of these cylinders should be two to one, and that there should be an independent cut-off for each cylinder. The letter described a triple compound invented by M. Malet, with one high-pressure cylinder 18in. in diameter, one intermediate 26in. in diameter—these actuated four-coupled wheels—and two additional 26in. cylinders, into which the intermediate cylinder exhausted, worked a third pair of wheels. In the discussion which followed, very little information of any kind was supplied by the few locomotive superintendents present. Little, indeed, was brought forward that is not already more or less well known, and it might be stated that the greater portion of what was said was a criticism of Mr. Borodin's test shed arrangements. There were, however, two notable exceptions in the utterances of Professor Kennedy, of University College, and Professor Ryan, of Bristol College. Both these gentlemen dealt with theory and practice combined, and we, using our discretion, believe that we shall better serve the interests of our readers by giving what they said in detail than by supplying an abstract of what was advanced by other speakers.

Professor Kennedy said that perhaps the most valuable kind of paper that could be presented to the Institution was a record of accurate work done, and so recorded that all readers might be able to estimate its value for themselves, and even to work out from it their own conclusions. To a very great extent Mr. Borodin's paper came under that description, and certainly it was one which from every point of view the Institution might cordially welcome. It had perhaps a double aspect. It might be looked upon simply as a record of experiments in relation to certain important points connected with steam engine economy; or, it might be regarded as a record of trials of certain systems of locomotive working varying more or less from those in general use. As he had not the good fortune to be a locomotive engineer, he would confine himself to speaking of the paper from the first point of view. He wished to ask Mr. Borodin two or three questions, the answers to which would perhaps give completeness to the paper. First, was it to be understood that the jackets were not discharged by hand, but always worked through the trap; secondly, were the cylinders in any way covered; and thirdly, the water from the overflow was, he presumed, all measured separately, but it was not mentioned in the paper. It would also be interesting to know how the feed-water was measured on the train trials. As to the results themselves, Mr. Halpin had already made

one remark which he—Professor Kennedy—had noted, viz., that he feared the arrangement of the indicator pipes must have seriously affected the indicator curves; he felt sure that it had affected them sufficiently to throw a rather serious doubt on the absolute—perhaps not so much on the comparative—value of all calculations from indicator card pressures. Indeed, he was not sorry to have an opportunity of recording his opinion very emphatically that, at the very best, calculations based upon indicator card pressures must be very cautiously accepted, and only regarded as approximate. Without special care as to the position of indicators, the arrangement of the pipes, and of the indicator gear, and the verifying of the springs of the indicators themselves—all of which were only too often done haphazard—such calculations had neither scientific nor technical value. For himself, he might say that in a little compound engine on which he had four indicators, three of them close to the cylinders—as close as they could go—the fourth with a perfectly straight ½in. pipe 6in. long, he had reason to believe that even that pipe affected the card taken from the indicator. He had had to alter it with some trouble in order to get rid of the difficulty. He had but little doubt that when Mr. Borodin put indicators close to the cylinders he would find a gratifying increase of indicator horse-power which would make his engines look better economically than they did at present. He wished to say a word or two about the calculations of heat. At page 16 of the paper it was assumed that practically all the steam condensed in the jackets had been condensed by giving up the heat to the cylinders inside. He was sorry to say that in his own experiments that was not even approximately true. If Mr. Borodin would measure the trap discharge from his jacket, if the traps acted properly, when the engines were stopped and standing hot, he would find that it amounted to a disagreeably large percentage of the whole discharge when the jacket was fulfilling its proper function and the engine running—at least, he was sorry to say that that had been his own experience. It was necessary to take that into account in any complete theory of the action of a jacketed engine, and also not to lose sight of one theoretical point, which, if he did not mistake, had been overlooked in a good many valuable engine trials which the American engineers had made, viz., that the heat received by each pound of jacket steam was not the same as the heat received by each pound of steam which went to the engine. The remarks made by Mr. Borodin in his paper as to the difference in the efficiency of jackets under different conditions of cut-off might very well be carefully noted by those interested in the matter. As to those and some other remarks by the author, he thought it must be said once for all that a jacket that was not properly drained by some automatic arrangement was not only useless, but a source of great waste. Not being an engine maker he hoped he might be excused for saying that engine makers sometimes forgot that point, thinking that when they had provided that annular space round the cylinder which dictionaries called a steam jacket, and put some connecting pipes to it, their duty was done. Certainly unless they also provided some means for draining the space automatically they had much better put a blank flange in the jacket admission pipe and say nothing more about it, because it was really only waste. He wished also to say a word as to Mr. Halpin's interesting contribution to the discussion. They were entirely in agreement as to the necessity of draining jackets, and he was glad that Mr. Halpin had put it in so emphatic a way. He was exceedingly interested in Mr. Halpin's injector proposal, which was quite new to him, and extremely ingenious. He—Professor Kennedy—had used some traps which he was happy to say he had found to work, but he had no doubt that it was easier to get steam traps to work continuously in a laboratory than it was under other circumstances. As to the question of a brake, he should like to take the opportunity of pointing out one matter. Mr. Halpin's mode of getting rid of the hot water was most ingenious; he was charmed with it, and hoped to see it at work. As the question had been raised he should like to point out that there was a very distinct error in the use of an Appold lever arranged in the fashion sketched by Mr. Halpin; at least he believed so. This was explained by a drawing on the black-board. He hoped that the Royal Agricultural Society would look into the matter before they made further trials, and, if he was right, make the necessary alteration. In conclusion, he wished to thank Mr. Borodin for the very frank way in which he had stated his results, failures as well as successes. It added greatly to one's confidence in such results when they were candidly recorded, without any endeavour to make them uphold some favourite scheme. He hoped Mr. Borodin would be able to continue his experiments with more perfect apparatus, and that on a future occasion he would increase their indebtedness to him by giving further results in the form of another paper.

Dr. Ryan, Professor of Engineering at University College, Bristol, said he should not have thought of interfering in this discussion, in which they were all anxious to hear the experience of practical men, were it not for the fact that one or two principles had been enunciated which he thought ought not to pass unchallenged. Mr. Halpin had had the temerity in that room to challenge the authority of Sir Frederick Bramwell. It was not any undue respect for authority which induced him to answer Mr. Halpin's remarks, but he wished to call attention, first of all, to this statement—that it was a very popular fallacy that when they had surrounded their cylinders completely with steam—that was, that they had surrounded the cylindrical sides and ends—that they had then jacketed it as far as it was possible to do so. This seemed very plausible, and he must admit that it was the view which he held. Mr. Halpin had exhibited a diagram showing the ratio of surface, of area, of volume when he jacketed the barrel on the cylindrical portion only, and then when he jacketed it on the two ends, and also on the four ends. He—Dr. Ryan—was a little puzzled by those four ends till he found that he admitted steam within the piston, and in that

way had what practically might be called four ends. In fact, his barrel had a top side and a bottom side, an inside and an outside, and he jacketted all these sides. That was very well, but he went further, and showed a diagram in which the cylinder was ribbed, and in that way he explained it was possible to get more heat from the jacket into the cylinder than if they merely used a simple parallel thickness for the cylinder. That did not appear to be quite correct; it did not seem to accord with the theory of Fourier on the conduction of heat, and he proposed to make some remarks on that point. He should state that he spoke to Mr. Halpin on the previous evening, but he did not admit the accuracy of his (Dr. Ryan's) contention at all, and he further said that he would not be able to reply. He was exceedingly sorry for this, because he felt quite certain, from what he saw of Mr. Halpin yesterday, that he should suffer in the argument, and that no doubt he would attach his (Dr. Ryan's) hair to his waistbelt by the end of the discussion. But even at the risk of taking an unfair advantage of Mr. Halpin, he must say what he had to say on the subject. In the first place, he must apologise for going into the elements of the subject, and for drawing attention to the fact that the rate of flow of heat across any surface depends upon a certain number of elements. It depended first of all on the difference of temperature at the two sides that were under consideration; it depended on the thickness of the plate to be heated; it depended on the time, and on the area. Mr. Halpin's idea seemed to be that if they could increase the area subjected to the heating on the one side in proportion to the volume of the cylinder, they would then have gained some advantages, just as in the case of an electric accumulator, if they increased the surface of the plates they then got a corresponding increase in the lasting power of the cell. But here it was not that we increased the flow of electricity, but increased the source of electricity, and therefore the parallel which one might think at first sight was a good one did not apply. The area in Fourier's theorem and the area stated was the area normal to the lines of flow, and it did not follow that if they increased the area in any other direction they got any advantage. This was at the bottom of the fallacy that, in his opinion, Mr. Halpin had been guilty of. Taking the steam in the jacket as 180 deg. Cent., and supposing the mean temperature in the cylinder to be 150 deg., they had 30 deg. Cent. to cause the overflow, and they had to drive the heat with that motive force through the plate of the cylinder. If they doubled the thickness of the plate they halved the quantity of heat that passed in a certain time; therefore if they increased the thickness of the cylinder by two they had a double thickness to send the heat through, and only got half as much heat through in the same time. That was Mr. Halpin's error. If his rib was twice the thickness of the cylinder they only had one-half the quantity of heat passing from the top to the inside of the cylinder. Even granting, which was not quite correct, that the whole of the rib assumed the temperature of the steam in the jacket, they would simply have got their



isotherm 180 deg. Cent. at the same level that they would have got it if they had not got the rib at all, as shown by the dotted line at A in the sketch; so that the rib on the very best terms was equal to nothing at all; that was the theoretical treatment of the subject, but there was more to be said, and one

might consider what the idea was in the mind of those who thought that these ribs were of some advantage. One idea might be that the iron rib was a sort of store of heat, i.e., that it got saturated with heat from the steam. But when they remembered that the specific heat of iron was very much less than the specific heat of steam, they would see that the rib was only about one-fourth the value as a storer of heat as compared with the same amount of steam, so that it would be far better to have that space filled up with steam than with iron. Another oversight was this, that those who believed in this theory seemed to forget that steam in the jacket was a source of heat, and the iron was only the medium by which the heat was conveyed to the inside of the cylinder. Putting these ribs seemed to him very much like increasing a road across a desert, as if they were to come from a distance of five miles and make a road ten miles, on the supposition that the more road there was the better it would be for them. The fact was, the less iron they had, and the less road, the more directly the heat could go, the better it would be; and therefore the thinner they could make their cylinder the more heat they would get through in the same time. But there might be an answer of this character, that by putting in these ribs they could make their cylinder thinner, that by ribbing it in that way they could use a thinner cylinder than if they actually had the side parallel. A little consideration would show they gained nothing there in the rate of flow, but it was a point one could not very well illustrate popularly. One idea appeared to be that it did not depend so much upon the conductivity of the iron as upon its receptivity and its emissivity, the power of emission. That was a question between the amount of heat the iron received from the steam on one side, and that it gave up to the steam on the other side. He did not think it was a question of that nature. The iron got the heat from the steam in contact with it, he believed principally by contact; but even if it got it by radiation it did not make any difference. They must admit the surface was at the temperature of the steam or very nearly. Of course, if there was hot water on the one side and ice-cold water on the other, it was probable there would be a slight gradient in the water. Where there was so small a difference as this, they might practically take it that the isotherm was close to the surface, and therefore however the iron got the heat it did not matter, and whatever heat it got passed through it and came into the steam on the other side. Then there was another illustration,

