

# THE ENGINEER.



## THE REACTION AND EFFICIENCY OF THE SCREW PROPELLER.

A VERY valuable and interesting paper "On the Reaction and Efficiency of the Screw Propeller," was recently (March, 1887) read before the North-East Coast Institution of Engineers and Shipbuilders, by Mr. A. Blechynden. The author has taken great pains not only over experiments described in this paper of his own, but also in discussing the experiments of Mr. Isherwood made in America about twelve years ago. Holding the high opinion that we do of the value of Mr. Blechynden's paper, we hope that the author will pardon us if in carefully analysing his work we point out some obscurities of statement and argument which could, with a very slight alteration, be easily rectified in another edition, if the author should be prevailed upon to amplify and continue his present investigations.

In the first place, in all such investigations, whether comparative or absolute, too much care cannot be taken at the outset in settling on a convenient notation and terminology, and in defining the units employed.

Let us take, then, the three fundamental units, as usually employed by engineers, to be the foot as the unit of length, the pound as the unit of weight, and the minute as the unit of time—not the second, as customary in theoretical investigations. In the first place, the value of  $g$ , the acceleration of gravity, instead of being roughly 32, must now be multiplied by 60<sup>2</sup>, and will therefore be 115,200; it is important to bear this in mind.

Let us also, following Rankine as far as possible in his paper on the "Mechanical Principles of the Action of Propellers" (Trans. I.N.A., 1865), adopt the following notation:—

- $v$  = velocity of the steamer in feet per minute;
- $u$  = velocity of feed of the propeller; so that
- $v - u$  = velocity of the wake relative to the surrounding water;
- $p$  = pitch of the propeller in feet;
- $n$  = revolutions, that is, number of turns per minute of the engines; then
- $np$  = speed of screw; and
- $np - u$  = real slip of the screw in the wake, and then the ratio  $(np - u) \div np$  is called the real slip ratio, and denoted by  $s$ , 100  $s$  being the percentage of slip;
- $np - v$  = apparent slip, and  $(np - v) \div np$  is called the apparent slip ratio.

If the speed of the wake is greater than the real slip, the apparent slip will be negative; but the real slip must always be positive for the screw to have a propelling thrust.

Again, let

- $d$  = diameter of propeller in feet;
- $a$  = diameter of the boss; also let
- $A$  = disc area of the propeller;
- $B$  = boss area; so that
- $A = \frac{1}{4} \pi d^2$ ,  $B = \frac{1}{4} \pi a^2$ ;
- $w$  = density of water in lbs. per cubic foot; for sea water we may take  $w = 64$ , for fresh water  $w = 62.4$ .

Instead of taking the formulæ used by Mr. Blechynden at the beginning of his paper, let us first assume the formulæ given in THE ENGINEER, June 4th, 1886, for  $L$  the turning couple of the propeller in foot-pounds, and  $T$  the thrust in pounds, namely—

$$L = \frac{w}{g} (A^2 - B^2) u \left( n - \frac{u}{p} \right) \dots \dots (1),$$

$$T = \frac{w}{g} (A^2 - B^2) \frac{2\pi u}{p} \left( n - \frac{u}{p} \right) \dots \dots (2).$$

The value of  $T$  is derived from the value of  $L$  in accordance with Prop. V. of Mr. Blechynden's paper; this is in reality Lagrange's principle of Virtual Velocities, but Mr. Blechynden can hardly say that it is so self-evident as to need no proof. Granting, however, either equation (1) or (2), the other one follows at once by his Prop. V. "In any screw  $Tp = 2\pi L$ , i.e., thrust into pitch is equal to 6.28 into the turning moment."

This proposition of course implies that fluid friction is left out of account; experimental verification showing very close agreement is given in Table VIII., where a motive weight  $W$  applied at a distance of 6.125in. from the axis was so adjusted as to make the thrust  $T = 5.6$ ; the slight discrepancy between the columns of pitch  $\times$  thrust and orbit  $\times$  motive weight must be set down to the effect of fluid friction.

We have begun with Prop. V., as Props. II., III., IV. are all implied in V., and consequently are unnecessary; while Prop. I. must be accepted as a deduction from Mr. Isherwood's experiments. Herewith follow with comments Mr. Blechynden's propositions.

Prop. I.—"In any screw the turning moment is independent of the quantity of surface or of the mode in which it is distributed." In other words, the turning moment is a function only of the diameter, pitch, and revolutions of the screw, and of the speed of the feed and the density of the water, quantities we denote by  $d$ ,  $a$ ,  $p$ ,  $n$ ,  $u$ , and  $w$ . The screw by its revolution generates a certain amount of angular momentum per minute in the water passing through it, and this angular momentum from mechanical principles must be equated to the turning moment  $L$ , no deduction being required for fluid friction.

Prop. II.—"Screws of equal diameter tried under similar conditions have turning moments directly proportional to their pitch ratios for equal thrusts."

Prop. III.—"Screws with equal pitch ratio have turning moments proportional to their diameter when indicating equal thrusts."

Prop. IV.—"Screws tried under similar circumstances have turning moments proportional to their pitches when indicating equal thrusts;" these Propositions, I. to IV., are all included in Prop. V., and merely repeat the formula  $Tp = 2\pi L$ , from the definition of "pitch ratio" as the ratio of pitch to diameter.

Expressing  $u$ , the velocity of feed, in terms of  $s$ , the true slip ratio, formula (2) for the thrust becomes

$$T = \frac{w}{g} (A^2 - B^2) 2\pi n^2 s (1 - s) \dots (3);$$

in practice the ratio  $B^2 \div A^2$  is so small that it may be neglected, and  $B$  may be replaced by zero.

But if we compare the results of this formula with the experimental results of Mr. Isherwood given in Table IX., we shall find great discrepancies, the theoretical value of the thrust being about three times the experimental value. The reason of the discrepancy is twofold; first, it is not clearly stated whether the speed in knots is the speed of the vessel, or the speed of feed of the propeller; these two velocities differing by from ten to twenty per cent. according to the lines of the stern of the vessel, and thus we are uncertain whether the slip per centum in line 4, Table IX., refers to real or apparent slip. Secondly, no account has yet been taken in formula (3) of the thrust deduction due to fluid friction.

Now it was shown in THE ENGINEER of July 9th, 1886, and March 18th, 1887, that when fluid friction is taken into account, the formula (3) for the thrust must be replaced by

$$T = \frac{w}{g} (A^2 - B^2) 2\pi n^2 \left\{ s(1+k) - k \right\} (1-s) \dots (4)$$

where  $k$  is a certain constant, in practice always small, depending on the surface ratio of the propeller, and the coefficient of friction of the surface of the blades. If we put  $k = 0$  we recover formula (3). Incidentally (3) and (4) confirm Mr. Blechynden's corollary, (p. 192), that with constant slip ratio the thrust varies as the square of the revolutions or the square of the advance.

Perhaps the readiest way of determining  $k$  experimentally is to find out the slip ratio  $s$  at which the propeller just begins to exert thrust; then  $s(1+k) - k = 0$ , or  $s = k \div (1+k) = k$ , approximately.

Also, keeping the revolutions  $n$  constant, and varying the feed  $u$ , the thrust  $T$  is a maximum, when

$$s = \frac{1 + 2k}{2 + 2k} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{k}{2 + 2k},$$

a little more than  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; so that the slip percentage is then a little over 50.

Applying this to the experiments of Mr. Blechynden, who found that the maximum thrust was obtained with a speed of the screw of 1.324 knots, with 0.63 knots speed of feed, we find  $s = 1 - (0.63 \div 1.324) = .524$ , a slip of 52.4 per cent.; and then  $k = .05$ , the frictional coefficient for his screws  $c$  to  $k$ ; the maximum efficiency is then obtained for a slip ratio  $s = \sqrt{k}$ , in this case .224, or a slip of 22.4 per cent.

In these experiments the rotation of the model screw, about 14.5in. in diameter, caused the water in the tank to circulate, so that the velocity of feed depended on the revolutions of the screw. We think it would be a great improvement in subsequent experiments if the speed of feed could be varied independently. In this manner the problem as presented in practice could be more closely imitated.

For in the design of a propeller for an actual ship the first thing given is the projected speed  $v$ , and thence from an examination of the lines of the vessel we can get an idea of the value of  $u$ , the mean speed of the wake past the stern-post, which is the speed of feed of the propeller; it is of the greatest importance that  $u$  should be known as accurately as possible. Next the draught of water limits  $d$ , the diameter of the propeller, and  $A$ , the disc area, so that we are left finally with  $n$ , the revolutions, and

$p$ , the pitch, to adjust, so as to obtain the most economical result for the requisite thrust  $T$  of propulsion, which is attained when  $e$ , the efficiency—namely, the ratio of thrust horse-power to indicated horse-power—is a maximum.

The thrust horse-power T.H.P. =  $T v \div 33,000$ , while the indicated horse-power I.H.P. =  $2\pi L n \div 33,000$ , and, therefore,

$$e = \frac{T v}{2\pi L n} = \frac{v}{np} = 1 - \sigma, \text{ or } e + \sigma = 1 \dots (A)$$

where  $\sigma$  denotes the apparent slip.

For negative apparent slip this would make  $e$  greater than unity, which is physically impossible, until we notice that negative apparent slip implies a great waste of power in dragging a wake current, which power must be subtracted from the T.H.P.

A certain amount of wake velocity being unavoidable in any case, there is a gain of efficiency in the propeller by bringing it as close as possible to the vessel to work in this wake, although, on the other hand, the thrust deduction due to the sucking action of the propeller on the stem of the vessel, equivalent to an "augmentation" of resistance on the bow, is increased by bringing the propeller close to the vessel; so that in practice we must balance these causes against each other to obtain the most favourable result. Mr. Froude has pointed out that this augmentation of resistance will sometimes increase the net resistance by about 40 per cent.; in Mr. Isherwood's experiments it amounted to nearly 20 per cent.

Prop. VI.—"The thrust  $T$  of any screw working with a velocity of advance  $V$  and a slip  $S$  can be approximately determined from the equation  $T = C A V S \gamma \div g$ ,  $A$  being the disc area of the screw,  $\gamma$  the density of water, and  $C$  a modulus depending on the pitch and surface ratios of the screw," must be taken as true only for a smooth screw, or approximately for a screw working with a great slip, and then from (3) or (4) we notice that  $C$  should vary inversely as the square of the pitch ratio.

Besides the results of his own experiments given in Tables II., V., VI., VII., VIII., X., XI., Mr. Blechynden has analysed the results of Mr. Isherwood's experiments in Tables I., III., IV., IX., and has also given a diagram of the results of Mr. Sydney Barnaby's experiments, with a screw of 9in. diameter, and pitch increasing from 9.42in. to 11.14in., but we notice a misprint of 930 revolutions in the text and in the Table for what is more likely to be 430 revolutions, as the speed of the launch employed by Mr. Barnaby was between 4 and 4½ knots ("Marine Propellers," p. 54).

Prop. VII.—"The effect of surface is the same irrespective of the number of blades into which it is divided so long as it is similarly distributed," should now be incorporated with Prop. I.; then should follow Props. V. and VI., and II., III., IV., may be omitted as unnecessary.