that in the case of modern stoves they were ribbed in this way; instead of simply having flat surfaces there were large ribs, perhaps six inches in depth, spreading all round them, and these were found to give largely increased heating power. That was no doubt so, but how was the heat affected in this case? It was a case of iron being made hot by the fire and giving up that heat to the air; the air passed in between the narrow ribs, got heated by contact and rose by convection, so that there was continually a fresh supply of heat coming in, and there the surface did give a measure of the efficiency of the apparatus. So much for the steam jacket. He believed Mr. Halpin was followed by a gentleman, Mr. Davey, who commented on the steam jacket, and pointed out that for the last fifteen years it had been a fruitful cause of dissension and discussion. No doubt it had, and for a very much longer time. They had had experiments proving that steam jackets saved 30 per cent. of heat, and experiments showing that steam jackets lost 10 per cent., and they had to determine for themselves what the exact value of steam jackets was. He believed the real cause of this was that they always lost sight of the precise kind of engines to which they were applied, and the conditions under which they were applied. As Mr. Rich pointed out, there could be no doubt whatever that in the case of slow working engines of large expansion, such as mill engines, steam jackets would be, and must be, useful. The use of the steam jacket, or, at all events, the effect that it produced in any particular case, no doubt depended very much on the rate at which the heat could pass from the steam outside to the steam inside, and if the engine was a quick working one a certain mean temperature would be achieved in the cylinder, and the iron of the cylinder would not be able to convey any sensible amount of heat from the steam jacket during a portion of the stroke. On the other hand, in a slow working engine the mean temperature inside would be very much lower, the gradient of the temperature would be greater, and the time allowed for the transmission of heat would be greater, so that in these cases there must be a distinct advantage in the use of the steam jacket. On the other hand, in the case of a locomotive with a quick working engine, it was almost equally certain that there would be very little advantage derived. He believed the experiments of Mr. Borodin, as far as he knew them, bore out this fact, and in the case where he had worked his trains rapidly, the effect of the steam jacket seemed to be, if anything, negative. Mr. Davey appeared to have gone on to show wherein the error in all these experiments had lain, and he proposed to bury his cylinder in a great mass of steam. These experiments would be very interesting to theorists, but he was afraid practical men would not care much for experiments made on those terms, because they were never likely to have any bearing on practice. It was not safe to prophesy unless one happened to know, but he thought engineers would never make reservoirs in order to plant their cylinders in them. The only thing they could do was to put them in a boiler like Trevithick did, or some of the early engineers; and now that they were using such very high pressures he was sure it would be difficult to make the boiler sufficiently strong to carry steam jackets of the size indicated. They might safely say that large jackets would not be worn by steam engines next winter. Mr. Borodin stated the economy in steam to be about 23 per cent., and in the fuel 32 per cent. To what was this economy in the fuel due? If the economy in the fuel had been 23 per cent., the same as in the economy in the water used, and it had been said to have been due to the compound engine, it would have looked very much as if it were due to the furnace and boiler of the compound engine, and they would have very carefully eliminated the two things. They would want to know the efficiency of the engine. Mr. Borodin did remark that it might have been due to extra careful stoking. In the absence of any evidence alleged to the contrary, he thought they must conclude that it was due either to the stoking or to the furnace, because there did not appear to be any sufficient reason for this difference in the 32 per cent. gained in the fuel and the 23 per cent. in the case of the water. One thing that possibly might affect it was the difference in the blast, because in some varieties of the compound engine there might be just half the number of exhausts to what they got in the ordinary locomotive, and possibly this might add to the even burning of the fire in some way, or possibly having to produce less steam in a given time might enable more perfect combustion and evaporation to take place. He did not wish to give an opinion on either of these points, but he thought in the one case Mr. Borodin did not send the exhaust steam into the chimney, but condensed it in order to find out how much heat there was in it. So that, on the whole, he thought it must be said that this gain in the fuel over the water was due to more careful stoking, or to some difference in the boiler of the engine, and therefore that 10 per cent. ought to be rather deducted from the gain in the water. They must admit that the boiler and furnace of the compound engine were more efficient than those of the simple one, and therefore they must make a deduction from the gain shown by the engines. Then there was another point in regard to the throttling of steam. Mr. Borodin showed that as the regulator was closed the pressure of the steam in the cylinder differed from the pressure in the boiler, and that as they closed the regulator the pressure became greater. Mr. Halpin attributed this in part to the narrower steam pipes, but in the absence of any evidence with regard to the opening of the regulator in this case he did not think they ought to take into consideration the steam pipe, because if they had only three square inches in the regulator and eight in the steam pipe, even though they admitted the steam pipe was not large enough for its work, yet there was no good making it larger so long as the regulator was only opened to that amount; and it distinctly followed from what Mr. Borodin had said that the diminution in these pressures given was due to the closing of the regulator and to that alone. Mr. Borodin had omitted certain tests—he was very sorry that should have been the case—which were not congruous with others

or not in accordance with what one would expect. He should earnestly entreat all experimentalists to give them all the results in their entirety—to give them in their naked hideousness, whether they liked them or not, because many advances had been made in scientific discovery and other things simply by the consideration of these anomalous results, and it was a pity that any records in such a valuable series of experiments should be omitted simply because they did not seem to agree well with others.

Mr. Borodin replied briefly on the whole discussion, and after votes of thanks and general business had been transacted, the meeting broke up. All the proceedings being terminated, the remainder of the week was devoted to various excursions. To two of these we have already referred. On Thursday a large party visited Woolwich Arsenal and Tilbury Docks. The latter has been so frequently described in our pages that we need add nothing now concerning them. On Friday the Southern Outfall Pumping Station was visited, Messrs. Westwood, Baillie, and Co., Poplar, and the torpedo boat works of Messrs. Yarrow and Co., Isle of Dogs. These works are situated on the Thames, near Blackwall. They were started twenty years ago, and at first were devoted to the construction of steam launches. Since then improvements have followed in rapid succession, and Messrs. Yarrow and Co. have been forced to continually enlarge their establishment so as to keep pace with, or rather to be always slightly ahead of the times, and ready to meet requirements which always follow what science first shows to be within the limits of practicability. There have been constructed here over 700 steamers, varying in size from launches 30ft. long to vessels of 170ft., and at the present time about 1200 men find employment. Not only are the vessels built in the yard, but also the machinery, which greatly facilitates construction and keeps the cost of production down to a minimum. It was here that the two stern-wheelers—Lotus and Waterlily—were built for the Nile Expedition. The former, it will be remembered, was navigated up to Lord Wolseley's headquarters at Korti, through numerous cataracts which previously were considered quite impassable for any kind of steamer, and owing to which it will be remembered the rowing-boat scheme was resorted to. In fact during one period of the Nile Expedition the communication between Cairo and the army was entirely dependent upon these two steamers, and in consequence of their remarkable success the Government ordered eight more stern-wheelers of this firm. To those who are well acquainted with the navigation of shallow rivers where rapids and sharp bends are met with, it is well known that the stern wheeler is the only type of vessel which can be adopted with certainty of success. Le Stanley was constructed here some two years since, to the order of the King of the Belgians, for the Congo, it being of very special design, and arranged for subdivision into numerous sections, each of which was furnished with four large wheels, so that it could ascend the river where navigable, and elsewhere be transported overland, each section being transformed with its four wheels into an ordinary wagon. By the latest advice we hear this steamer is now successfully working above Stanley Pool. Among the vessels Messrs. Yarrow have on order are two stern-wheelers, 120ft. long by 24ft. beam, which will have a draft of 12in. and a speed of twelve miles. At the present time this firm is mainly employed upon the construction of torpedo boats, and the following is a list of those they have now on order:—

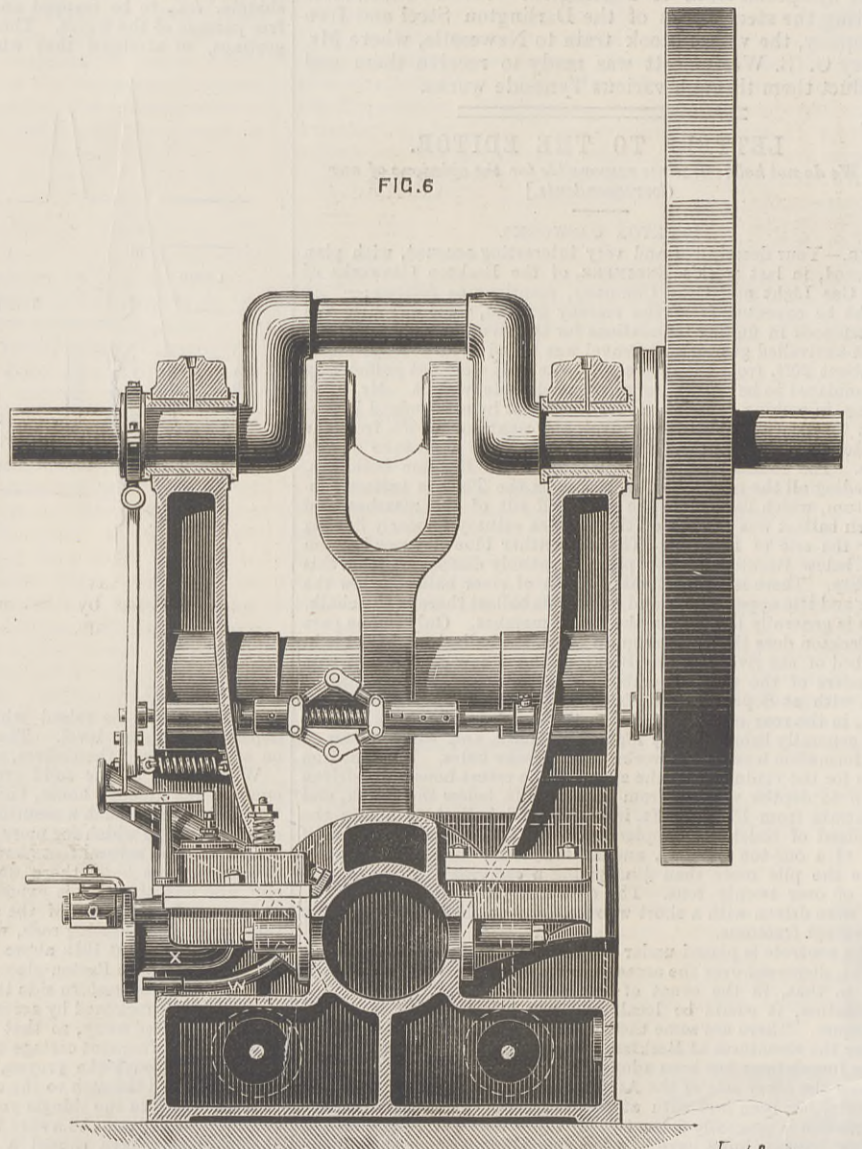
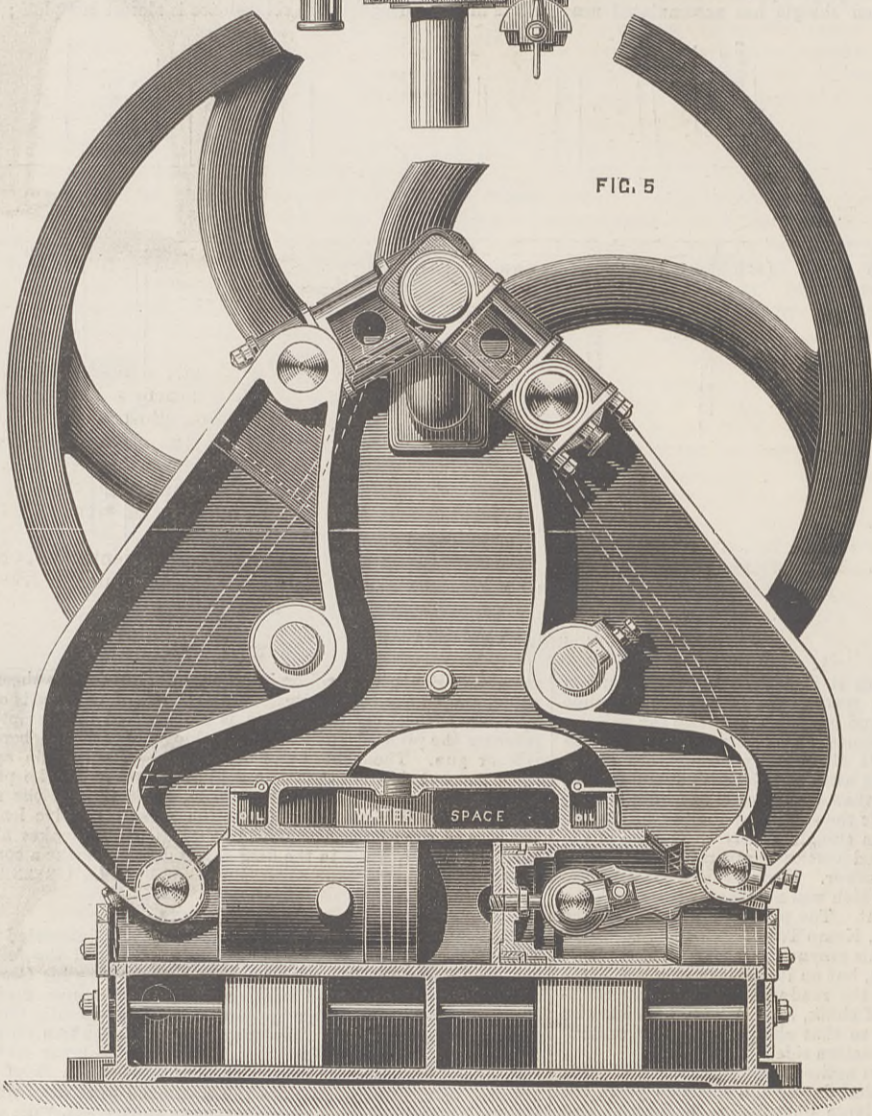
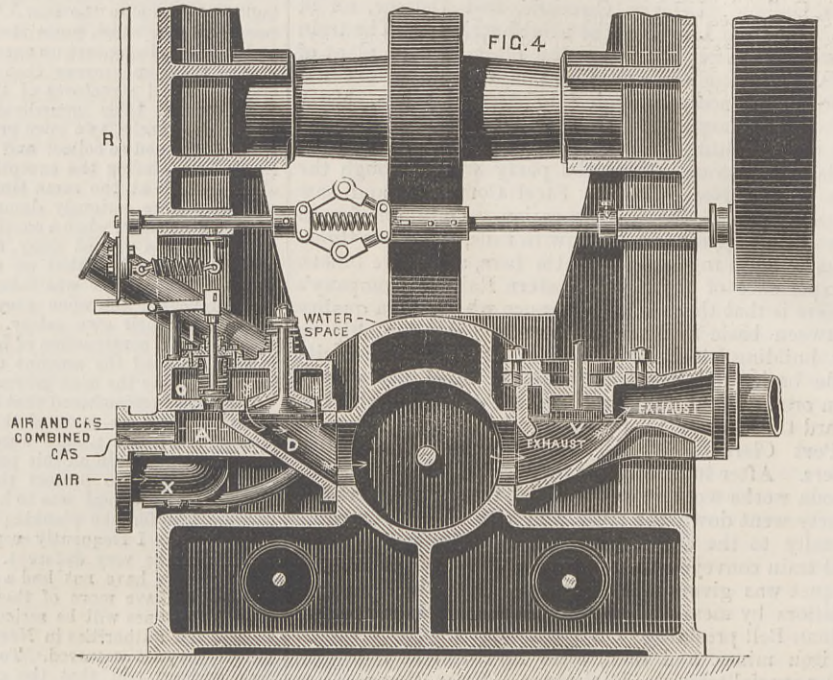
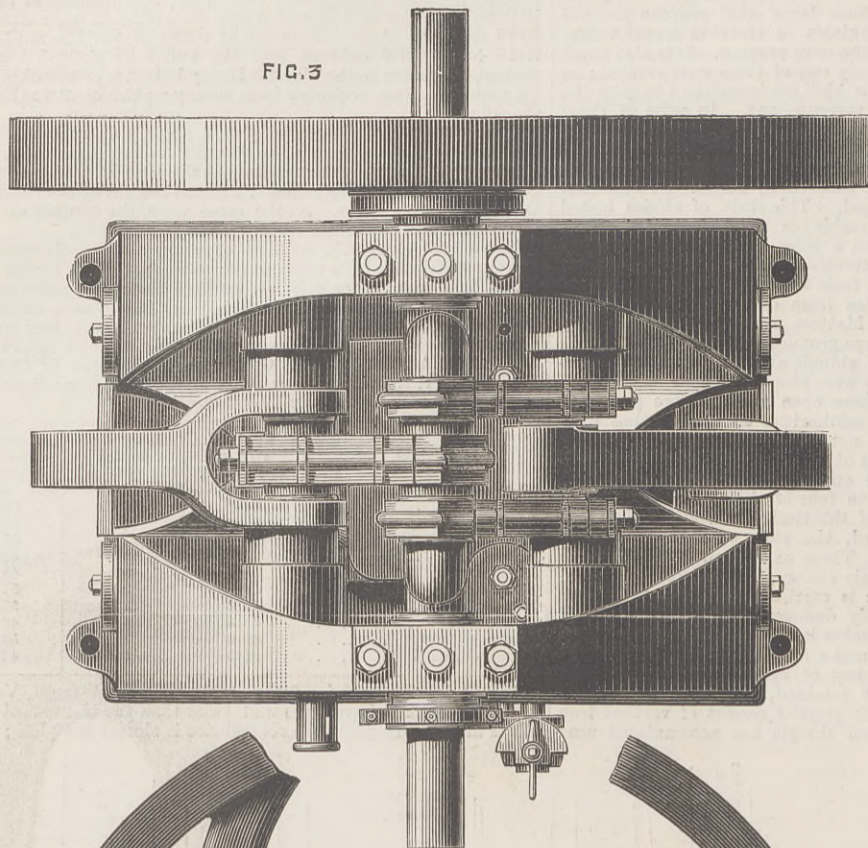
No.	Length.	Beam.		Speed—knots.
23	125ft.	by 13ft.	building for the British Government	19 to 20
1	135ft.	by 14ft.	"Falke" type for the British Government	20 to 23
3	119ft.	by 12ft. 6in.	for the Portuguese Government	20
2	140ft.	by 14ft.	for the Italian Government	22
1	125ft.	by 13ft.	for the Dutch Government	20
1	125ft.	by 13ft.	for the Chilean Government	20
2	140ft.	by 14ft.	for the Spanish Government	23

These are, as regards general design, very similar, differing mainly in speed and mode of armament. In the British boats five torpedo launching guns, having gunpowder impulse, are provided, one firing direct ahead and four over the side, which latter enables an attack to be made while full speed is maintained, thereby reducing the risk of being hit by the fire from the machine guns of the enemy. In the boats building for foreign Powers, in all cases two torpedo guns are fixed in the bow, both for direct ahead fire—foreign authorities attaching the most importance to this system. In the Italian and Spanish boats there will be, in addition to the bow guns, also two more amidships mounted on a turntable for side fire; these are placed at an angle of 6 deg. with one another, and arranged for simultaneous discharge. By this plan much greater certainty of hitting the object aimed at is secured. To give some idea of the amount of material which enters into the construction of a torpedo boat, it may be mentioned that the bars forming the skeleton work of the hull, if laid out in a continuous line, would extend for a length of over two miles, all of which has to be bent into shape, punched and fitted up in its place, to which framework the outside skin plating of the hull is attached. Among the most notable torpedo boats built by Messrs. Yarrow of late may be mentioned the Falke and Adler, constructed for the Austrian Government, in which a speed of 24 knots—equal to 27½ miles—was obtained, this being the highest speed on record; and we understood Mr. Yarrow to say that he was prepared to considerably improve upon this and guarantee thirty miles an hour.

Various other works were visited also. The whole of the arrangements were admirably carried out, and appeared to have given general satisfaction.

Several Belgian engineers availed themselves of an invitation to visit the North. Thirteen of them duly arrived on Tuesday morning under the guidance of Mr. Percy C. Gilchrist, at Middlesbrough; they were met at the station by the President of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers; by Sir Lowthian Bell, ex-president; Mr. Giers, president of the Ironmasters' Association; Mr. J. Wilson, M.P. for Middlesbrough, and various other of the leading men of the district. A special train, provided gratuitously by the North-Eastern Railway Company, was in readiness to convey the party to the works on the programme, and a special steamer was placed at their service

THE EDINBURGH EXHIBITION.—ATKINSON'S GAS ENGINE.



JOHN SWAIN

THE EDINBURGH INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION. No. VIII.

MR. JOHN COCHRANE, of Barrhead, exhibits the Atkinson differential gas-engine as made by him, and as illustrated in our engravings above. These engravings show exterior and interior construction and arrangement of details. By means of the perspective view, Fig. 1, the action of the parts shown in Figs. 3, 4, 5, and 6, will

of the gas valve lever. Air enters the pipe X, gas the pipe A, and when gas is admitted at all it mixes with the air in passing from the space O through the valve into the passage D. Ignition is effected by the flame from the pipe W, which has a funnel at I, and ignites the charge when the port for the purpose is uncovered by the piston, as described in THE ENGINEER of 7th August, 1885.

The following particulars of a brake and gas consumption test of one of these engines has been sent us by Mr. Cochrane:—

Brake Test of a 2-H.P. Engine.

Time.	Counter.	Difference.	Brake Load.	Gas.
min. sec.			lbs.	
21 50	92,000	—	—	—
30 45	93,277	1277	42	10
38 55	94,571	1294	"	20
47 0	95,840	1269	"	30
55 15	97,130	1290	"	40
3 50	98,419	1289	"	50
11 45	99,685	1266	"	60
20 20	00,960	1275	"	70
58 30	8,960	8960	42	70

70ft. in 58½ minutes = 71·8ft. per hour.

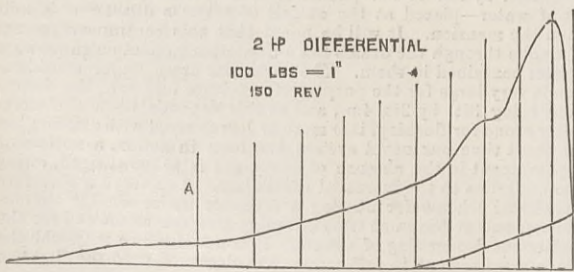
$\frac{8960}{58\frac{1}{2}} = 153\cdot1$ revs. per minute.

Circumference of fly-wheel, 14ft.

$\frac{153\cdot1 \times 14 \times 42}{33,000} = 2\cdot727$ brake H.P.

$\frac{71\cdot8}{2\cdot727} = 26\cdot2$ cubic feet of London gas, B.H.P. per hour.

We have no indicator diagrams from the engine at Edinburgh, as made by Mr. Cochrane, but Mr. Atkinson has sent us those from which we have made the accompanying engravings. The diagram, as taken by the indicator, is shown in full lines. There is no part of the cylinder where an indicator can be fixed that is always open to the space between the pistons. The indicator passage is placed so as to get practically the whole of the working stroke. It opens at B, just after compression has



INDICATOR DIAGRAM, DIFFERENTIAL ENGINE.

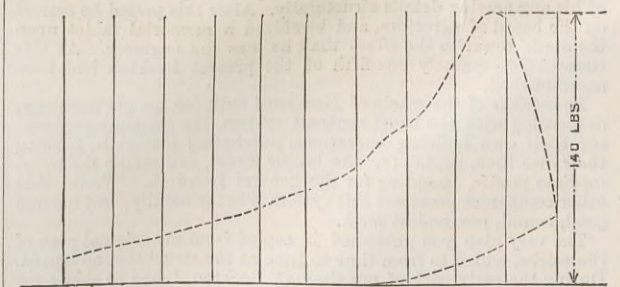
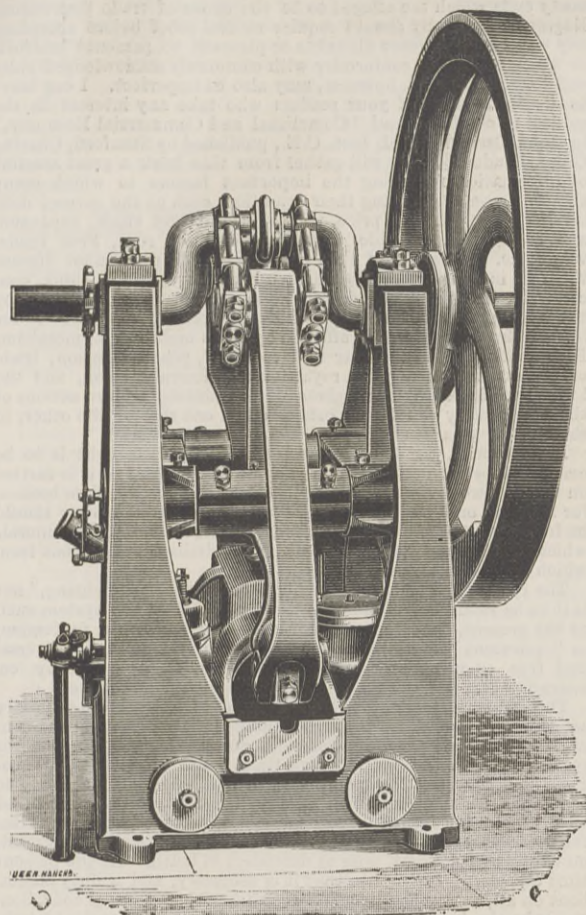


DIAGRAM PLOTTED FROM INDICATOR DIAGRAM.

be readily understood. We may refer to our account of the engine and its cycle, as given in THE ENGINEER of the 7th August, 1885, page 99, as that, taken with the engravings now published, constitutes a complete explanation of the engine. It may, however, be here mentioned that the governor acts, as will be seen from Figs. 4 and 5, upon the gas valve in the space O by causing the end of the excentric rod R to touch or miss the piece on the end

commenced, and closes at A, near the termination of the working part of the revolution, just before the exhaust is opened. The sustained line is doubtlessly due to the pressure shut up in the indicator and passage. The motion of the paper drum is obtained from the working piston, and does not correspond with equal spaces between the pistons. To compare this with an ordinary diagram, equal spaces are carefully measured off from a full-sized model, and ten divisions of a line marked off to correspond. By