Mr. Blechynden only once falls into the incorrect expression, although a very common one, of speaking of speed in "knots per hour." A knot is never used at sea as a unit of distance, but always as a cosmopolitan unit of speed, the unit of distance being a nautical mile, equal to one minute of latitude on the earth's surface; while a speed of  $V$  knots—*nauds* in French, *knuten* in German, *nodi* in Italian, &c.—means  $V$  nautical miles an hour. If while the sand-glass runs half a minute,  $V$  knots of the log line pass over the taffrail, the ship is said to be going  $V$  knots, and the distance between the knots should be a trifle over 50ft., taking the nautical mile as 6086ft., so that roughly speaking a knot is a velocity of 100ft. a minute; more accurately 101ft. a minute. Mr. Isherwood is careful in his measurements to express velocities in geographical miles of 6086ft. per hour, when he might have used the convenient term "knot."

If the French scientific authorities for the invention of the metric system in their enthusiasm for decimals had not foolishly abandoned the sexesimal for the centesimal divisions of degrees, the quadrant of the earth would have been divided into  $90 \times 60$  instead of  $100 \times 100$  nautical miles, or kilometres, and then the fathom would have with very slight alteration become the metre, and a knot exactly 100ft. a minute.

The metric system and the centesimal division of the angle have never been used in navigation, because a corresponding centesimal measurement of time would be requisite in the conversion of longitude, and this was felt to be too fundamental a change to be made by the originators of the metric system.

"Varying pitches." By making the pitch  $p$  of the leading edge of the screw such that its speed of advance  $np$  is equal to  $u$ , the velocity of feed, we do away with the shock at the leading edge, as in a turbine; and then if the pitch is increased axially to any final magnitude, the effective pitch should be taken as the harmonic mean of the initial and final pitch, but the arithmetic mean is so

little different that it is usually taken in practice. Then if  $e$  denotes the efficiency and  $s$  the slip calculated from the final pitch, we shall find  $e + \frac{1}{2}s = 1$ , so that there is a considerable gain of efficiency with the properly increasing pitch.

"Curvature of developing surface," &c., does not appear to have much effect in the models, but suitable curvature of the blades may prove useful in cases where the screw works very close to the vessel.

"Fluid friction on blades and edge resistances" still requires much more experimental investigation, and we hope Mr. Blechynden will undertake this task. Considering the comparatively small percentage of slip with which a screw generally works, in general less than 20 per cent., a small alteration in the velocity of the speed on the calculated effect of friction has an important effect on the thrust and I.H.P. To ensure careful adjustment of the feed, it might be found desirable to work the model screws in a closed tube, as in Mr. Thornycroft's turbine propellers applied to the Nile patrol steamers, and then a careful observation of the slip at which the thrust is just zero, and at which the thrust is a maximum, would give valuable information concerning the effect of fluid friction.

Mr. Blechynden calls attention to the gain of efficiency in making the screw work in the wake, against which must be set off the loss of efficiency due to the increased augmentation of resistance due to the sucking action of the screw on the vessel. In all calculations concerning actual propellers, the speed of the wake should be carefully measured by means of a screw current meter just in front of the propeller, in order that the real slip ratio should be definitely known.

Mr. Blechynden's paper concludes with some valuable considerations on efficiency of propulsion, showing how the considerable latitude permissible in the design of screws allows us to vary the conditions in favour of economy of prime cost, of fuel, of weight, &c., according to the ruling requirements. Carefully drawn diagrams at the end illustrate graphically the reasoning of his paper.

The propositions of Mr. Blechynden's paper, the series of five propositions given by Mr. R. E. Froude in the "Trans." I.N.A., 1886, and the diagrams of Mr. Sydney Barnaby's book on "Marine Propellers," are sufficient for comparative purposes, where, knowing the performance of one screw, we are required to predict the performance of another screw; but the measurement of the absolute values for a standard screw are still uncertain, and it is to be hoped that Mr. Blechynden will undertake this measurement in a subsequent investigation, as the results will be of great use for future designers; just as the measurements of Mr. Bashforth of the resistance of the air to 3in. and 6in. projectiles enable us to calculate the trajectories of small arm bullets and of the projectiles of the largest artillery, and consequently to save the country a considerable gunpowder bill.

#### ABSTRACTS OF CONSULAR AND DIPLOMATIC REPORTS.

*Spain—Trade of Bilbao in 1886.*—British trade with this port has increased since the new treaty with Spain came into force, but the indirect effects of the treaty are remarkable as regards German imports, which have enormously fallen off during the past year; and if British manufacturers supplied their goods on the system adopted by foreign competitors, namely, duty paid, through suitable representatives in the country, authorised to sell and concede credit, they would probably find ready markets for their consignments. They should also, by careful observation and close attention to all the details as to the nature and quality of the goods they send, endeavour to adapt their consignments to the nature of the place; otherwise their goods are liable to be left on account, questions arise, and as legal redress is almost impossible, owing to the expensive and tardy nature of the proceedings, loss and want of confidence are the almost inevitable results. The general effect of the alteration of the tariff under the new treaty between Great Britain and Spain, as far as this port is concerned, has been a marked increase in the importation of many articles of British manufacture and produce which had been so long exposed to unfair competition with countries possessing more favourable treaties. Much remains to be done by the British traders to regain supremacy, or at least an equal share with other countries of the Spanish trade. The great Anglo-Spanish mercantile houses, with longer established agencies and connections throughout Spain, have ample means at their disposal for maintaining and pushing their business; but the vast number of smaller British traders have still to learn the lesson, so well understood by their foreign competitors, that all the advertising, circulars, journals, pamphlets, and letters of inquiry, with which the British consulates in Spain are deluged, will never enable them to compete with the economical, intelligent French and German commercial travellers, who are thoroughly acquainted with the customs, language, manners, and wants of the people among whom they spread in large numbers. Moreover, the British trader, in dealing directly with the native trader, is constantly exposed to losses which probably far exceed the expenses attendant on the employment of competent and trustworthy travellers, who through false economy are not employed.

*Spain—Trade of Cadiz and Province of Andalusia in 1886.*—The commercial convention of August 11th last, between Great Britain and Spain, will eventually lead to a revival of British trade direct with this country, but it depends on the energy of British manufacturers and merchants to bring this about at an early date. British manufactured goods were not altogether excluded from this market by reason of the additional duties chargeable on them *per se*. The additional duties were avoided by their being introduced into this country through France and Germany, and cleared through the Custom-houses as the manufactures of those countries respectively. These British manufactures reached the merchants of this country at an enhanced price, the commission or profit of the French or German house being added to the original cost. This fact leads to the belief that there will be an immediate transfer of this trade to Great Britain direct, but this greatly depends on the activity and energy of the British manufacturers themselves. The Spanish people are slow to adopt new ideas and to open up new markets, and the British manufacturers must follow the example of their French and German competitors, by sending agents or travellers to ascertain the requirements and wants of the people, and to assiduously push their trade. It may be advanced that it would not pay for each manufacturer to send a traveller abroad, but a number could easily combine for the purpose, and have sample rooms at the principal foreign markets where British

trade languishes. Heretofore the habits and tastes of foreign nations have not been sufficiently studied by British manufacturers, the prominent idea being that what is approved of and found saleable in England ought to meet with universal acceptance. This is a fallacy which has injuriously affected British trade. Other nations—France and Germany especially—have studied the requirements and taste of each particular country, and have reaped their reward in a greatly extended trade. The British manufacturer will experience the same benefit when he will recognise the fact that what is admired in Manchester may be viewed with indifference in Madrid, and what is considered good taste in Coventry may be found unsaleable in Cadiz. These remarks have a wide application, and the establishment of commercial museums at the centres of the great manufacturing districts of Great Britain would be of essential service to trade, as showing the character and class of goods necessary to meet the demands of the various foreign countries.

*Spain—Trade of Canary Islands in 1886.*—Imports which were in former years almost all from England greatly decreased in English manufactured goods; while there was a considerable increase in imports from Germany. German houses send out to this market, as agents, clever linguists, who make it their business, by associating with the makers, to get to know exactly their requirements and tastes. They thus get up novelties and offer very advantageous prices. Advertisements, catalogues, and price lists of every kind, although well and carefully got up, illustrated, and every publicity given to them here, are but little read by the majority of the tradespeople. The English language being very little known in these islands, I would suggest that "they be translated into the Spanish language, or at all events accompanied by a translation." Letters are frequently received from merchants in England desirous of opening business connections with those islands, and asking for the names of firms for the sale of their machines and tools. There is scarcely any sale for machinery here; agricultural machinery as understood in Europe being almost unknown, and imports of engineering and marine machines are not made.

*Spain—Trade of Gijon in 1886.*—Germany is now the largest importer. The growing increase of German imports deserves especial attention, with a view to get at the secret of their success. The only conclusion to be arrived at is that it consists in their superior organisation for business purposes, with agents on the spot to give every facility and information to consumers. It would be well if our firms could improve, if possible, on the German lines of doing business with Spain and other countries. A knowledge of the daily wants of companies, governments, private firms, and public bodies, throughout the world, would be desirable, with samples, specifications, and conditions of contracts; to obtain this manufacturers would have to combine to establish a "foreign department" at some central point, say Birmingham or London, where daily reports of all contracts and tenders issued by Governments, municipal bodies, harbour trusts, and the heads of private firms could be inspected. The desirable information could be supplied by agents whose duty it would be to send the earliest information of all requirements in the district, with all publications treating of tenders for public works. Thus the manufacturers of the United Kingdom would be in possession of the world's daily wants, with samples of articles required, which would form an interesting exhibition of practical importance. Some such scheme as the foregoing would ensure us a large share of the world's trade.

*Spain—Native manufactures of the Philippine Islands.*—The report is accompanied with a parcel containing samples of some of the textile fabrics manufactured in the Philippine Islands. Through the introduction of English imitations of many of the articles sent, native industry is fast dying out. With regard to the extension of British trade, a consul cannot do much to push trade. There is also a point which has not received quite so much attention as it deserves, namely, that as far as my observation goes trade at the present time not only does not require pushing, but is overpushed. We have too many commission agents, manufacturers, merchants, lines of steamers, and other means of transit for us to enjoy the advantages of profitable trade. In former years the British merchant with capital at his back had, in many cases, practically a monopoly of the most lucrative business at his port of residence. Such instances are now rare. The extension of pushing for orders by enabling men to start in business without capital, and the establishment of telegraphic communication with the most remote corners of the earth, which penetrates mercantile speculation to so great an extent, have done much to increase competition, and as a necessary consequence, to diminish the margin of profit until it sometimes almost disappears. These remarks refer chiefly to old-established centres, and of course the case is entirely different in a country newly opened to foreign trade. I entirely agree with the opinion that an intelligent expert sent to study on the spot the requirements of any particular locality is the proper means for manufacturers to adopt when they desire to extend their business.