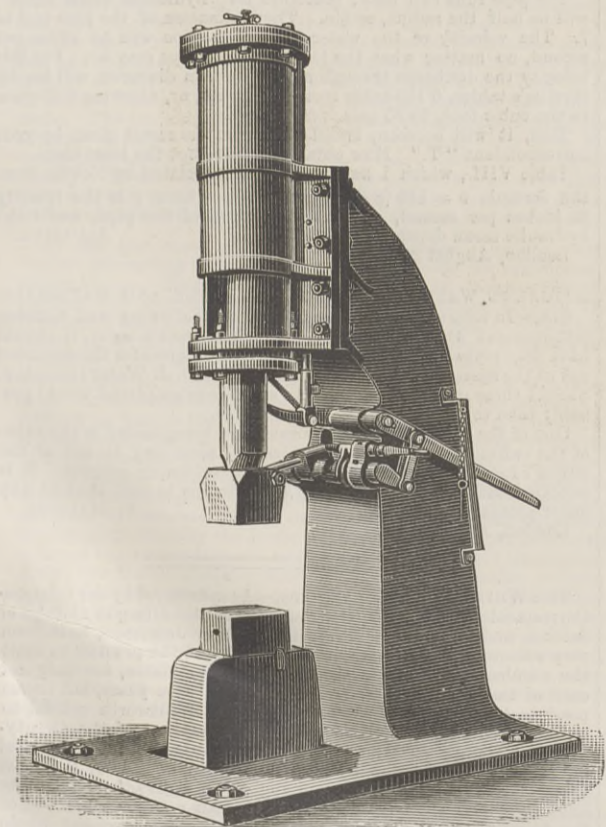
this means a diagram can be divided off at once for calculation, and by laying off ten equal divisions and measuring off each line, a diagram can be transposed that would be the same as if taken with a motion of paper barrel corresponding to equal spaces between the pistons. This has been done to obtain the diagram given in dotted lines, and this is the form in which it should be compared with diagrams from other gas engines. The diagram sent is the kind of



ATKINSON'S GAS ENGINE.

diagram the engines give when working economically. They will make a larger diagram, and give about 20 per cent. more brake-power, but not quite so economically.

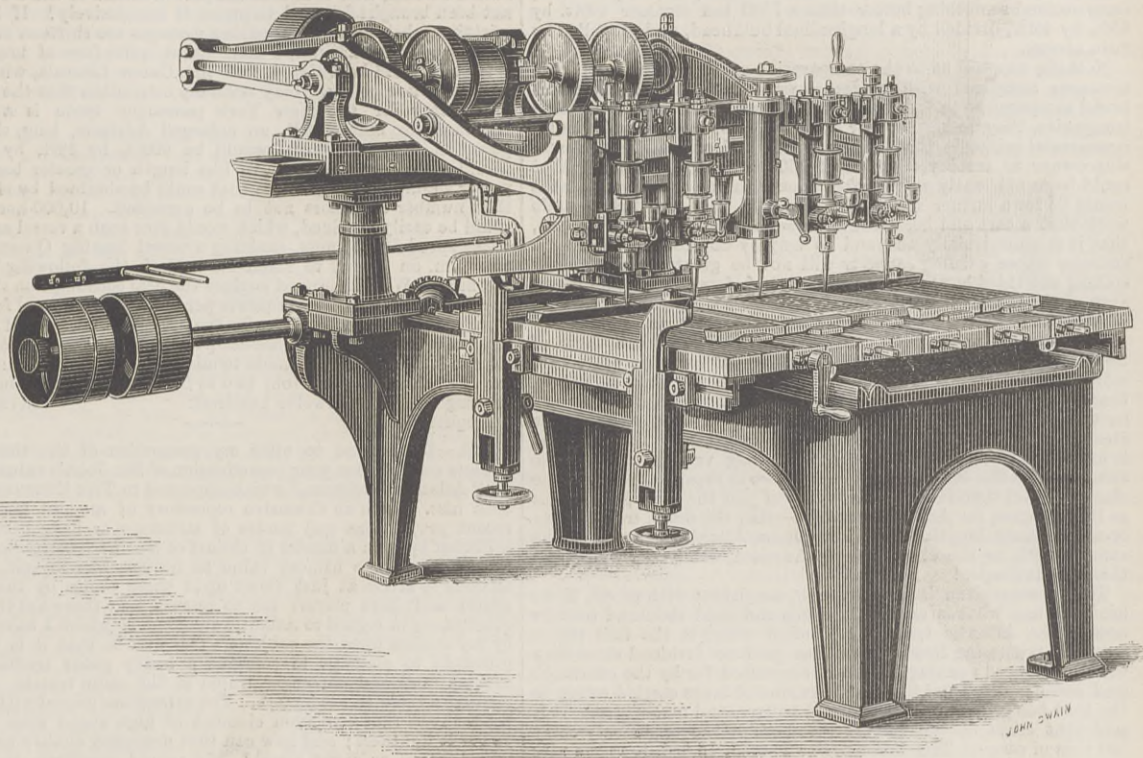
Amongst other exhibits by Messrs. Glen and Ross, Glasgow, is a 5 cwt. Rigby's patent steam hammer. The hammer has a fall or stroke of 22in., the cylinder is 11in. internal diameter, with a deep mouthpiece or stuffing-box. The hammer piston is a solid forging working in the cylinder and through the gland. The gland is flat on two sides, and forms a guide to the hammer piston, which is also flattened on the two sides. The hammer face is of



RIGBY'S STEAM HAMMER.

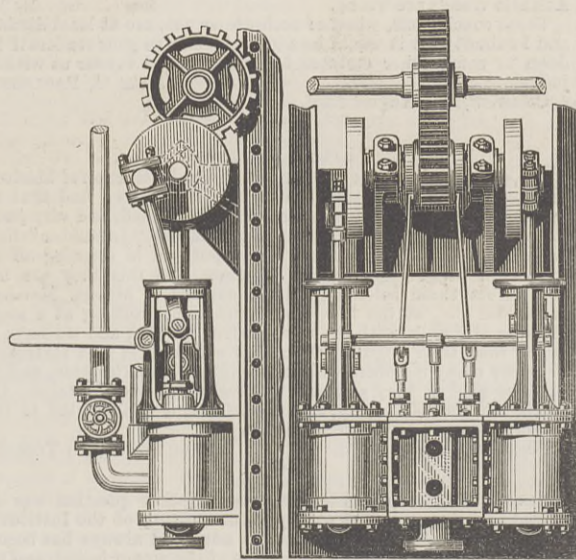
forged steel. The cylinder is fixed to a strong box column of cast iron, a type first introduced by the makers, and has been largely adopted. The steam valve is of the balance piston description, and the gearing is so arranged that the hammer can be worked either by hand or self acting. The cross wyper shaft carries the self-acting gear; on this shaft there is a clutch working free, and actuated by a steel rod fixed at one end, by a pin, to the hammer face, the other end slides through a projection formed on the clutch already referred to. Upon the same shaft there is a corresponding clutch made to slide on a steel feather sunk into the shaft. When the clutches are out of gear the hammer works by the long lever handle; to throw in the self-acting gear a few turns of the small crank handle bring the clutches into contact. The distance or depth at which they are geared regulates the length of stroke and

force of blow, and this is controlled by the screw on the end of the small crank handle. The end of the wyper on the shaft is connected to the hand lever by short links, and thus the reciprocating motion of the hammer piston is conveyed to the valve. About 900 Rigby hammers have been turned out by the makers, and it is noteworthy as their experience that for Government workshops, both at home and abroad, self-acting gear is in great favour, while for nearly all other establishments steam hammers to work by hand are preferred. Messrs. Glen and Ross also exhibit a pair of small coupled engines with equilibrium slide valves and reversing valve. This system was invented by the makers many years ago for the purpose of securing greater durability and quiet-



POLLOCK'S WOOD-CARVING MACHINE.

ness in the working of small engines. It was found that in forges, foundries, and other places exposed to dust, the ordinary link valve motion was liable to wear out rapidly and make great noise. The arrangement illustrated was therefore designed, and gave the most satisfactory results. The cylinders are of the ordinary kind, with a port top and bottom; the valve chest is a square box placed between the cylinders, having three cylindrical chambers cast in it, and connected by the necessary steam passages. Those chambers are lined with brass cylinders, having valve ports top and bottom, and admission ports in the middle. Malleable iron piston valves are fitted to the brass linings; the slide valves are worked by excentrics, and the centre valve is for starting and reversing the engines in lieu of the usual arrangement of link valve motion. With the lever handle as shown the engines are at rest; by raising



GLEN AND ROSS'S ENGINE.

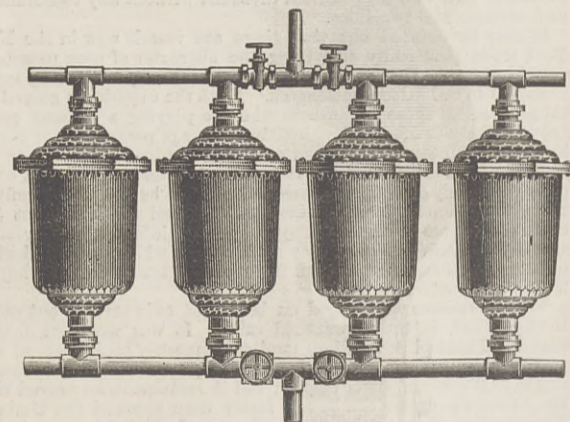
it the engines go in one direction, by depressing it they are reversed. As shown above they are attached to a 40-ton crane for forging purposes, and they have been numerous applied to steam winches, planing machines, plate-bending rolls, and hoists.

Amongst the few wood-working machines finding a place in the machinery-in-motion section, the most noteworthy perhaps is the patent automatic carver shown by the inventor, Mr. John Pollock, of the Victoria Cabinet Manufactory, Beith. Our illustration represents a front view of this machine, which is the inventor's No. 1 size, carrying four cutting spindles working on four separate panels or other subjects. Other sizes are made, however, by which through eight cutting spindles a corresponding number of panels can be simultaneously operated upon. Referring to our illustrations, it will be seen that on a frame pivoted on standards at the back of machine and provided with a back balance, five vertical spindles are carried in front. The centre one acts simply as a pointer to travel over the surface of the panel or other embossed subject to be copied, which must be of cast iron or other hard material. The other four spindles have cutters

attached revolving at a high velocity, which are actuated by leather cording from pulleys on horizontal axle driven from main shafting, and cut their way across the surface of the wood panel placed underneath, all the cutters having equal set and clearance. The table on which panels are fixed moves backwards and forwards on guides formed on the base of the machine; the frame on which carving cutters are carried being lifted bodily at the end of the travel of table by back balance, which is brought into play by an arrangement of rods and levers, in order that table and panels may pass freely back to the starting point. The travel of table is repeated time after time until the whole width of the subject to be copied has been traversed by the cutters. The work is turned off the machine in a

nearly perfect state, requiring only a touch from a skilled carver to impart the requisite clearness and precision to the outline. The No. 1 machine illustrated can produce at one operation four panels 12in. by 6in., in from half an hour to one and a-half hours. The No. 2 machine, carrying eight spindles, is similarly under the will of the operator; doing double the quantity of work in the same specified time.

In the class of exhibits headed "Scientific Appliances," Messrs. Slack and Brownlow, of Canning Works, Man-

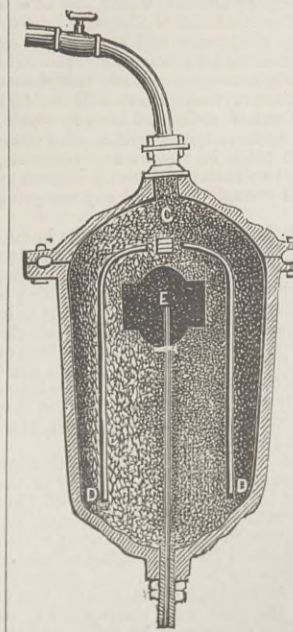


SLACK AND BROWNLOW'S FILTER.

chester, show examples of their improved "compressed charcoal" filters for household and general manufacturing purposes. Our illustration shows a series of these filters, especially adapted for use in

manufactories where a large and constant supply is necessary. The series may be added to, and the consequent supply of pure water increased to any extent. One or more of the filters may be uncoupled at any time for the cleaning or renewal of the carbon. The principle of these filters may be explained briefly as follows, by reference to the engraving, which shows one of them in section:—The water, which is admitted through the service pipe *a*, controlled by supply tap, passes through the solid "compressed carbon" *C*, on its way under the base of the glass cylinder *D D*, which is introduced to compel the water to take a circuitous course, and thus allow the carbon to act for a greater length of time. By this means the depth of carbon through which the water passes is taken as being twice

as great as the apparent depth of the filter. Finally, the water passes through the solid block of carbon *E*, leaving the filter by the down tube. A treble filter, as it were, is

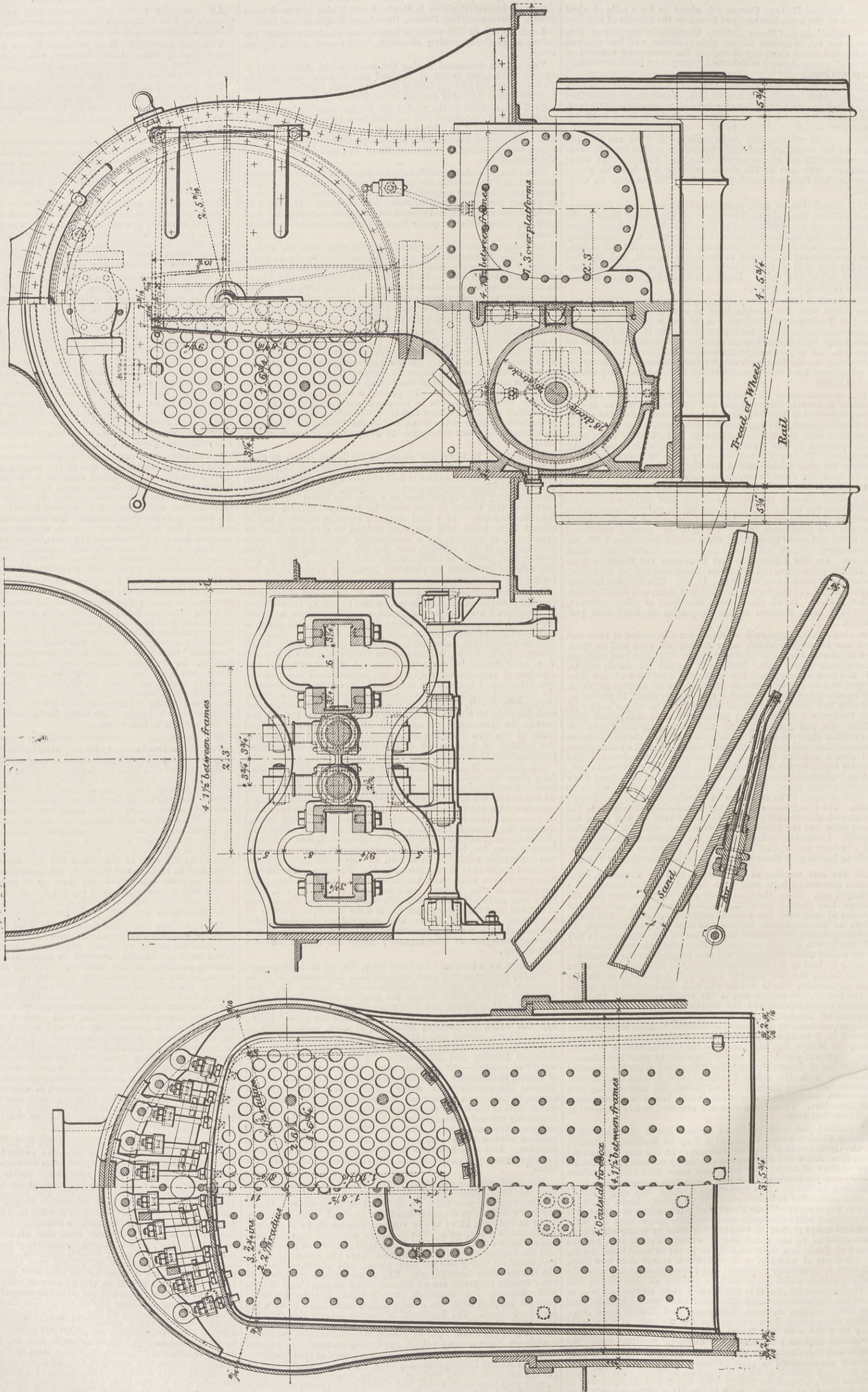


FILTER.

BOGIE EXPRESS ENGINE, CALEDONIAN RAILWAY.

MESSRS. NELSON AND CO., GLASGOW, ENGINEERS.

(For description see page 172)



hydraulic system with the normal system, we are comparing two very imperfect things together; but the fact remains, and applies up to a certain point, that the hydraulic propeller must be very inefficient, because it, of all propellers, drives the smallest quantity of water astern at the highest velocity.

There is, moreover, another and a very serious defect in the hydraulic propeller as usually made, which is that every ton of water passed through it has the velocity of the ship herself suddenly imparted to it. That is to say, the ship has to drag water with her. To illustrate our meaning, let us suppose that a canal boat passes below a stage or platform a mile long, on which are arranged a series of sacks of corn. Let it further be supposed that as the canal boat passes along the platform, at a speed of, say, five miles an hour, one sack shall be dropped into the boat and another dropped overboard continuously. It is evident that each sack, while it remains in the boat, will have a speed the same as that of the boat, though it had none before. Work consequently is done on each sack, in overcoming its inertia by imparting a velocity of five miles an hour to it, and all this work must be done by the horse towing on the bank. In like manner the hydraulic propeller boat is continually taking in tons of water, imparting her own velocity to them, and then throwing them overboard. The loss of efficiency from this source may become enormous. So great, indeed, is the resistance due to this cause that it precludes the notion of anything like high speeds being attained. We do not mean to assert that a moderate degree of efficiency may not be got from hydraulic propulsion, but it can only be had by making the quantity of water sent astern as great as possible and its velocity as small as possible. That is to say, very large nozzles must be employed. Again, provision will have to be made for sending the water through the propeller in such a way that it shall have as little as possible of the motion of the ship imparted to it. But as soon as we begin to reduce these principles to practice, it will be seen that we get something very like a paddle-wheel hung in the middle of the boat and working through an aperture in her hull, or else a screw propeller put into a tube traversing her from stem to stern.

We may sum up by saying that the hydraulic propeller is less efficient than the screw, because it does more work on the water and less on the boat; and that the boat in turn does more work on the water than does one propelled by a screw, because she has to take in thousands of tons per hour and impart to them a velocity equal to her own. Part of this work is got back again in a way sufficiently obvious, but not all. If it were all wasted the efficiency of the hydraulic propeller would be so low that nothing would be heard about it, and we certainly should not have written this article.

STEAM ENGINE BREAKDOWNS.

MR. LONGRIDGE'S annual report for 1885, as engineer to the Engine, Boiler and Employers' Liability Insurance Company, lies before us. Mr. Longridge apologises for the delay which has occurred in its completion and issue. This delay has, he tells us, been caused by the ever increasing pressure of office work, which has left but little time for sifting the year's accumulation of papers and selecting matter suitable for publication. The report contains a great deal of interesting information, such as can be obtained nowhere else. The company, as no doubt most of our readers are aware, insures engines as well as boilers; and Mr. Longridge has therefore excellent opportunities for learning how and why engines break down. He has to record no fewer than 106 failures during 1885, while 795 occurred during the last six years. This is a very large number, and most steam users will agree with us that it might be reduced with advantage. It is very often assumed that a breakdown is always the result of carelessness on the part of the attendant, or of neglect from parsimoniousness, or other reasons, of the owner to get repairs done in good time; but Mr. Longridge's figures go to show that this is not the case. The cause of the 106 breakdowns may be thus classified: 41 per cent. were due to causes purely accidental or unascertained, 13 to old-standing defects and ordinary wear, 30 to weakness or bad design, and only 16 were attributable to the negligence of the owners or their servants. Out of the whole 106 no fewer than 24 were failures of spur gearing, and we may put these on one side as not belonging properly to engine failures. Of the rest we find that valve gear gave way frequently, and that air pumps gave still more trouble. In eleven instances the gear for driving the air pumps broke, and in twelve cases the buckets or valves failed. One "total wreck" is recorded, but the cause was not ascertained; in five instances the crank shafts broke. It will be interesting if we examine more closely a few typical examples from the many particularised by Mr. Longridge.

The eccentric rod of a beam engine was broken because the engine-man had neglected to oil the slide valve. For a similar reason one of the eccentric rods in a pair of horizontal compound engines was broken. In another pair of tandem engines a slide valve spindle and one rocking shaft pedestal were broken from the same cause. In a beam condensing engine the eccentric rod was broken in the same way. These facts throw a good deal of light on the enormous frictional resistance of slide valves, and show how dependent they are for proper working on lubrication. This is especially the case when steam dry and of a high-pressure is used. Some of the failures recorded by Mr. Longridge are very curious. Thus, a horizontal tandem engine was broken down by a lump of hard grease; the cylinders were 23in. and 43in. diameter and 5ft. stroke; the engine made 65 revolutions per minute; the power was given off by a spur wheel 9ft. in diameter with teeth 14in. broad, and 3½in. pitch, both the wheel and pinion being covered by a sheet iron guard in the usual way. "The grease," says Mr. Longridge, "used for these wheels must have been very hard, or there must have been some hard substance in it, for in applying it while the engine was at work a lump was carried round with the teeth and

lifted the cover off its fixing. The cover dropped upon the wheel and was torn to pieces. Both wheel and pinion were smashed, the boss of the wheel only remaining on the shaft. In connection with this breakdown it may be mentioned that one of the company's inspectors, when making his periodical inspection of another insured engine, found an indentation on one of the teeth of the spur wheel which could not be accounted for by anyone at the mill. On inquiry, he ascertained that the manager had given orders to clear all the old grease out of the wheel race and to use it over again. From this the inspector inferred—and his inference is probably correct—that a small piece of iron hidden in the grease had been carried round by the wheel until it came in contact with a tooth of the pinion, causing the indentation. As it happened, the teeth were strong enough and the clearance sufficient to allow the piece of iron, or whatever it was, to pass through without further damage. But the experiment is not one to be repeated with impunity, and it therefore seems well to mention it as a warning to mill managers and engineers against the use of old grease from the wheel-race." In another instance there was a very thorough smash up of a condensing beam engine with a cylinder 30in. diameter and 5ft. stroke. This breakdown occurred about noon, without warning and without apparent cause. The inspector, on arriving shortly afterwards, found the beam broken in front of the main gudgeon, the connecting rod end, together with part of the connecting rod, lying at the bottom of the foundation, having carried away the floor. The other part of the rod, with the exception of a small piece which remained attached to the crank pin, was jammed across the opening in the floor. The fly wheel and driving wheel were lying in pieces at the bottom of the wheel race, even the boss of the former being broken; in fact, nothing was left on the shaft except the crank. The spring beams had broken, and the floor of the beam chamber was pulled down. The cylinder bottom was broken; no cause could be assigned. Mr. Longridge thinks it possible that the beam broke first, possibly because of water in the cylinder; but this is only an assumption. In another instance a small vertical engine was smashed by water flowing over into the cylinder from the condenser. The engine had been slowed down, but the injection cock was left full open.

We have said that a large percentage of breakdowns occurred to air pumps and their gear. Several of these were due to neglect. Of no fewer than six breakdowns Mr. Longridge says:—"All these breakdowns would have been avoided if proper care had been taken, for they all arose from defects which should have been detected by intelligent examination. Air pumps, buckets, and valves are, perhaps, more liable than any other parts to get out of order, and yet they are frequently the most neglected. When we consider the concussions to which all the fastenings and joints about an air pump are subjected every stroke, and the gritty and corrosive nature of the water in which the rods and buckets often work, it must be evident that special vigilance must be used if damage is to be prevented. The chambers in which the pumps are placed should be kept as clean as other parts of the engine-house, instead of being, as they often are, too filthy for anyone to enter without a change of clothes. They should be made accessible by permanent staircases or ladders and flooring, and should be well lighted, if possible by daylight, and if not, by gas. If this were done many of the difficulties of making a proper examination would be removed, and breakages would certainly be fewer. It is also recommended that metallic packing for buckets should be abolished. It is both a useless expense and a source of danger. A plain brass or iron bucket, about 12in. deep, when the water is free from sediment, or one with wood lagging when it is gritty, will answer every purpose; for it is not necessary that an air-pump bucket should be tight in the same sense as a piston."