*Sweden—Trade of Gothenberg and district for 1886.*—During the year 1886 there was less activity in the shipping and trade of Gothenberg than in the preceding year, owing to the depressed state of trade both here and abroad. To this limited activity and unsatisfactory state must be added failures in the country, causing considerable loss, in consequence of which greater caution was required, and sales restricted. At the opening of the year the prospects of the Swedish iron trade, and business connected therewith, were rather gloomy. The prices which at the beginning of the year were about £8 10s. 8d. per ton for hammered iron, £8 4s. for rolled iron, and £8 13s. 4d. for nail rods, declined further during the spring and summer, when the iron trade was exceptionally dull, and during the autumn the quotations, were £7 17s. 4d., £7 12s., and £7 16s. per ton, respectively, prices which doubtless were attended with a loss to ironmasters. This state of the trade has been caused by a steady falling off in prices since February, 1880. A declination of so long duration has had the effect of compelling buyers to limit requirements to what was unavoidable, and of checking speculation. Pig iron has shared in the general depression, and gone down from £3 17s. 4d. per ton on truck here. Steel in kegs has, in consequence of the new processes, Bessemer and Martin, almost gone out of demand; the same state of things prevails in regard to hand-made nails, which cannot compete with the machine-made. The import of English and Scotch pig iron is annually increasing, more especially in consequence of the very low prices. Large section rails are now being manufactured in the country, the State railway having contracted for 31,000 tons to be delivered during the years 1887-92 at an average price of £5 16s. 2d. per ton, which will lessen the import from Germany and Great Britain. Small section rails are imported from Belgium and Great Britain, principally from the former country. Old rails are appropriated for the manufacture of angle fish-plates, which are gradually coming more in use than the trapeze-shaped fish-plates. Dairy machinery is chiefly made in the country. The import of agricultural implements and machinery have decreased on account of

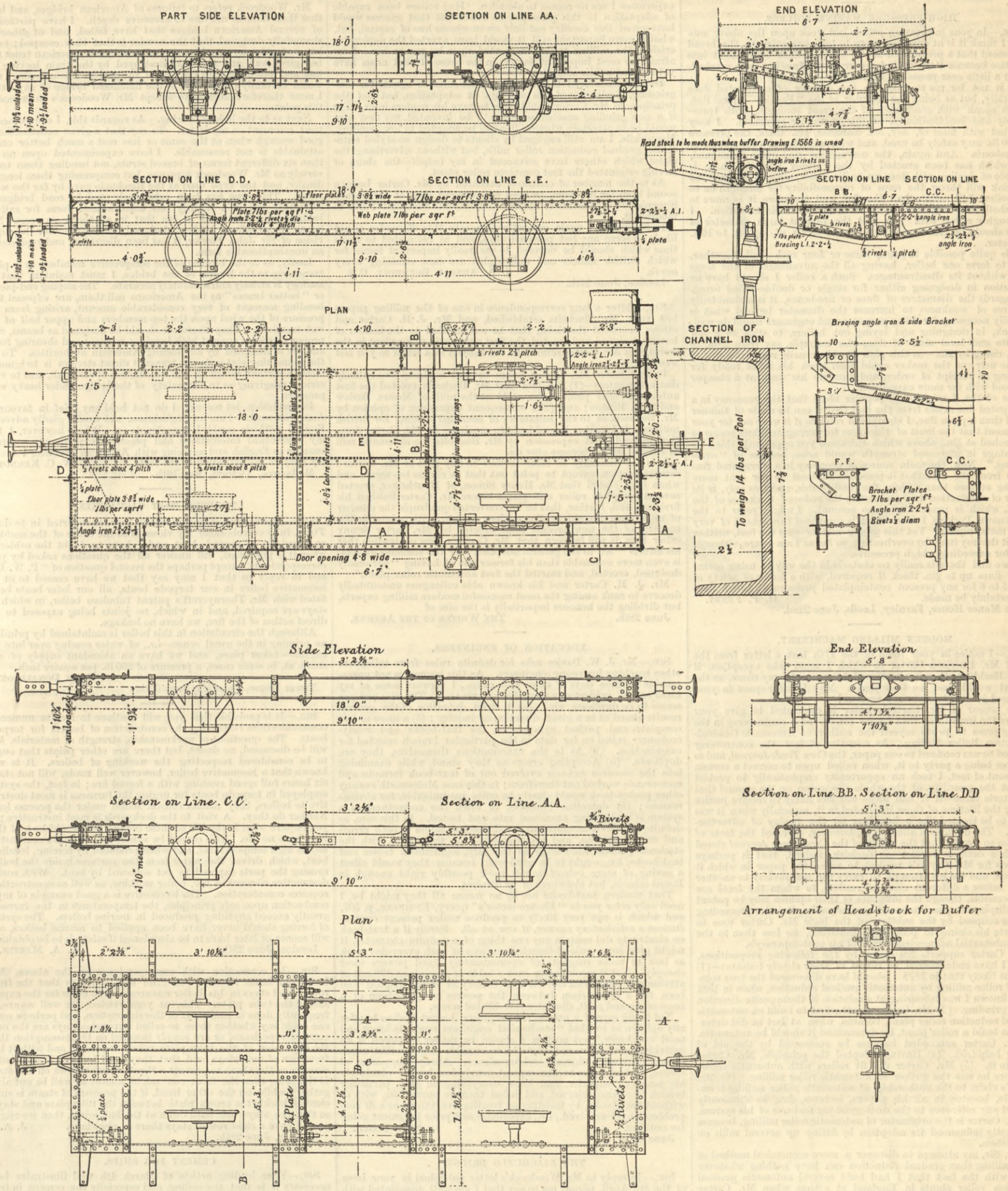
improved native make. The same remark may be applied to wood, drilling, grooving, punching and washing machinery, engines—portable and stationary—belting, while boilers, girders, pipes, pumps, tubes, &c., continue as hitherto to be imported from Belgium, Germany, and Great Britain—chiefly from the latter country. The import of coal has been about equal to that of 1885. There is a marked augmentation in the consumption of house coal. Attempts to find a market here for Westphalian house coal have, in consequence of high prices and inferior quality, not been successful. On the other hand, foundry coke from England has been much supplanted by the Westphalian washed patent coke, which, although not much cheaper, is pronounced by consumers to contain less sulphur than the English coke. From the English gasworks, especially those of London, there has been a large import in consequence of the continually increasing consumption of house coke, both here and in the country; and although the gasworks here sell at lower prices, the English coke is preferable, being of greater strength or heating power. The production of native coal has gradually increased from 48,130 tons in 1872 to 166,276 tons in 1885, and is mostly used for consumption in the neighbouring fireclay works, &c.

*Turkey—Trade of Trebizond in 1886.*—The import trade at Trebizond, Samsoun, and other parts shows for the Anatolian markets a decrease in weight, and an increase in value, while the contrary is manifested in the transit imports for Persia. The increased importation of copper in 1886 at cheaper prices and lower freights enabled the local merchants to export with profit, quantities of it to Batoum during the time preceding its abolition as a free port. The remaining stock is still beyond the requirements of these markets, so that its imports in 1887 are not likely to be great. British steamship companies will do well to send their boats to these parts with greater regularity. Dates of their departure from the United Kingdom should be invariably fixed for a convenient number of years, and their destination clearly notified to the public at large, both abroad and at home. The carrying out of these suggestions is rendered advisable by the fact that the import cargoes by British steamers at Trebizond during 1886 figure only as £29,420 from England, and £10,106 from other countries, out of a total of £1,673,265, of which £837,135 are British imports; while the exports by English steamers amounted to Great Britain to £22,300, and to other countries to £17,510 out of a total of £531,860, of which £48,930 represents the exports to the United Kingdom. At Samsoun the anomaly is more striking, for out of a total of £687,820, £471,030 represents the British imports, of which £8000 only were brought by British steamers, while in exports out of £666,130, £143,610 were sent to the United Kingdom, £35,000 of which were the value of the cargoes in British steamers. British trade would no doubt greatly develop by commercial travellers visiting the country with samples, studying the requirements of the people, and meeting local tastes in the nature, quality, and value of the goods most in demand. The three to six months' credit afforded in business transactions to natives by European merchants is not to be recommended. The English system of cash terms, though inconvenient to local tradesmen, is far more preferable, and may—if other facilities are afforded—cope successfully with the money concessions of Austria, France, and Germany.

*Brazil—Trade of Santos in 1886.*—The normal value of the imports into this province from Great Britain during recent years averages about £600,000 per annum on an increasing scale; but this amount may in any year increase by several hundred thousand pounds, when any new railroad or other enterprise requiring material, plant, or rolling stock is started. Such works are always more or less in course of initiation or construction in this flourishing province. In addition to the complete transfer of the earthenware and glass trades from Great Britain to Germany, the cutlery and steel ware industries have been similarly menaced. A large firm of German importers in Sao Paulo recently imported a large assortment of German cutlery and distributed it about the interior towns of the province. These German goods, though inferior to British in finish and quality, practically answer the same purpose, and are about 75 per cent. cheaper. The retail shops found an exclusive and ready demand for these articles, and large consignments are ordered from Germany, to the exclusion of British cutlery. In this province foreign competition has made but slight impression on the general course of British trade. The Germans have possessed themselves of one or two branches, and are making great efforts to establish the supremacy of others in this market. For the British manufacturer to hold his own can only be assured by the concerted action of all the commercial and industrial classes on well organised principles of trade. By the production of wares which excel in quality and undersell the opposition, while gaining the acceptance and preference of the markets; old routine should be abandoned and new methods of design and supply adopted to meet the varying demands of foreign trade, tastes, and local option. A keen interest in, and knowledge of, British productions should always be kept alive by a constant and sharp trade propaganda carried on either by competent and well trained commercial travellers or wisely distributed commercial agencies. In this province probably the German is the only serious rival in the field, and British industries have not much to fear from other competition. German goods in many instances equal those of Great Britain in quality, and are always lower in price. Apart from these, a great secret of German success is their thorough training as mercantile men. German merchants abroad are shrewd hard-working men, generally of ample education and agreeable social qualities, broad unprejudiced views, with the gift of ingratiating themselves with the people among whom they reside and have to deal. In such men the German manufacturer finds solid support and the most potent means for the extension of trade. Of all the suggestions yet made for the extension of British trade, perhaps none would be more productive of practical results than the establishment of commercial and industrial agencies or museums at certain advantageous localities abroad primarily in new countries. Such agencies to be under the management of at least two persons, experts in the principal branches of British trade and of large commercial experience. One man to be for indoor service, and the other for travelling through the district and keeping up a constant trade propaganda. In these days of competition trade must be active and aggressive. By such a method local merchants and tradesmen would acquire a more extended knowledge of British productions, might be placed in ready contact with home producers, and led to establish more direct and intimate commercial relations with Great Britain.

THE ALUMINIUM COMPANY, LIMITED.—Under this title a company is being formed for producing cheap aluminium by the aid of the sodium process, fully described in our last impression. The proposed capital is £400,000 in 60,000 shares. An excellent board of directors has been formed, including, among others, Mr. W. Anderson, M. Inst. C.E., General Sir Andrew Clarke, R.E., and Sir H. Roscoe, F.R.S.

CONTRACTS OPEN.—UNDERFRAMES AND COVERED WAGONS FOR INDIAN STATE RAILWAYS.



CONTRACTS OPEN.

INDIAN STATE RAILWAYS—UNDERFRAMES FOR THIRD-CLASS CARRIAGES AND COVERED GOODS WAGONS.

THE work required under this contract comprises the construction, supply, and delivery, f.o.b. London, Liverpool, or other ports in England, of underframes, steel and iron work for underframes, with all requisite bolts and nuts, washers, rivets, and iron wood-screws complete, for putting the work together in India, for ten underframes for third-class carriages, 18ft. long, with screw buffer at one end, and buffer with hook rivetted in at the other. One hundred underframes for covered goods wagons, 18ft. long, with buffers, with pin, chain, and vice handle attachment at one end, and buffer with hook rivetted in at the other. All fastenings, screws, bolts and nuts, rivets, and washers are to be supplied in quantities sufficient for putting all the work together in India, with an allowance of 20 per cent. extra for waste. The contract does not include wheels and axles, bearing, draw, and buffer springs, and axle-boxes. All these parts will form the subjects of separate contracts. No woodwork is required to be sent to India. Tenders, addressed to the Secretary of State for India in Council, with the words "Tender for underframes for carriages and wagons" on the envelope, must be delivered at the India-office, Whitehall, London, S.W., before 2 p.m. on Tuesday, July 5th, 1887. If delivered by hand, they are to be placed in a box provided for that purpose in the Store Department.