Mr. Longridge very properly urges the use of proper curves and fillets in all cases where the diameter of a shaft or rod suddenly changes, and he particularly insists on this when steel is used. Indeed, it is easy to see that he is not specially enamoured of steel—Bessemer steel, at all events. He mentions one instance where a crank shaft having broken, it was replaced by one of Bessemer steel, against his advice. There was a slight change in diameter where the crank was put on. There was no fillet, the change being made abruptly. The result was that a crack commenced at the corner, and ran into the bearing, which it caused to heat, whereby the engine-man's attention was attracted, and the mischief discovered before the crank dropped off. The shaft was 5½in. in diameter in the journal, and 5¼in. in the crank seat, so that the shoulder was only ⅛in. diameter, a quantity which might have been accepted as too small to do any harm. Mr. Longridge also gives particulars of the breakage of a crank shaft in the case of an uninsured Corliss condensing engine, with a cylinder 40in. diameter by 5ft. stroke. The main shaft was of Bessemer steel 15in. diameter in the neck, swelled to 15½in. at the end to receive the crank, which was held by a steel key after having been forced on to the shaft, probably by hydraulic pressure. The keyway in the shaft extended the full length of the swell, and was cut perfectly square in all the corners. The fracture which led to the destruction of the shaft commenced at the inner end of this keyway, and extended across the shaft, partly within the crank and partly through the neck, and on one side branched off parallel to the axis of the bearing. The final fracture appears to have taken place as the crank passed the outer centre, and when the piston was commencing its return stroke; the latter, being thus freed, was driven against the back-end cylinder cover, smashing it and also the cylinder. The engine-man was found dead near the engine-house door, having either been killed by the shock or suffocated by the steam. At the coroner's request Mr. Longridge made a report upon the accident, attributing it to intense local stress at the corner of the keyway, produced by sudden change of form in a material which, whether from initial strain set up in cooling, or from some other cause at present unknown, has proved itself unfit to

bear such sudden changes. We may add here that Mr. Longridge has obtained particulars of no fewer than sixty-four breakdowns of uninsured engines. In seventeen cases the main shafts gave way, in twelve the spur gearing was smashed, and in four the engines ran away and the fly-wheels were smashed to pieces.

It is impossible to read this report without seeing that, although actual neglect or false economy brought about but a comparatively small proportion of the breakdowns recorded, the number of these would have been reduced had more vigilance been manifested. There is a considerable margin between positive neglect and supineness. An engine-man may do his duty so fairly well that it is impossible to find fault with him, while his performance is so far from perfection that it is equally impossible to praise him with justice. In the same way, while many steam owners do all that is believed to be necessary and with promptitude, they use the word "necessary" with a certain degree of latitude which leads to bad results. The very fact that the cause of a large number of breakdowns was unknown seems to us to be evidence of want of vigilance on the part of some person or persons. Take, for example, No. 21 in Mr. Longridge's list. "Beam condensing, wrought iron crank shaft broken off close to the fly-wheel boss, cause of damage not ascertained." Now, it is an almost unheard of event for a wrought iron crank shaft to break without giving evidence of weakness beforehand. We hear nothing here of a latent flaw, and it is hard to resist the conclusion that if the cap had been lifted and the crank examined with care a crack would have been discovered. Every crank shaft ought to be stripped and examined once in three months. The operation does not take long, and will go far to secure the owner of the engine against a bad accident. Of course, we are here referring only to shafts of some size, say over 5in. in diameter. Again, take the following:—"No. 8 horizontal condensing engine: Wrought iron crank shaft, crank pedestal, brass steps, two pedestal cap bolts, slide bars, eighteen cylinder cover bolts, gib and cotter for air pump connecting rod, and two air pump slide bars, connecting rod, crosshead, air pump connecting rod broken, and piston-rod bent. Cause of failure: Absence of a fillet at junction of neck to body of shaft. The square corner had started a fracture at each side of the shaft, in the line joining the centres of the shaft and crank pin. These fractures had extended through the shaft in a direction at right angles to its axis, and were within 2in. of meeting when the shaft broke. Owing to the position and direction of the fracture the neck did not heat."

It seems to be almost certain that if the shaft had been examined the fracture would have been discovered. We will not pursue this line of argument further. If breakdowns are to be avoided vigilance must be displayed in looking for premonitions of failure; and we may rest assured that steam users will best consult their own interests if they make it worth the while of their engineers to discover and report the existence of any defect which, if not remedied, may lead up to serious consequences. We fear that only too many pursue a precisely opposite course, and discourage their men when they manifest any tendency to make what are very much mis-called "complaints."

THAMES SUBWAYS.

AFTER nine or ten years' more or less wrangling the Metropolitan Board of Works have arrived at something like a hopeful decision on the question of constructing a tunnel or subway beneath the Thames for the benefit of the East-end and the opposite shore. Some members of the Board have deprecated and opposed the provision of any such facilities; others have disputed as to whether a tunnel, if made, should be at Blackwall or Shadwell, or some other point. Meanwhile the dwellers on either side of the lower Thames have been clamouring for some communication by which they could cross the river without having to come all the way to London Bridge, and then, having crossed, travel all the distance back along the parallel side. Hitherto their appeals and demands have been in vain, for the subway scheme was delayed; the steam ferry, which would have been a little use at any rate, speedily failed, and the additional bridge has only lately been commenced. Now, however, something is to be done. The Works Committee of the Board having investigated the question, have presented a report, in which they express the opinion that the Board should not allow another year to elapse without endeavouring to increase the transit facilities on the Thames, and advise that the Board should prepare a scheme to be submitted to Parliament next year for the formation of a subway or tunnel at Blackwall, as was suggested by the engineer to the Board in 1882. This recommendation, being put into the form of a resolution, was considered at a recent meeting of the Board, and eventually adopted by twenty-nine to ten members, after a long and rather animated discussion. Mr. Edwards, who moved the resolution, urged that the scheme would be of great advantage to the people on both sides of the river, and observed that the question of whether or not there should be another subway lower down than this must be held over until it was seen how the new Corporation bridge answered. Mr. Cook and Mr. Webster, M.P., also strongly advocated the project as one that the people had a right to have carried out. Other members preferred the Shadwell alternative, and an amendment to that effect was moved, but defeated on a division. Mr. Abbott considered both tunnels absolutely necessary; while Colonel Hughes, M.P., condemned all tunnels as the worst kind of communication that could be adopted except for railways, and advised the substitution of ferries. On the other hand, Mr. Runtz pointed out that ferries were too dependent upon tides, and mentioned that the main reason for the construction of Brooklyn Bridge was that even at New York, where the difference between high and low water was only 8ft., the use of ferry boats had been very inconvenient. In the end the proposal of the committee was accepted, and there is thus a prospect now of a definite scheme being advanced, and, if Parliament approves, carried out.

AGES OF VESSELS LOST.

The shipping register of the past month contains some facts of importance as bearing on the loss of vessels from that register. There were 166 removed from the British and Colonial registers during the past month. Not less than 55 of these were broken up. Out of the 55 there were 10 colonial wooden sailing vessels, and 1 small colonial iron steamer, built at Melbourne in 1858.

We have therefore 44 vessels belonging to the United Kingdom which were broken up; and 36 of these were wooden sailing ships, and the oldest of the 36 was a vessel built in 1811. Of the remainder of the British vessels there were 6 wooden or composite steamers, the oldest built in 1847. The 2 vessels remaining were iron steamers—one built in 1846 and of 56 net tons, and the other built at Lymington in 1868. It is thus shown that the vessels broken up were not very old, and that may be taken as an indication that the low value of new vessels is tending rather in the direction of allowing owners of old—comparatively old—vessels to replace them with new ships. There is another cause of removal which may be glanced at—that of the vessels “lost”—14 being so described. There were 10 of these colonial wooden sailing ships; three British wooden sailing ships and 1 small iron sailing ship. An interest of a different kind attaches to the statement of the vessels sold to foreigners—8 in number in the month. There were 4 of these which were colonial wooden sailing vessels, 3 British wooden sailing ships, and only 1 iron steamer. It would appear from these facts that there is a clearance of the register of some of the older wooden vessels, though at the same time more wooden vessels are being added than is generally thought to be the case. For instance, last month there were not fewer than thirty-four wooden sailing vessels added to the registry for the United Kingdom. Seven of these were not new—were built prior to the present year, that is; but the remainder were built in the present year. The ports of building were largely Yarmouth, Grimsby, Southampton, and Lowestoft, which points at once to the intention of the vessels to be employed more or less in the fishing trade. But it is clear that there is a tendency to change the merchant fleet by the removal of the old and the addition of new vessels of other forms, type, and material. Hence it may be concluded that whilst on the year as a whole there is a reduction of the tonnage of the fleet, and whilst the reduction is much more in the cargo-carrying vessels, there is also a more efficient fleet—one in which the type of vessels is newer, the speed generally greater, and there is greater adaptation to the special trade of the particular vessel.

OPENING OF THE SEVERN TUNNEL.

ANOTHER step towards rendering the Severn Tunnel available for general purposes is to be taken on Wednesday next, when it will be opened for goods and mineral traffic. We have written so frequently upon this great work during its progress that we need not now deal with the nature of the undertaking; but we may recall the fact that on September 7th last year the first trip through was made by a train bearing officials and visitors, and that on January 9th the first goods train, consisting of one engine, two vans, and fourteen trucks, carrying 150 tons of steam coal, was run through from Aberdare to Southampton docks. The journey occupied only about eleven hours, the passage through the tunnel itself taking but nineteen minutes. Both trials were deemed highly satisfactory, but these matters practically stopped, for there was still much to be done in the way of construction. The hope was that the line might be ready for general goods traffic early in the spring, but the heavy rain and floods subsequently experienced—coupled no doubt with the two mishaps previously sustained through the influx of water—made the engineers more than cautious, and on the advice of Sir John Hawkshaw the date of opening was deferred until September 1st. In the meanwhile the work has been pushed forward vigorously but with exceeding care, in order to ensure the line against further disaster. The masonry has been carried out to a high degree of solidity and firmness. Powerful and specially built pumping apparatus has been erected, and highly effective fans and other ventilating appliances have been introduced. It may therefore be assumed that when it is once opened the railway will be as workable and free from danger as engineering science can render such an enterprise. From Wednesday next a certain portion of the company's goods traffic will be accommodated, but before that service can be completed, and a passenger service established, an extension of the short line between Bristol and Pilding, where the railway enters the river part of the tunnel, has to be carried out. This will occupy a few months longer, but before the end of the year, should nothing unexpected intervene, the whole tunnel will be opened for every class of traffic.

THE MILFORD HAVEN NAVAL OPERATIONS.

It is quite impossible to read the spirited and graphic accounts of the Milford Haven attack and defence in the *Times* and *Daily News* without grasping the general features and any lessons to be learned. As we understand the case the trial was mainly one of the handling of torpedo boats and electric lights in the attack and defence of a passage imperfectly closed by a boom. The interest centred on this passage, which lay between Stack Rock and Thorn Point, across the greater part of which a boom, consisting of baulks chained together, was placed. This boom was sufficiently strong only to keep out boats. The attacking fleet anchored in water which, it must be presumed, was supposed not to be commanded by a heavy fire. Perhaps the ships had silenced all guns of sufficient range and power to fire across Sandy Haven Bay, and there were no rifled mortars with Watkins' appliances to enable them to strike the ships' decks. We are inclined to think that some supposition detracting from the power of the shore batteries is required in support of the feasibility of the operations. These chiefly consisted in the attacks on each side of torpedo boats. The general opinion seems to be that these were allowed considerable latitude on both sides as to the positions into which they ventured; this was necessary to the object in view. The operations were carried out with ability and spirit. It appears as if more was likely to be gained in experience by the shore defence than by the ships. Evidently electric lights ought to be placed lower than was formerly ordered, to illuminate water and discover boats effectually. The useful work may be nearly summed up as practice in handling torpedo boats, electric lights, range finding and searching apparatus, and machine guns.

LITERATURE.

Report on the East Anglian Earthquake of 22nd April, 1884. By RAPHAEL MELDOLA, F.C.S., F.R.A.S., and W. WHITE. London: Macmillan and Co. 1885; 223 pp.

This is a carefully drawn up report upon a subject which, in one respect, is most difficult to treat—namely, that in examining the numerous reports sent in by people over the area over which the earthquake was more or less sensible, said to be about 50,000 square miles, it is generally found that they are records of impressions of what the writers thought they saw and felt rather than what actually occurred. Personal peculiarities of the absolutely untrained observers vitiate almost all their accounts. Professor

Meldola's report is, however, well and judiciously written, and the main items of records sent him are carefully reviewed. The book shows that earthquake physics are attracting the attention of a class of scientific men able to weigh evidence and test it by measures and physical data. Seismology, as Mallet named it, is no longer the scribbling playground of the half-informed guessing and speculating geologist, made bold by the difficulty which some years ago attended the attempt to prove that his propositions were absurd, and it is pleasant to find this report followed up by a careful digest of the evidence afforded, viewed in the light of modern scientific knowledge and of the subject. That part of the book dealing with “The Earthquake in Relation to Geological Structure,” which follows the descriptive report, affords very numerous topics on which much might be said if space were at our disposal, but as it is not, we must content ourselves with a reference to only one or two. Much is said of the destruction of buildings, which is generally greatest on tertiary strata; and that differences must be expected over areas of diversified superficial formation; and in a very interesting manner Professor Meldola has drawn attention to the general agreement of observed facts with what has been pointed out by Mallet more especially, namely, that the greatest destruction will be found on those formations which, of a coherent and homogeneous nature, are yet of the semi-plastic order, best fitted for receiving and transmitting wave vibrations of considerable amplitude. The London clay is an example, while the drift-sands and gravels—which, as compared with the former, have practically no elastic range—afford an example of bad transmitters, which are nevertheless more destructive as foundations than the conformable rocks. The great destruction often observable near rivers and sea margins and along junctions of different formations are considered with reference to the examples which the Essex earthquake afforded; but the examples given by previous writers, and the explanations which should be attributed to Mallet, are credited elsewhere. We have a high opinion of the energy displayed by Mr. Milne in his laborious working in seismic matters, but we must object to the statement that no writer excepting him had laid stress on the greater destructive efficiency of the wave energy near, and at free margins where the energy is dissipated by approximately free motion in one direction or set of directions. Professor Meldola has, however, evidently endeavoured to give due credit to all, and has succeeded in putting a great deal into a few pages. We can commend this book as interesting to all geologists, and especially to those who are attracted by the application of physics to one of the greatest problems in physiography.

Year-Book of the Scientific and Learned Societies of Great Britain and Ireland. Third annual issue. London: Charles Griffin and Co. 1886.

ALTHOUGH the year has far advanced, we may make a note on this book, for we have sometimes found it useful. It comprises the titles, address, date of foundation, and objects of the societies in the United Kingdom, and gives some information upon the recent work of each, together with lists of the papers read during the preceding year before societies engaged in fourteen different branches of science. The names of the chief officers are also given.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

Precautions to be Adopted on Introducing Electric Light. By Killingworth Hedges. London: E. and F. N. Spon. 1886.

A Course on the Stresses in Bridge and Roof Trusses, Arched Ribs, and Suspension Bridges. By W. H. Burr, C.E. Third edition. New York: J. Wiley and Sons. London: Trübner and Co. 1886.

The Railways and the Republic. By J. F. Hudson. London: Sampson Low and Co. 1886.

The Elementary Principles of Electric Lighting. By Alan A. Campbell Swinton. London: Crosby Lockwood and Co. 1886.

Cork Industrial Exhibition, 1883. Report of Executive Committee, Awards of Jurors, and Statement of Accounts. Cork: Purcell and Co. 1886.

THE MANCHESTER EXHIBITION.

WITH a view to the industrial and art exhibition with which Manchester intends to celebrate her Majesty's jubilee next year, considerably more than £100,000 has been guaranteed; all the details have been decided, and the contracts for the building have been signed. The scope of the Exhibition is to be this: Seven sections, viz.—I. Industrial design, as shown in textile fabrics, pottery, metal work, &c.; original drawings for manufactures of various kinds, examples of ancient fabrics and designs, and architectural designs. II. Industrial processes—textile machinery, engineering and general plant, and machinery in motion. III. Chemical and collateral industries. IV. Handicrafts—workers in brass, iron, wood, ivory, needlework, &c., illustrating ornamental work in great variety. V. Representation of Old Manchester and Salford, in which the handicraft work of Section IV. is performed; model of the Ship Canal, showing docks, locks, waterways, &c. VI. Fine Arts—paintings, engravings, sculpture, &c., produced during the Victorian era. VII. Botanical—fruits and flowers, fairy fountains, electric light, music, &c. The contract for the building has been given to Messrs. Maxwell and Luke, of Princess-street, Manchester, and the estimated cost—exclusive of Old Manchester and Salford—is £32,653. In making this estimate the contractors count upon a re-sale of materials equal to fifty per cent. of the original cost. The design proposes a building in five sections, consisting of a lofty nave and transepts, in the form of a Latin cross, with low buildings supporting it on each side. Each of these side buildings or courts is to be 30ft. wide, with a view to admitting of side exhibits and a central gangway. In Section II. there will be three sub-divisions; one for motive power, electrical machines, and machinery in motion of a hazardous description; one of machinery in motion not hazardous; and one of processes not requiring motive power, and not hazardous. The floors in the first two of these sub-sections are to be 4½ft. below the level of the rest of the flooring. Section IV. (Old Manchester) will be so arranged that the whole front of the buildings towards the Botanical Gardens will be faced by ancient buildings representing Old Manchester and Salford. Section VI.—Fine Arts, the exhibits in which will probably be worth £200,000—is to be separated from the rest of the building by fire-proof screens; and the doorways will be deeply recessed as a safeguard against fire. The music-room

will also be isolated by fire screens. The whole of the framework is to be of wrought or cast iron gas and water tubing—this material being selected because of its practical value afterwards upon a re-sale, and because of the ease and rapidity with which it can be set up and taken down. The roof, however, and the dome will consist partly of glass and partly of corrugated sheet iron. The floor will consist of concrete slabs 4in. thick; and as a further protection against fire, the central portion of the building is to be divided by four 14in. brick walls from the sections on each side. It is likewise recommended that wire curtains should be provided between the brick walls, to be lowered when the building is closed, and by reason of all these measures and devices it is claimed that the risk of fire will be reduced to a minimum. The total area for the building is put at 37,305 superficial yards, which at 17s. 6d. a yard represents the estimated cost of £32,653 14s. The Exhibition is to be opened in May next.

THE INDUSTRIAL UTILISATION OF WOLFRAM AND SOME OF ITS COMPOUNDS.

WRITING on this subject, Dr. G. Heppé says it is remarkable that this metal, with its many peculiar and good qualities, and its not less interesting combinations, has up to the present only found, comparatively speaking, a limited utilisation in the industrial arts and the different branches of manufacture, and therefore from time to time it cannot appear superfluous to call attention to its merits, and the useful application of some of its compounds. It was just thirty years ago last year since the metal wolfram was first added to steel, and attention drawn to it on account of the great hardness it imparted to the product. Innumerable articles have been published concerning the excellent qualities of the material, and yet very little of it is found in daily use compared to the great mass of other steel now used for such a number of purposes. The reason for this may, to some extent, be, that wolfram steel got for a time into discredit, because very often articles were brought upon the market purporting to be wolfram steel which did not contain a particle of that metal. In this manner the idea got abroad that no more wolfram steel at all was made. This, however, is by no means the case, for not long ago Dr. Heppé had the opportunity of visiting the works of Mr. Theodor Kneifch in Roswein, Saxony, where nothing else but wolfram metal and various preparations of it have been continuously manufactured for a long period, all of which have been sold regularly to the large steel works of the country. It is very probable also that another circumstance may have prevented the extended use of wolfram steel; namely, that the material was not always made of a regular quality, caused no doubt by using as a mixture with the steel or iron raw wolfram ore instead of the pure wolfram metal. In that case a regular quality in the product was not to be expected, for at one time it would contain a greater and at another a less percentage of wolfram, inasmuch as the ores vary considerably in their contents of metal, and the reduction of the latter out of them does not always take place in regular quantities. Besides this, in adding the raw ore other undesirable substances, as arsenic, phosphorus, sulphur, &c., may accompany it and mix with the iron or steel; which, of course, would thereby assume different characteristics. All these evils are at once removed by using the pure wolfram metal; it is therefore strongly recommended either only to employ this, or an iron containing a known percentage of it, when the object is to produce a steel which shall always have the same characteristics. A properly manufactured wolfram steel possesses extraordinary hardness and toughness, and costs very little more to produce than the ordinary qualities, whilst its value rises in a much higher ratio. Wolfram steel is not only peculiarly applicable to tools of every kind, as chisels, drills, turning tools and the like, for iron and steel, but to the improvement of railway materials, as rails, tires for locomotives, axles, couplings, &c.; also in the puddling process it is very valuable, inasmuch as the wrought iron produced becomes more malleable and shows a long silky fibre when broken and bent, without in the least impairing its strength or welding qualities as compared with other best sorts of iron. It is not advisable, however, to permit the percentage of wolfram in bar iron to rise above 2½ per cent., or else the iron might become too hard. On the other hand, when it is a question of steel for cutting implements, stamping dies, files, and similar tools, the percentage may rise to 7½, according to the degree of hardness required. For tires the percentage can vary from 2½ to 5; for axles, ½ to 1 p.c. Not only is an addition of wolfram applicable to puddled steel, but as is known, it can be applied with advantage to the Bessemer process; indeed, ordinary foundry pig is improved by the addition of 1½ p.c. of wolfram, and its—the pig—quality rendered thereby particularly adapted to castings which are subsequently to be annealed or made malleable. In the manufacture of wolfram steel or iron it is of the utmost importance to apply the best methods for the purpose, in order to prevent a portion of the metal from being burnt away and so being lost by oxidation. At the same time the quantity of wolfram must not be too large, or else the steel made would be too hard.

Of all the metals, iron alloys itself the best with wolfram; indeed, in all proportions up to 80 p.c. wolfram—but such high percentage alloys are useless because they cannot be melted. This is also partly the case when alloyed with other metals, as copper, antimony, bismuth, and nickel, for 10 p.c. of wolfram is sufficient to make them unworkable. Nevertheless, very valuable alloys of wolfram with remarkable properties have been produced with a low percentage of that metal.

It may just be alluded to that wolfram steel is very applicable for steel magnets, as it retains its magnetism much longer than ordinary steel will do.

THE BIRMINGHAM EXHIBITION.—The machinery portion of the exhibition at Bingley Hall, which was opened on Thursday in connection with the forthcoming visit to Birmingham of the British Association, promises to be a great success. Water, steam, gas, and electricity, will all be severally used in supplying motive power for the machine exhibits. Prominent among the heavy exhibits will be machinery for propelling 52ft. torpedo boats, also for propelling 28ft. cutter, and air compressing engines for charging torpedoes having a working pressure of 1500 lb. per square inch, all of which are sent by Messrs. G. E. Belliss and Co., engineers, Birmingham. Messrs. James Russell and Sons, of the Crown Tube Works, Wednesbury, contribute boiler tubes up to 15in. diameter outside, iron and steel tubes, plain, spiral, and tapered, for shipbuilding, architectural, and other purposes; hydraulic tubes of various sizes, proved from 4000 lb. to 13,000 lb. per square inch, and valves for regulating the pressure of steam from high to any lower pressure, and also a large variety of gas tubes. Electricity is being used for lighting the Bingley Hall Exhibition. The main hall is illuminated by twenty 3000-candle-power arc lamps, and incandescent lighting will employ about 220 lamps of 16-candle power each. Two compound Robey steam engines of 20 and 35-horse power respectively supply the motive power,

TOZER'S SELF-FASTENING RAILWAY CHAIR.

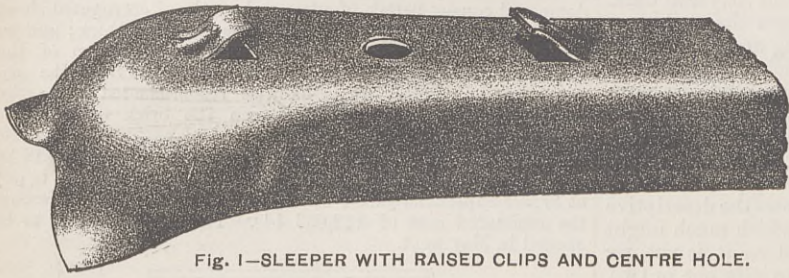


Fig. 1—SLEEPER WITH RAISED CLIPS AND CENTRE HOLE.

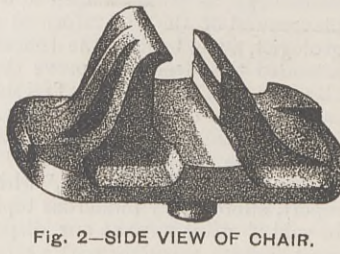


Fig. 2—SIDE VIEW OF CHAIR.