HARWICH AND DOVERCOURT WATER SUPPLY.—It will hardly be believed, but it is a fact that Harwich has now what may be called a water supply. A Harwich and Dovercourt water-supply was opened, it need hardly be said with considerable rejoicing, last week. The most important feature in the Jubilee celebration at Harwich, on Wednesday, was the formal opening of a supply of pure water, the want of which has so long pressed upon the inhabitants of the neighbourhood. Harwich and Dovercourt may now be congratulated upon receiving in this Jubilee year such an essential benefit to life and health, especially needed. Down to the early part of this century the inhabitants of the town and the shipping frequenting the harbour had to depend upon such precarious and at best dubious supplies as could be obtained from the storage of rain water from house-tops, spring water brought down in wherries or barges from Ipswich or Mistley, and the yield of a few local shallow wells. In 1819 an Act was obtained for the appointment of Commissioners for paving, lighting, and watering the town, with general provisions for such purposes. Boring into the chalk in search of water was resorted to in 1820-22, in 1826, and again about the year 1840. In 1854 Mr. P. Bruff, the engineer for the works under the Commissioners' "Improvement Quays and Pier Act, 1851," entered into an agreement—May 16th, 1854—with the Corporation, by which the Corporation granted him the exclusive concession of the water supply for seventy-five years. After various unsuccessful efforts to accomplish what was required, and an extension of the limit of time in such agreement, the chalk and underlying strata

were pierced to the depth of 1098ft., when a hard slaty rock was encountered, and proceedings were then suspended without obtaining any water whatever. In 1862 the agreement was revised and extended, and Mr. Bruff obtained a supply of water at Dovercourt by means of a well and artesian boring, and commenced supplying the town and borough in 1865-6, and has since continued to do so. Although limited in quantity, and not all that could be desired in quality, there is a considerable excess of chlorine in its composition. In 1881, in order to meet the requirements of the Public Health Act, 1875, application was made to the Board of Trade, and in 1884 and 1886 applications were made to Parliament to authorise works to be established at Bradfield and Mistley, and Acts of Incorporation were obtained by the Tendring Hundred Waterworks Company, after considerable opposition, a previous application in 1883 having failed. A site having been acquired at Mistley, a capacious well and boring into the chalk were made, from which the present good supply of water is obtained. Buildings have been erected at Mistley, and duplicate engines and pumps fixed, and a main is laid to Harwich, a distance of about twelve miles, and in addition the company have acquired the existing works at Harwich, Dovercourt, and Walton-on-the-Naze, as well as valuable sites for enlargement of works and establishment of reservoirs at Bradfield and Dovercourt, and by arrangement with the Great Eastern Railway Company, expect to have a site placed at their disposal for a similar facility at Parkeston, for the use of that locality. The well and the pipe line were executed by Messrs. T. Tilley and Son, London.



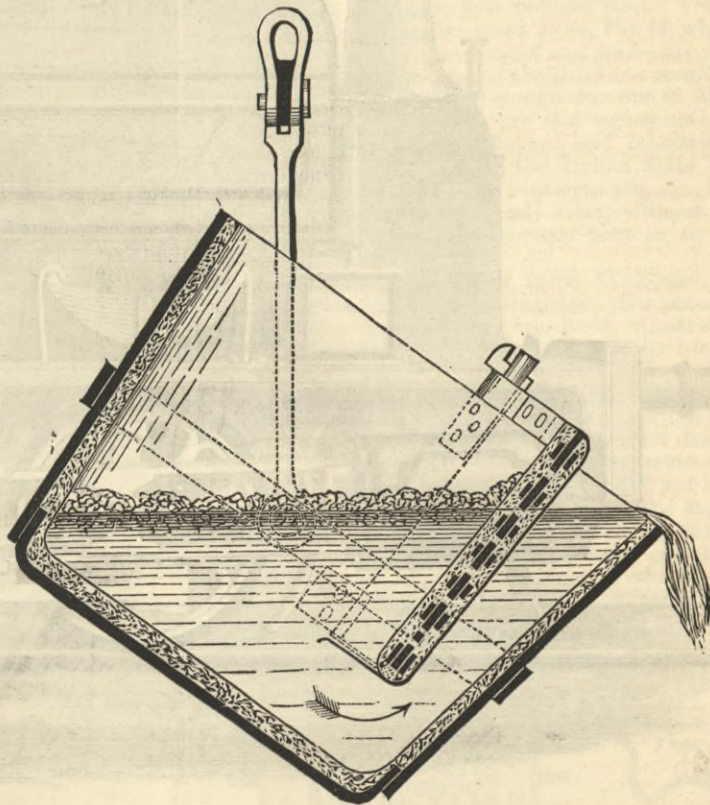
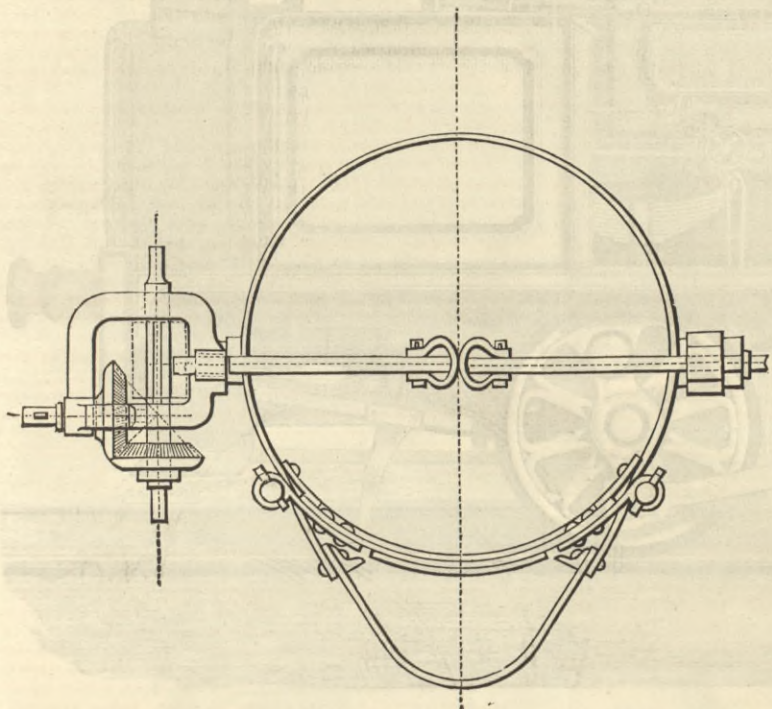
THE NEWCASTLE EXHIBITION.

IN the description of the large marine boiler exhibited by the Wallsend Slipway and Engineering Company, which appeared in THE ENGINEER of the 27th of May, reference was made to the special methods of construction which had been adopted in order to admit of the rivetting being done by machines instead of by hand. We now illustrate by the engravings below and on p. 7 one of Tweddell, Platt, and Fielding's patent portable plate-closing riveters, by means of which much of the heavy work was accomplished. The construction of the rivetter is as

plunger N working in the cylinder O. The working valves are shown at P, Q being the inlet to the main cylinder, and R that to the smaller one, communication being completed by means of the telescope pipe S.

The mode of working is as follows. Both rams being home, pressure is first admitted to the small ram L carrying the plate-closing tool. This travels forward till it bears on the plates, as shown in dotted lines in the engraving. After the plates are thus brought together, pressure is admitted to the large cylinder, and the large ram I carrying the cupping tool then goes forward. During this movement the pressure is still maintained in

the ingot to the finished rail. One pair of heavy rolls for rails, the manufacture of the company, is also shown, and one pair of light rolls for steel or iron rounds. A special feature of this exhibit is steel sleepers—of which the company is a large maker—and a great variety can be seen from those used on the main lines of our heavy English railways, and weighing nearly 2 cwt. each, to such as are suitable for the lightest portable railways, and weighing only about 8 lb. each with their fastenings. On two stands, one each side of the case, are rail joints of various descriptions, showing how the ends of two rails are joined together. Pieces of ordinary sections of rails from 10 lb. to



GOODWIN AND HOW'S FOUNDRY LADLE.

follows. The main body, Fig. 1, A is a steel casting, one end B forming the abutment and the other end C containing the two hydraulic cylinders. At D a gudgeon is turned, the whole machine revolving on this by the hanger E, motion being communicated by means of a worm and wheel. The pressure water entering by the pipe F, passes through the

the cylinder K, any surplus water being returned to the accumulator through an automatic valve; but as soon as the tool is fairly on the rivet the cylinder K is opened to the exhaust, and the full pressure due to the whole area of the large ram is then utilised in closing. After this the tool is withdrawn, and the machine moved on to the next hole. The pressures actually exerted are 30 tons for plate-closing, 45 tons for forming the rivet, and 75 tons for finally heading and completing the operation. The machine is equal to closing 1 1/2 in. steel rivets in 1 1/2 in. steel plates, including double butt straps.

The engraving on page 7 shows the seams at the back, between the end plate and shell, and the application of the rivetter. The end plate is flanged the reverse way to usual, so as to get both ends of the rivet outside. The same machine may be used for furnace mouth work. In this case the movable die is attached to the plate-closing ram, which gives sufficient pressure for the size of rivets used; while the large ram, on which the accumulator pressure is constantly maintained, is utilised for holding the bottom cupping die in its place. As thus applied, the machine does not, of course, work as a plate-closer; but this is not considered necessary for such light work. Although the arrangement saves expense, inasmuch as one machine is used for the two classes of work, Mr. Tweddell prefers the system adopted, among others by the Wallsend Company, of having a second or lighter machine for furnace mouths. This application is shown in the accompanying illustrations, Fig. 2, but no details of the rivetter are necessary, as it is one of the ordinary kind, fitted with a compound hanger, with the special view of its further use in the construction of the locomotive type of marine boiler. The introduction of these special machines by Mr. Tweddell is enabling marine engineers to meet the demand for large boilers to work at a high steam pressure in connection with triple and quadruple expansion engines. Their design is extremely ingenious, and their construction reflects the greatest credit on Messrs. Fielding and Platt, the manufacturers.

110 lb. per yard are shown, some of them twisted into all sorts of shapes to indicate their quality. Column steel rolled in segments and bolted together, and iron fencing such as is used so extensively in the colonies, complete the exhibit in the main building. In the Model Coal Mine the company shows its steel colliery baulks intended to take the place of timber in coal and ironstone mining. These, we believe, are now coming into very general use in the

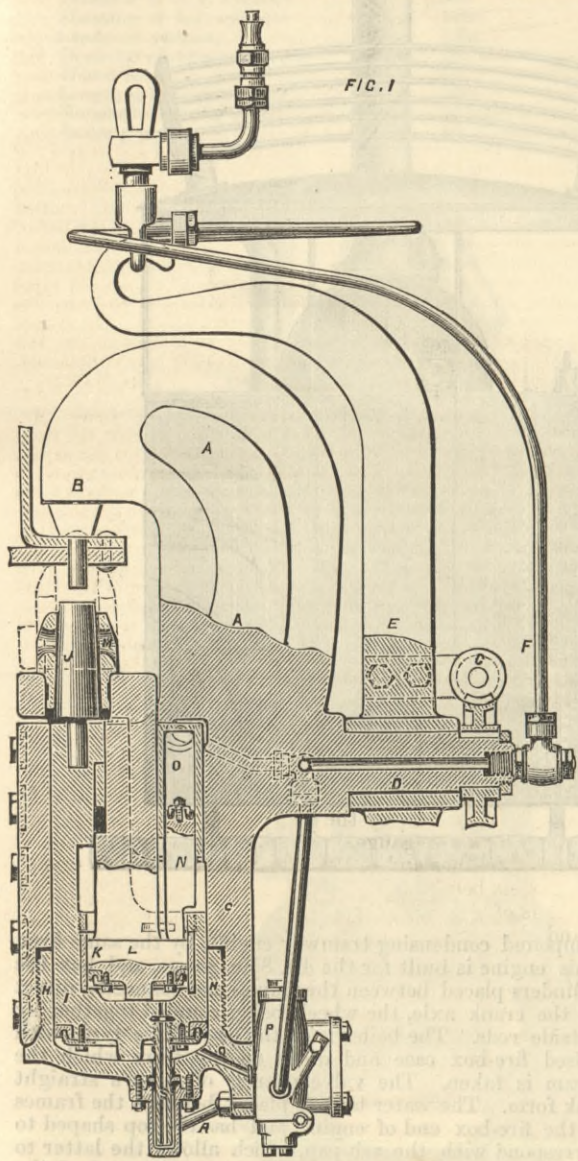
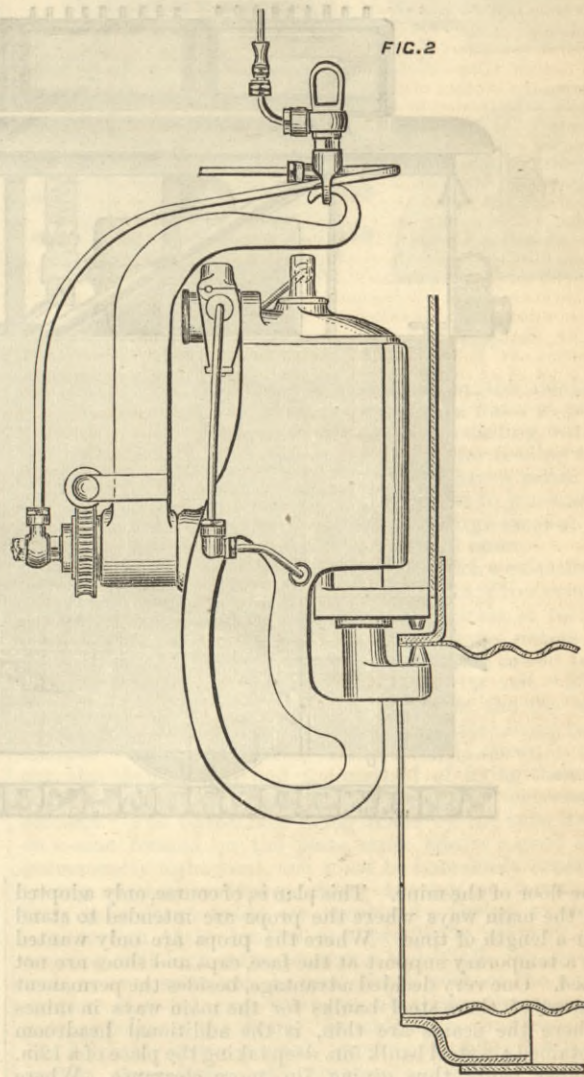


PLATE-CLOSING RIVETTER.

gudgeon to the valves and cylinders. Screwed into C is a gun metal cylinder H in which works the large ram I, carrying the cupping die J. Inside this, and forming part of the main ram I, is a cylinder K, containing the smaller ram L, to which is fixed the plate-closing die M, this latter being annular and surrounding the cupping-die. Both rams are returned back by means of the constant pressure

The Darlington Steel and Iron Company has an exhibit in the North Court, which consists of a case of templates showing the various sections of steel rolled by the company. These are very numerous; indeed, so varied a class of work is seldom attempted by one firm, and some of the sections are of a character very difficult to roll. Along the front of the case is placed a series of sectional pieces of steel about 1 1/2 in. thick, showing the forms taken by the steel bloom in the various passes of the rolls from

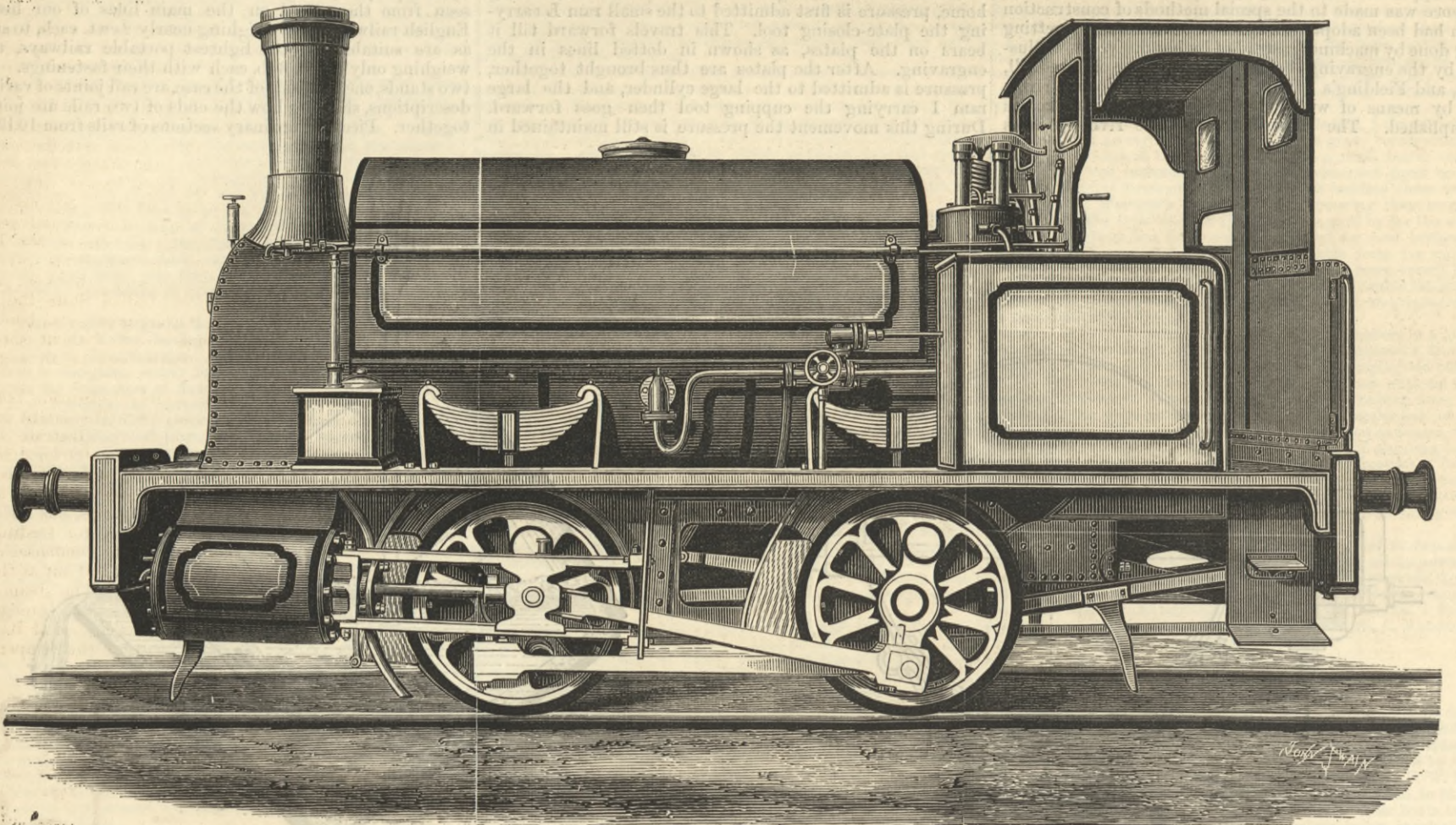


FURNACE MOUTH RIVETTER

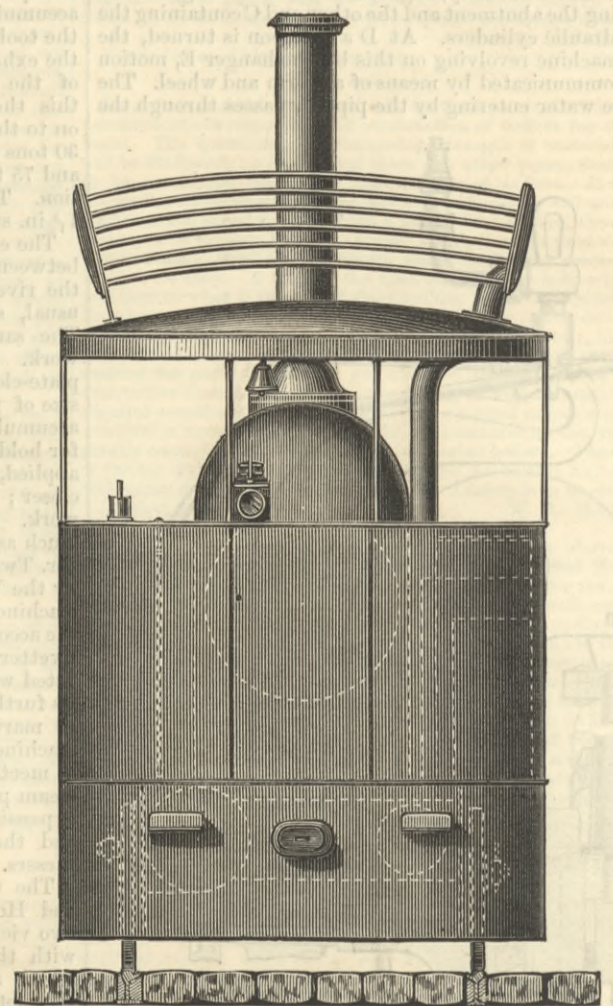
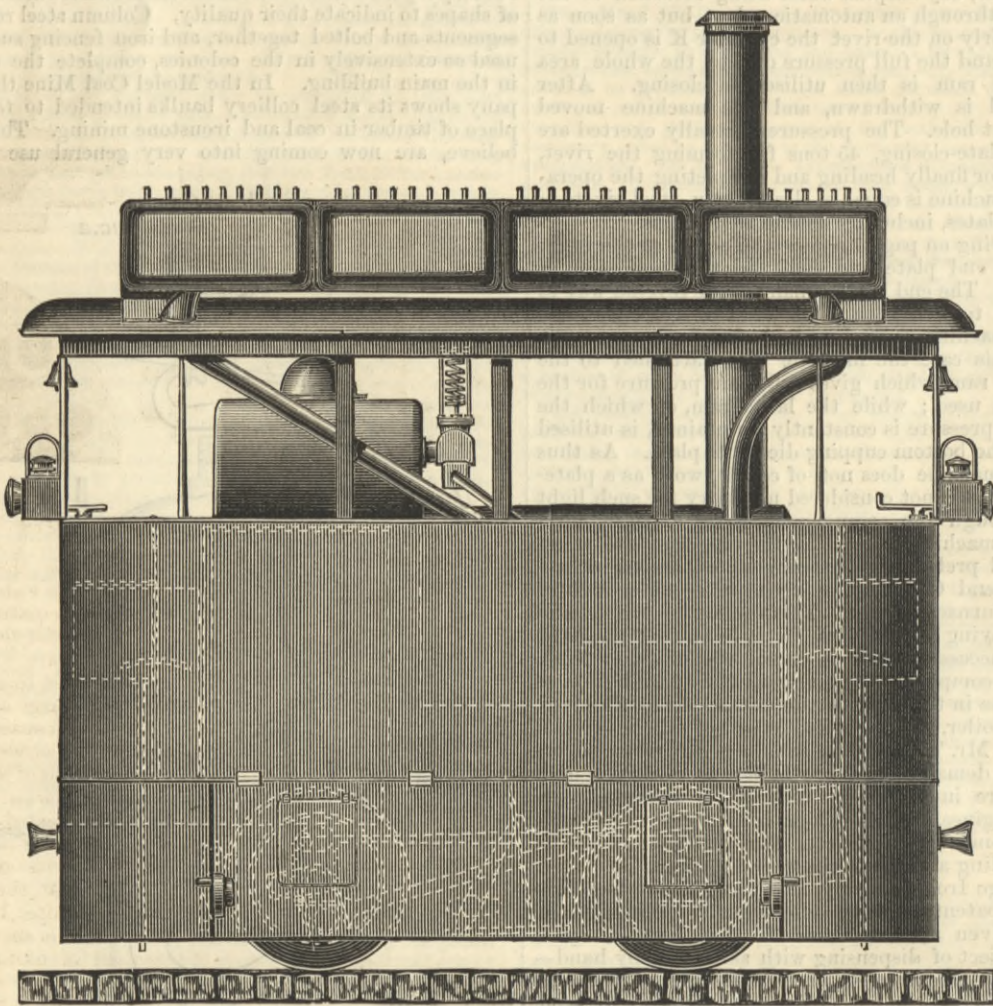
collieries of the Midland district, and considerable quantities have lately been ordered for use in the Cleveland ironstone mines. When required simply for use between two bearings to support the roof they are applied as an ordinary baulk of timber would be; but if wanted for use as an upright prop the company supply steel caps and shoes which give a level bearing on the top for the cross girder, and also prevent the bottom end from sinking into