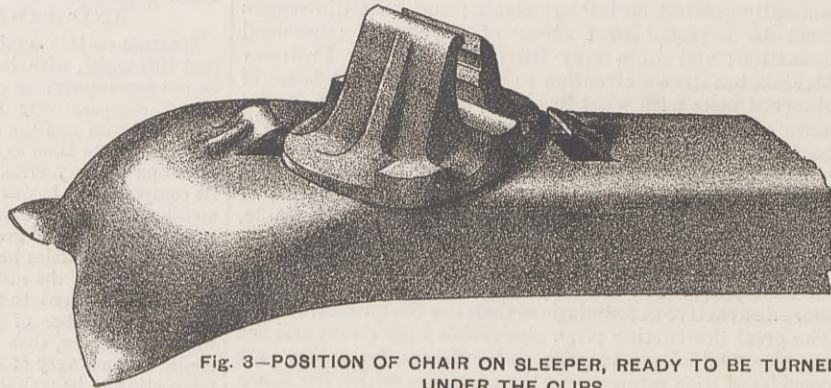


Fig. 3—POSITION OF CHAIR ON SLEEPER, READY TO BE TURNED UNDER THE CLIPS.



END VIEW OF CHAIR.

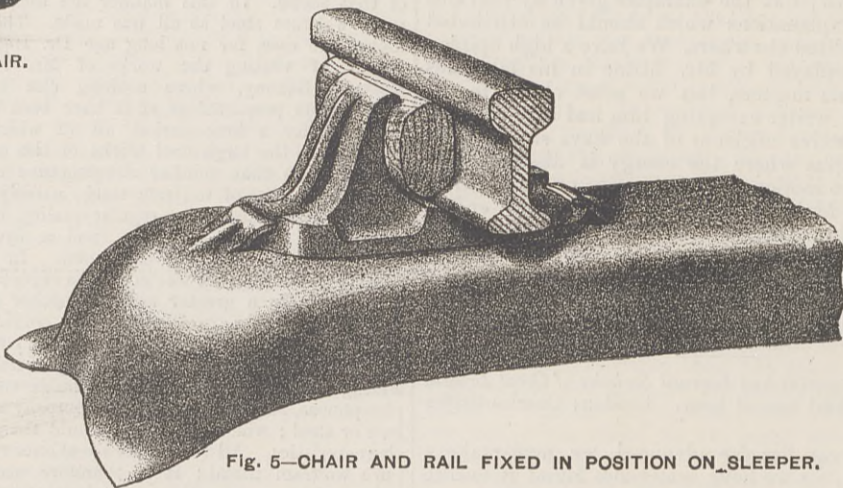


Fig. 5—CHAIR AND RAIL FIXED IN POSITION ON SLEEPER.

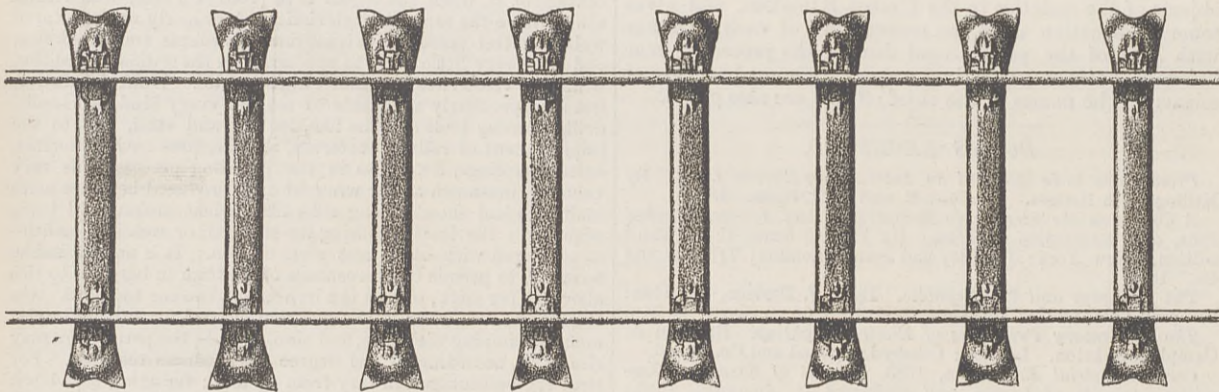


Fig. 6—PLAN OF ROAD.

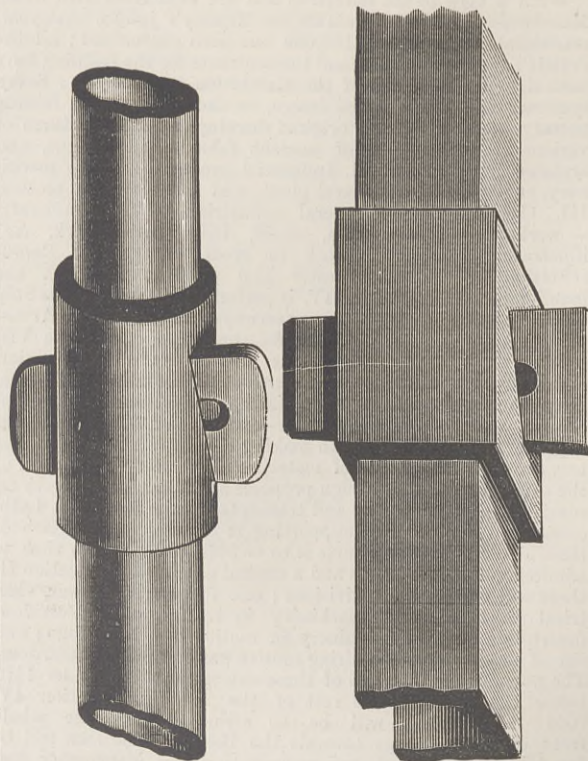
TOZER AND SON'S SELF-FASTENING RAILWAY CHAIR FOR STEEL SLEEPERS.

THE simplest thing is always the last conceived by inventors of mechanical apparatus or plant. The substitution of metal sleepers in the place of wood has set engineers and others at work to ascertain the most economical and at the same time the most simple and efficient means of attaching or supporting the rails on chairs or otherwise to the sleepers, and hundreds of ingenious methods have been devised, but most have been too costly, too numerous in parts, or not satisfactory for the proposed work. Permanent way should have as few parts or attachments as possible, and Messrs. Tozer and Son seem entitled to claim to have accomplished this. They employ the ordinary cast iron chair and key, and fasten it to a steel sleeper, at a cost less than usual, as they entirely avoid the expense and disadvantages of all loose pieces. Our engravings show how this is accomplished. The sleeper itself is constructed with stiff spring clips, pressed out of the material of the sleeper itself, as shown most clearly in Fig. 1, and a round hole is at the same time punched to receive a short stud projection cast on the chair. The ends of the chair are made with bevel and slightly taper edges, and by placing the chair as shown in Fig. 3, it is readily pulled into the position shown in Fig. 5 by means of a lever. Stops are cast on the chair so that it cannot be turned too far. The spring clips, whilst possessing great holding-down power—much in excess of spikes and trenails—are sufficiently elastic to retain their firm grip of the chair, which, when turned into its position under the clips and the rail keyed up, becomes self-fastened, and cannot possibly move either way. The advantages claimed by the inventors are numerous; but a metallic permanent way that uses the cast iron chair and has absolutely no loose fastenings, needs no commendation by claims, and we need only mention that the address of Messrs. Tozer and Son is 18, Abingdon-street, Westminster.

GREEN'S POINT AND SIGNAL-ROD COUPLINGS.

A NEW form of coupling for the ends of the tubular rods by which signals and points are worked, is being made by several tube and steel manufacturers under the patent of Mr. W. Green, of Croft House, Hyde, Manchester. It will be gathered from the engravings herewith, that the ends of the rods, whether circular tubes or of channel section, are slotted with a half slot in an

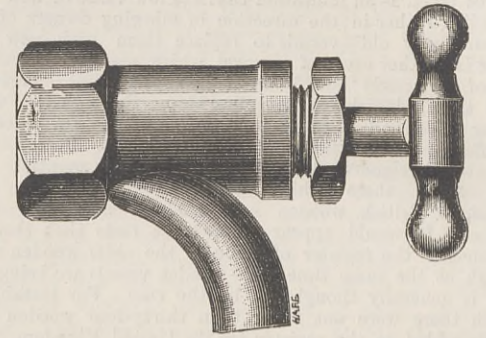
angular direction. The two ends of two rods being placed in a coupling socket similarly slotted angularly, and a key driven in,



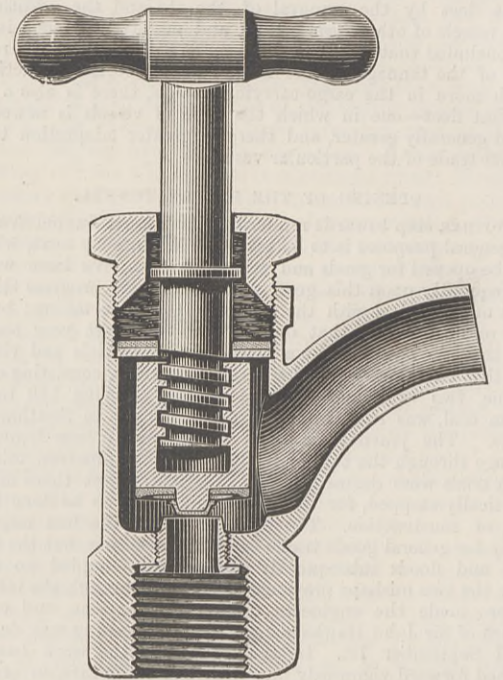
the whole are held together firmly although the slots in the rod ends are open. The joint is a very simple one, and will commend itself to railway men.

LAMBERT'S NEW HIGH PRESSURE WATER TAP.

THE water cock or valve illustrated by the accompanying engravings is a new and economical high pressure valve, made by Messrs. Thos. Lambert and Sons, Short-street, Lambeth. The cocks are of cast iron, with very small gun-metal seatings, so that while they are very strong and efficient they are not



tempting to those of poorer neighbourhoods, who hold confused ideas as to property rights. When closed no water remains in them, so that frost will not affect them. The construction of the cock is clearly seen from our sectional engraving. The valve screws up against a brass bush, and is itself guided by two



side wings not seen, and is worked by a strong square thread screw. The arrangement is very simple and good.

HARRISON'S LATHE CARRIER.

THE lathe dog or carrier illustrated by the accompanying engraving is just one of those simple things that are the best and handiest, and that make a man marvel at the profundity of the sleep that could have kept him from making the same thing long ago. The carrier is made by Mr. Harrison, of Abergavenny, and is for nine jobs out of ten much handier than the ordinary



carrier, and will in many cases save a good deal of time. It is made of malleable iron with hardened pointed set screw, with a square head, not a cheese head with a tommy hole as shown. Judging by the grip obtainable with a sample sent us, we should think that it is quite as firm as with the ordinary carrier, which often makes it necessary to remove the work from the lathe when it would otherwise be unnecessary. The convenience of the new one is obvious.

BOGIE ENGINE, CALEDONIAN RAILWAY.

WE complete this week by the engraving on p. 168, our illustrations of the fine locomotive exhibited at Glasgow by Messrs. Neilson and Co., Hyde Park Locomotive Works, Glasgow. Our illustration gives two end views, two sections, and an elevation of the motion plate, &c. Beneath this last is an enlarged view of the sand pipe, through which a small quantity of clean sharp sand is blown, right under the tread of the driving wheel, by a jet of compressed air from the Westinghouse reservoir.

NEW DOCK WORKS IN FIFE.—Recent years have entirely changed the position of the Fife seaboard with regard to dock accommodation. A few years ago only vessels of a comparatively small tonnage could load even at Burntisland, but now the largest steamers enter there almost at all stages of the tide. About the same time as Burntisland went in for its new harbour scheme a tidy little dock was constructed at Wemyss by Mrs. Wemyss, of Wemyss Castle, and there, in meeting the demand of a smaller class of vessels, chiefly foreigners and coasters, a very fair trade is carried on. Only a few miles further east the coast, however—where the Firth forms a quiet sheltering bay—at Methil, also on the Wemyss estate, large dock works are at present in course of construction. Repeated attempts have been made to make new harbours and dock works at Kirkcaldy, and had the bill succeeded to form a new railway *via* Dunfermline to Alloa, presumably in conjunction with the Caledonian Railway system, these works would, in all likelihood, have been commenced ere now. Several plans for new dock and harbour works at Kirkcaldy have been obtained, the latest only quite recently by several public-spirited gentlemen—local manufacturers, colliery proprietors, and others—who, at their own expense, engaged Sir John Coode, C.E., to report upon the subject, but the matter is for the present shelved,