LOCOMOTIVES AT THE NEWCASTLE EXHIBITION.

MESSRS. BLACK HAWTHORNE, AND CO., GATESHEAD, ENGINEERS.



WOODWIN AND HOW'S FOUNDRY LABEL.



the floor of the mine. This plan is, of course, only adopted in the main ways where the props are intended to stand for a length of time. Where the props are only wanted as a temporary support at the face, caps and shoes are not used. One very decided advantage, besides the permanent nature of these steel baulks for the main ways in mines where the seams are thin, is the additional headroom obtained; a steel baulk 5in. deep taking the place of a 12in. timber baulk, thus giving 7in. more clearance. Where roofs are very broken and uneven the company supplies steel packing for use in the same way as ordinary timber packing.

The small locomotive which we illustrate above has been designed and constructed by Messrs. Black, Hawthorne, and Co., engineers, Gateshead-on-Tyne, for use on light railways in general; also about mines, manufactories, &c. The engine exhibited is intended for working on charging gantries over coke ovens. It is constructed for a gauge of 3ft., and has outside cylinders coupled direct to crank-pins in the wheels, which latter

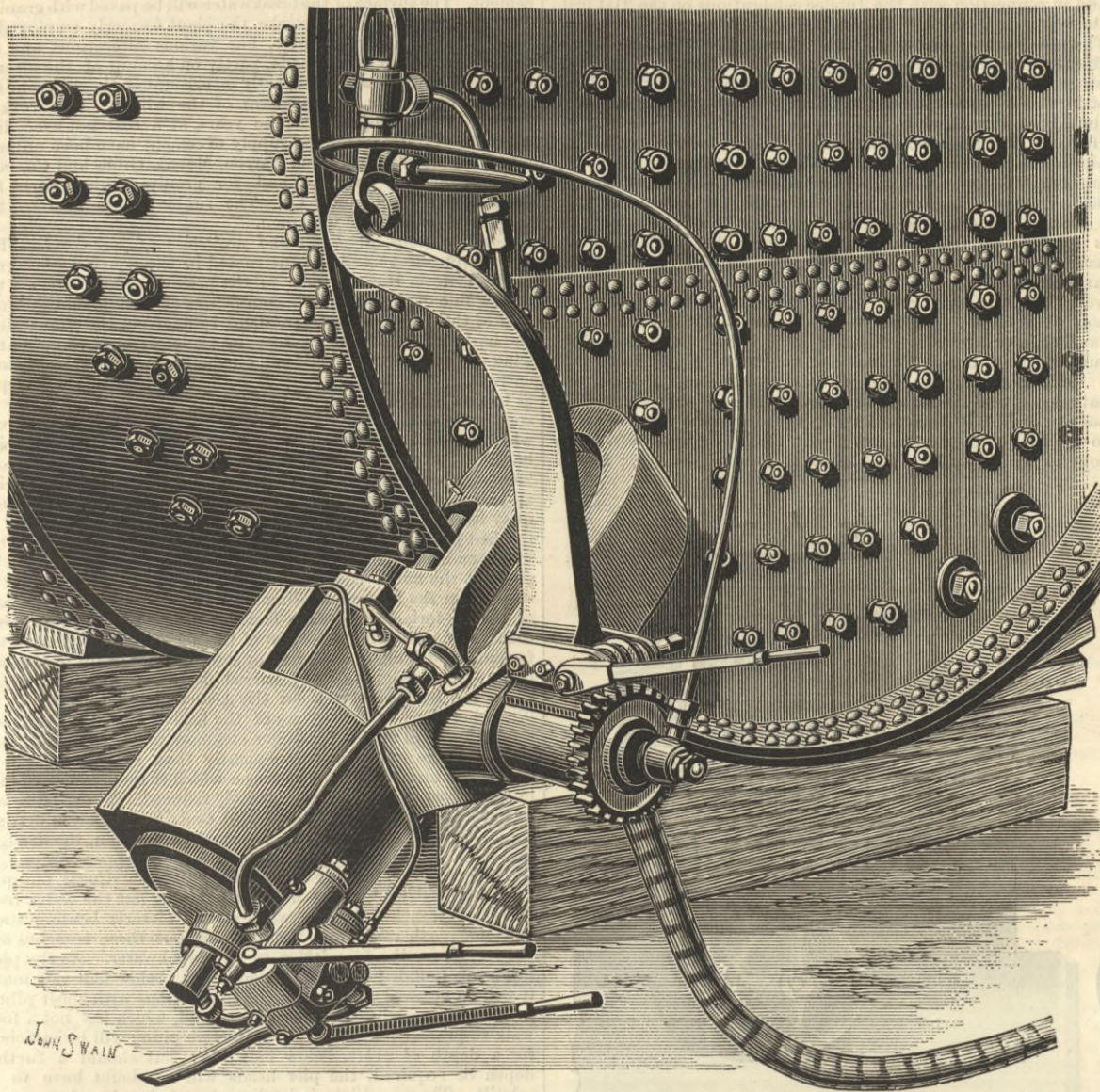
are coupled together. The valve gear is of the ordinary type, worked off the driving axle. The tank is of the saddle form, and the fuel is carried in side boxes. The following are the principal sizes of the engine:—

Diameter of cylinders	6in.
Stroke of pistons	10in.
Diameter of wheels	2ft.
Wheel base	3ft. 6in.
Total heating surface of boiler	102 sq. ft.
Capacity of tank	100 gallons
Weight in working order	5½ tons
Boiler pressure	140 lb. per sq. in.

The fire-box is of copper, the tubes of brass, and the boiler shell, tires, crank-pins, motion-bars, piston-rods, &c., of steel. The axle-box bushes, connecting and coupling rod bearings, and cylinder glands, &c., are of gun-metal. All working parts are of the best Yorkshire iron, well case-hardened. Though this engine is so diminutive, it is complete in every requisite necessary for a larger engine, and is well finished off. We also illustrate a

compound condensing tramway engine, by the same firm. This engine is built for the 4ft. 8½in. gauge, and has the cylinders placed between the frames and connected direct to the crank axle, the wheels being coupled together by outside rods. The boiler is of the locomotive type, with raised fire-box case and dome on top, from which the steam is taken. The valve gear is of Allan's straight link form. The water tank is placed between the frames at the fire-box end of engine, and has the top shaped to correspond with the ash-pan, which allows the latter to be easily accessible. The condenser is on the roof of the cab, and is constructed in four sections, the exhaust steam traversing each, any steam not condensed finding its way into the hot gases of the smoke-box, where it becomes superheated and passes out of the chimney invisibly. The hot water from the condenser is led into a cistern placed on the foot-plate, and is pumped back into the boiler. The pump is arranged to draw from the cold-water tank or hot-water cistern, or from both together at

THE WALLSEND SLIPWAY COMPANY'S MARINE BOILER.



pleasure. The following are the principal dimensions of the engine:—

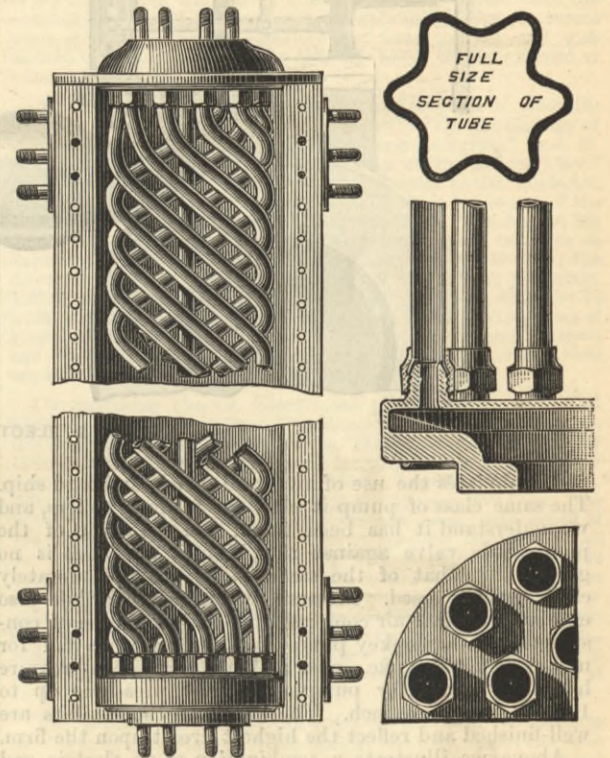
Diameter of H.P. cylinder	8in.
Diameter of L.P. cylinder	14in.
Stroke of pistons	12in.
Diameter of wheels on tread	2ft. 4in.
Wheel base	5ft.
Length over fender plates	12ft.
Weight in working order	10 tons
Boiler pressure	160 lb. per sq. in.

power is therefore combined with economy in working, as on moderately steep gradients, say, 1 in 19, the engine can work entirely compound, thus getting full advantage of the expansion and the steam. The engine exhibited was in regular work on the Gateshead and District Tramways, where it ran over 1600 miles. Its load frequently consisted of a large double bogie car weighing with passengers over 9 tons. The gradients on this tramway are long and, in some cases, as steep as 1 in 15, with

copper, tubes of brass, boiler shell, frame plates, wheels, axles, tires, crank pins, motion bars, piston-rods, &c., of steel; bushes for axle-boxes, connecting and coupling rods, and cylinder glands of gun-metal; condenser tubes of copper, and chests of brass, and the working parts of best Yorkshire iron well case-hardened. The engine is worked from either end, and is fitted with a governor to regulate the speed, speed indicator, steam and hand brake acting upon all the wheels, most improved type of injector, &c. The car brake can be worked from the engine by steam simultaneously with that on the engine.

In the North Court Messrs. Taylor Brothers and Co., Clarence Ironworks, Leeds, show some excellent specimens of best Yorkshire iron and cast steel. The exhibit includes three locomotive crank axles, two of which—one of best Yorkshire iron and one of cast steel—are machined and finished "bright," while the third is a round webbed crank axle forging, a new design for one of Mr. T. W. Worsdell's engines. There are also numerous specimens of cast steel work, plates, flanged and otherwise, and a best Yorkshire iron axle to the Indian State Railways pattern, and tested to their requirements, viz., bent cold over a 5in. bar until the ends meet, without showing signs of fracture, and the journals bent to an angle of 45 deg.

Mr. John Kirkaldy, West India Dock-road, London, exhibits a number of his specialities. The patent combination pump and distiller, which we illustrate below has been designed for supplying fresh water for drinking purposes on board ship. It is entirely self-contained, the steam cylinder and pumps being formed in one casting with the condenser. There are two pumps, one for circulating the cooling water and the other for feeding the boiler. The circulating water enters the condenser at the bottom, passes up outside of the tubes and out at the top into a tank for supplying closets, &c. The steam to be condensed travels in the reverse direction, entering by the pipe A, the condensed water flowing out at B, being cooled to within about 10 per cent. of the temperature

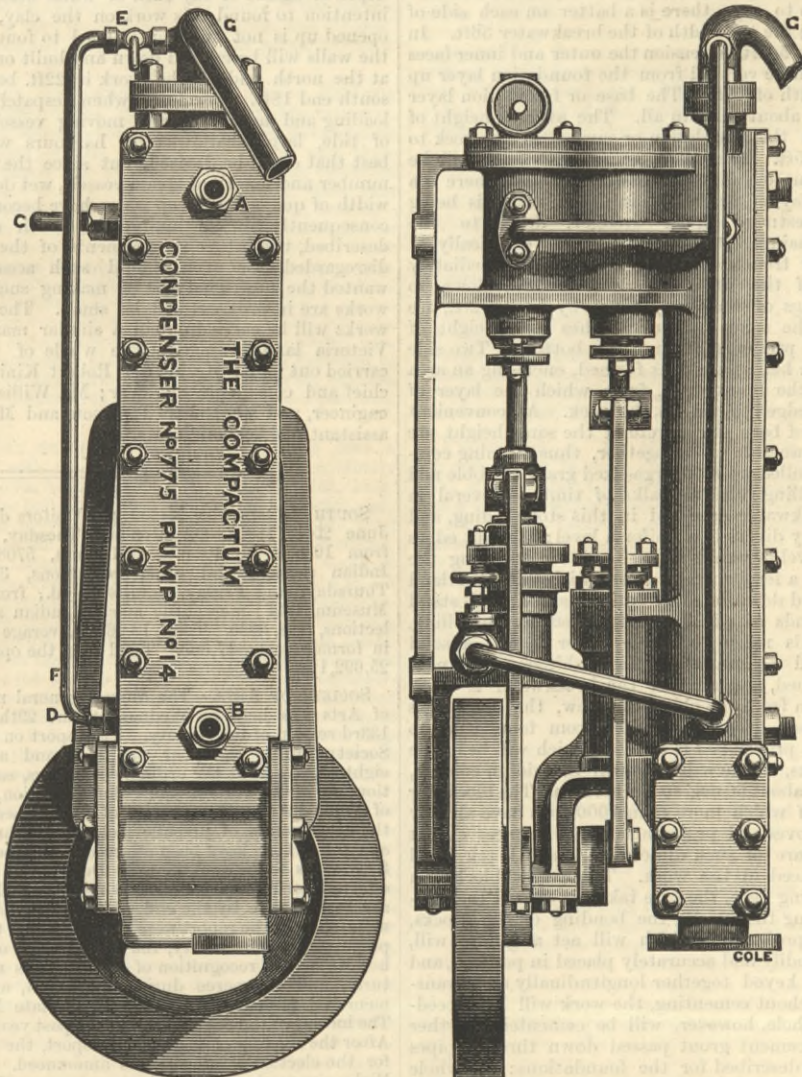


KIRKALDY'S FEED WATER HEATER.

of the cooling water. The steam from the donkey cylinder is condensed in a separate coil, the water so produced, together with some of the heated circulating water, being drawn into the feed pump and used for feeding the boiler. In the interior of the condenser are a series of corrugated copper tubes in spiral coils, fixed to gun-metal tube plates, by means of which a very large amount of cooling surface is obtained in a very small space.

The "Compactum" feed-water heater, which we also illustrate, is used for heating feed-water by means of live steam. It consists of a lagged casing containing spirals of corrugated copper tubes. The water to be heated enters at the bottom, and passes up outside the tubes to the top, branches being provided in either side for its exit. Live steam from the boiler enters the tubes at the top and passes out at the bottom to the hot well, after being condensed. The arrangement of the tubes is shown in the cut, also their section, and the method of fixing them to the tube plates. The latter seems to be extremely efficient. The connection being made by the tube itself on a cone formed on the plate, must ensure a good and permanently tight joint, and must be immensely superior to any method involving either brazing or ferruling. Only solid drawn tubes are employed. Owing to their construction these heaters are peculiarly adapted for working with high steam pressures, and 160 lb. per square inch, or even more, can be used direct, without the intervention of a reducing valve, so obtaining the greatest heating power of the steam. In addition to the foregoing, Mr. Kirkaldy shows a good assortment of his distillers, but as these have been previously described in THE ENGINEER, it is only necessary for us to refer to them at the present time. All Mr. Kirkaldy's exhibits show evidence of careful consideration in their design, and their workmanship is all that could be desired.

Messrs. Carrick and Wardale, of the Redheugh Engine Works, Gateshead-on-Tyne, exhibit a capital collection of their improved steam donkey slide valve pumps, ranging from their smallest size with steam cylinder 6in. diameter by 6in. stroke, and pump 3in. diameter, capable of pumping 1500 gallons per hour, to one of their largest, having

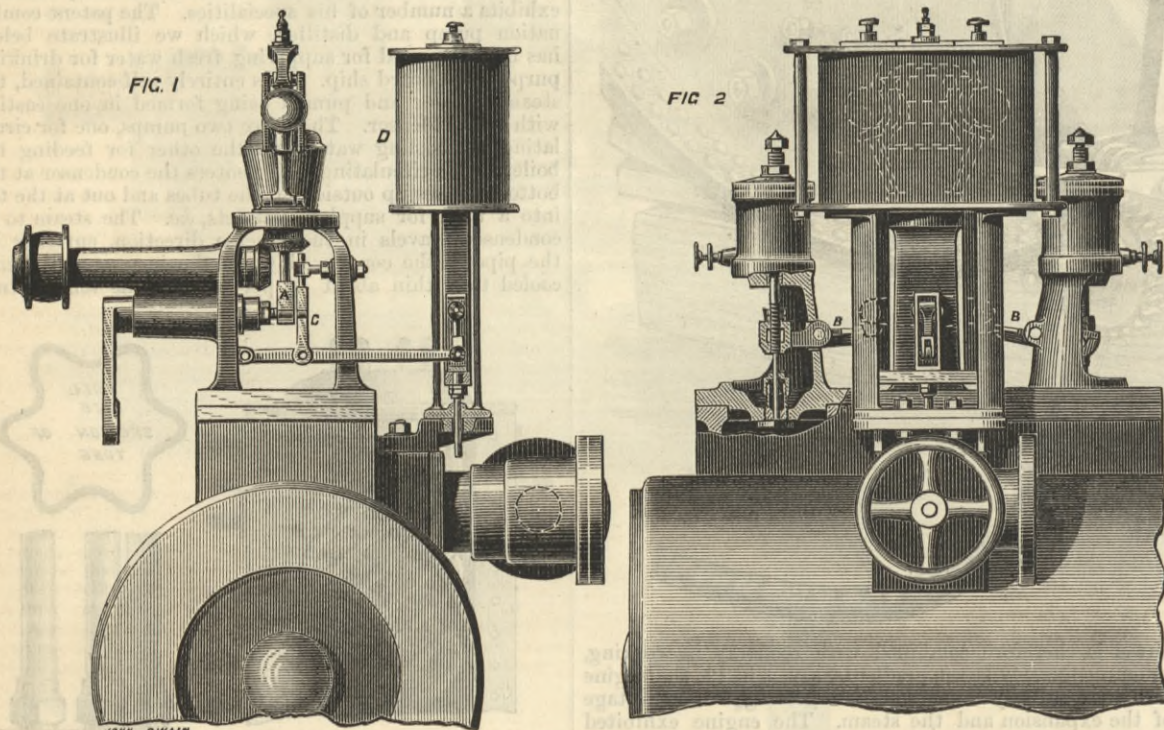


KIRKALDY'S COMBINED "COMPACTUM" DISTILLER AND PUMP.

The engine, although arranged on the compound system, can be worked as a simple engine. This is considered to be absolutely necessary when steep gradients have to be overcome, as well as for facility in starting. Great

curves of short radius. We believe the results of its trial in actual work were very satisfactory as regards consumption of fuel, power, and handiness. The engine is constructed of the best materials, with fire-box of

a steam cylinder 12in. diameter and 12in. stroke, and pump 10in. diameter, capable of pumping 23,000 gallons per hour. They are of a very compact, handy and neat design, and appear suitable for every purpose to which pumps of this description can be put. The pump barrels are fitted with D slide valves worked from the crank shaft, for admitting and discharging the water—the suction being on the inner side and the pressure on the back. The valves are therefore not so liable to be choked or clogged by the obstructions often found in ballast water tanks, as pumps with the ordinary form of valve. The pump barrel, plunger, glands and crank bearings are of gun-metal, as also is the slide valve and the loose valve face with which they are fitted. This loose face enables them, in cases of exceptional wear by gritty water, to be readily repaired. The piston-rod is directly connected to the pump plunger, the steam cylinder and pump piston-rods being coupled with a steel crosshead and link in one piece. Every part is easy of access—a great desideratum in pumps for use at sea—the crank shaft and fly-wheel, the piston and plunger rods, and the steam and water valves can each be taken out separately without interfering with any other part. The columns are utilised as air vessels. Either suction and delivery, one or both, can be obtained from the front or from the back,



ROBEY'S ELECTRICAL GOVERNOR.

which obviates the use of awkward bends on board ship. The same class of pump is used for feeding boilers, and we understand it has been found that the wear of the pump slide valve against the highest pressures is no greater than that of the steam slide, when moderately clean water is used. Messrs Carrick and Wardale also exhibit a vertical air compressor of the same type of construction as the donkey pumps, for forcing acids and for use in distilleries, &c., also a horizontal high-pressure hydraulic pump for pumping against pressures up to 1000 lb. per square inch. The whole of the exhibits are well-finished and reflect the highest credit upon the firm.

Above we illustrate a combination of an electric and an ordinary centrifugal governor, which is exhibited by Messrs. Robey and Co., Lincoln, in connection with the Proell expansion gear on one of their horizontal engines. The point of cut-off is regulated by the rising and falling of the horizontal spindle A, upon the side projections of which—shown in dotted lines in Fig. 2—rest the horizontal arms of two bell-crank levers, whose vertical arms alternately depress the valve levers B B. As the horizontal arms of these levers are raised the vertical arms come nearer together, and thus release the steam admission valve at an early point in the stroke of the piston, the period of opening remaining unaltered. The horizontal arms of the levers also rest upon two projections in the vertical spindle C, which has a vertical movement imparted to it by the solenoids D, whose position are determined by the intensity of the E M F. By means of a simple resistance box which determines the amount of current which passes, this can be fixed at from 80 volts to 130 volts, and once adjusted to a definite E M F, the solenoids will control the engine at that force only, no matter what variation may be made in the number of lamps in operation. This is what is required for constant illumination. For varying the light—as, for instance, in a theatre—the resistance box may be placed under the control of the stage manager, who without communicating either with the engine driver or the electricians, can raise or lower the whole of the lights at will, and turn off or on any number required. The ordinary governor in this engine does not come into action except when no current is passing round the solenoids. Should, however, a wire get broken or disconnected, then the speed governor will control the working as soon as the speed of the engine increases 2 per cent.

**FLOATING DOCK FOR CARDIFF.**—The off-shore floating dock built by Messrs. Clark and Standfield for the Dumfries Dry Dock Ship-building and Engineering Company, of Cardiff, left the builders' basin at Grays, near Tilbury, on the 24th inst., in charge of two of Messrs. Watkins' powerful tugs. The dock arrived at Cardiff about 8 p.m. on the 28th, having covered the distance of about 550 miles at an average of about five and a half miles per hour.

### ST. HELIER HARBOUR.

THE Jersey people have inaugurated with great ceremony, and in connection with the Jubilee celebrations on the 21st inst., the recommencement of the St. Helier Harbour and pier works. The new works now being executed comprise the extension of the Hermitage Breakwater for 500ft., the construction of a deep-water landing-stage at the Victoria Pier, the dredging, to a depth of 21ft. 6in. below the level of half-tide mark cut on the face of the Albert Pier Head, over a portion of the area of the Victoria Harbour, and also over a portion of the channelway outside the pier heads, the protection of the bases of the pier heads and harbour walls by sheet piling, and the continuation of the new north quay wall up to the entrance to the old harbour.

**Hermitage Breakwater.**—The present length of the breakwater is founded on rock, the irregularities in the surface thereof having been levelled up with bags of concrete. On these bags large blocks of concrete, varying from 60 tons to 80 tons in weight, were laid one on the other, but were neither cemented nor bonded together. On the tops of these blocks smaller blocks, varying from 8 tons to 12 tons in weight, were bedded in Portland cement compe. The outer or exposed blocks are faced with a thick rendering or skin of Portland cement mortar, and battered at the rate of one in twelve. The width of the vertical portion or base of the breakwater, viz., from the foundation up to the tops of the 60-ton and 80-ton blocks, or from 50ft. below cope to within 34ft. of the same, is about 44ft. 4in.; at this

level there is an offset or ledge on each side of the breakwater of about 1ft. 4in. in width. The bottom width of the battered portion of the works is about 41ft. 8in., and from this level for 34ft. in height, or up to cope, there is a batter on each side of one in twelve, making the top width of the breakwater 36ft. In the new section of the 500ft. extension the outer and inner faces of the breakwater will be vertical from the foundation layer up to cope, and of a width of 42ft. The base or foundation layer will be 8ft. wider, or about 50ft. in all. The average height of the breakwater, from the foundation or surface of the rock to cope, will be about 65ft. The whole of the extension will be founded upon rock, but over the first 200ft. in length there is a layer, of sand and clay, of nearly 5ft. in depth, which is being removed by a Priestman dipper dredger, down to the rock. Over the remaining 300ft. the rock is practically at the surface. Narrow trenches, parallel with, but immediately outside, the line of the work, are first dredged down to the rock, and then bags of concrete, 7ft. 6in. by 4ft. by 2ft., are piled one on top of the other in the trenches to a height of about 18in. above the present surface of the bottom. Two side walls of nearly 9ft. in height are thus formed, enclosing an area of the foundation of the breakwater, from which the layer of sand and clay is dredged down to the rock. At convenient intervals, cross walls of bags of concrete of the same height are laid, connecting the two side walls together, thus forming compartments which are filled up with large-sized granite rubble and round shingle. Levelling rules or balks of timber—several in the width of the breakwater—are laid in this stone filling, and accurately adjusted by divers to a uniform level; straight edges resting upon these levelling rules being used for sweeping the shingle and stones to a level surface, after which thick Portland cement grout is passed down into the entire mass through stand pipes, the bottom ends of which are inserted in the filling, whilst the upper ends reach to above water level. A solid foundation, composed of granite blocks, shingle, and neat cement, is thus obtained, and on this the breakwater is built. In altering the section from the old to the new, the old blocks in stock are being used, grouted together from foundation to cope, but as soon as a proper bed is formed, which will be in the course of a few weeks, the new blocks will be laid in courses, sloping at an angle of about 60 deg. to the horizon. The blocks for the sloping courses, of which more than 1000 tons have already been made, have grooves and projections on all surfaces except those exposed, and are of such dimensions as to break bond thoroughly when placed in the work. These new blocks, on account of their sloping beds, the care taken in regard to accuracy of form in making the blocks, the bonding of the blocks, and the grooves and projections which will act as guides, will, it is expected, be speedily and accurately placed in position, and at the same time so keyed together longitudinally and transversely that, even without cementing, the work will be exceedingly strong. The whole, however, will be cemented together with neat Portland cement grout passed down through pipes from above water, as described for the foundations; the whole of the outer edges of the joints between the blocks being caulked before grouting to prevent the escape of the grout. This system of grouting has been adopted for cementing together the old blocks which are being used for the extension, and has proved very successful. The blocks are formed of granite rubble built with 5 to 1 Portland cement mortar, the outer or

facing blocks having a facing of granite ashlar set in 3 to 1 mortar, the joints between the ashlar for 1in. in depth being raked out as soon as the moulds are removed and pointed with neat cement. The surface of the breakwater will be paved with granite. For the execution of the works the plant formerly employed is being used as far as possible, but various alterations and rearrangements are being made, partly on account of the altered system of construction, and partly on account of the very limited space available for the purposes of the works. The work is expected to be finished in three years, at a cost not exceeding £50,000. Contracts for the supply of cement have been entered into with Messrs. Burge and Barron, Messrs. Gibbs and Co., and Messrs. Johnson and Co., and for granite ashlar, with the Channel Islands Granite Co. The rubble is quarried by the Harbour Committee's workmen.

**Landing stage, dredging and protection of pier heads.**—The new landing stage will be constructed in the south-west corner of the Victoria Harbour near to the present landing stage; the coping line of the new work commences at a point on the south wall of the Victoria Harbour, about 100ft. from the west wall of the harbour, and extends across the angle of the harbour to the wing of the Victoria Pier Head, on the inner side of the harbour entrance. The landing stage is being founded at such a depth as to give 30ft. of water at half-tide, or 50ft. at high water of spring tides, the foundations being carried down to the rock which is found at depths varying from 50ft. to 55ft. below coping level. The total length of the works at coping level is about 290ft. There will be two lower landings, the bottom one being at half-tide level and the intermediate one equidistant between quay level and half-tide landing. The lower landings will be reached from quay level by inclined roadways, situated at the south end, suitable for vehicles and foot passengers, and also by stairs at the north end, communicating further with a flight of steps from the bottom landing to the pathway round the base of the Victoria Pier Head. The dredging at present proposed consists of deepening a portion of the Victoria Harbour and the formation of a channel way from the small roads up to the harbour. The dredging will be carried down to a depth of 21½ft. below the half-tide mark on the Albert Pier head, or to about 6ft. below the present bottom of the harbour between the pier-heads, and will enable passenger steamers to come into the new landing stage much more frequently than at present, and of course the number of occasions on which it is necessary to land in small boats will be proportionately reduced. The dredging will be executed by means of a powerful centrifugal suction dredger supplied by Messrs. J. and H. Gwynne, of London, the dredged materials being deposited at sea by means of hopper barges. In addition to dredging the channelway, the centrifugal pump or "suction dredger" will be used for pumping out the water from the piled trenches for the walls of the Victoria landing stage and the north quay, and for dredging out these trenches and the trench for the foundation of the breakwater. As the pier-heads are founded on sand at about 20ft. below half-tide mark, it will be necessary to protect the foundations with sheet-piling, and more especially the Albert Pier head, which has not a foot-walk to protect its toe. This protective piling will be sufficient for a depth of 21½ft. below half-tide; but should a further depth be required, the pier heads will no doubt have to be rebuilt. The new Victoria landing stage being founded on rock at a level of about 12ft. below the foundation of the Albert Pier, no underpinning of the foundation will be necessary when any further deepening of harbour is required.

**North quay.**—The widening of the north quay to about 180ft. will provide additional berths and quay room. A length of about 900ft. has been already executed, and the remaining length of about 500ft. will be so constructed as to form one side of a graving dock, or a second entrance to a wet dock, if ever such works are constructed, or at all events the new wall will be utilised as a landing quay for either goods or passengers, with a depth alongside of say 12ft. of water below half-tide. It is the intention to found this work on the clay, but if the clay when opened up is not sufficiently hard to found upon, the whole of the walls will be carried down and built on the solid rock, which at the north end of the work is 22ft. below half-tide, and at south end 18ft. Formerly, when despatch was not so urgent in loading and unloading and moving vessels about at all times of tide, large shallow-water harbours were regarded as the best that could be devised, but since the great increase in the number and length of steam vessels, wet docks, great lengths and width of quays, and deep water have become indispensable, and consequently in continuing the north quay in the manner described, the future requirements of the port have not been disregarded, for even should such accommodation never be wanted the additional cost of making such provision while the works are in progress will be small. The foundations of these works will be carried out in a similar manner to those of the Victoria landing-stage. The whole of the works are being carried out under Mr. Walter Robert Kinipple, M. Inst. C.E., as chief and consulting engineer; Mr. William Jaffrey as resident engineer, and Mr. Robert Paterson and Mr. John MacCunn as assistant resident engineers.

**SOUTH KENSINGTON MUSEUM.**—Visitors during the week ending June 25th, 1887:—On Monday, Tuesday, and Saturday, free, from 10 a.m. to 10 p.m.: Museum, 5708; mercantile marine, Indian section, and other collections, 3324. On Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday, admission 6d., from 10 a.m. to 6 p.m.: Museum, 1496; mercantile marine, Indian section, and other collections, free, 3035. Total, 13,563. Average of corresponding week in former years, 17,363. Total from the opening of the Museum, 25,692,122.

**SOCIETY OF ARTS.**—The annual general meeting of the Society of Arts was held on Wednesday, the 29th inst., concluding the 133rd session of the Society. The report on the proceedings of the Society during the year was read and adopted. There were eighteen papers at the ordinary meetings, seven in the Indian Section, six in the Foreign and Colonial Section, and six in the Section of Applied Art. Five courses of Cantor Lectures were given, and the usual course of juvenile lectures at Christmas. Prizes to the amount of £368 have been offered for competition to art workmen, for articles to be sent in next December. Prizes have also been offered for motors for electric lighting. Entries for these prizes are to be made by the end of the year. Amongst other matters mentioned in the report were the reports on the Colonial Exhibition prepared by the Society, the presentation of the Albert Medal to her Majesty in recognition of the progress made in arts, manufactures, and commerce during her reign, and the erection of a memorial tablet on the house of the late Mr. W. M. Thackeray. The income of the Society during the past year amounted to £12,575. After the reading of the annual report, the result of the balloting for the election of officers was announced. H.R.H. the Prince of Wales was re-elected president, and among the vice-presidents were included H.R.H. the Duke of Edinburgh, H.R.H. Prince Albert Victor, Sir Frederick Abel, the Duke of Abercorn, the Attorney-General, Sir Edward Birkbeck, Sir Frederick Bramwell, Sir Philip Cunliffe-Owen, Sir Douglas Galton, the Duke of Manchester, Sir Henry Ponsonby, and Lord Thurlow. Mr. H. Trueman Wood was re-elected secretary.

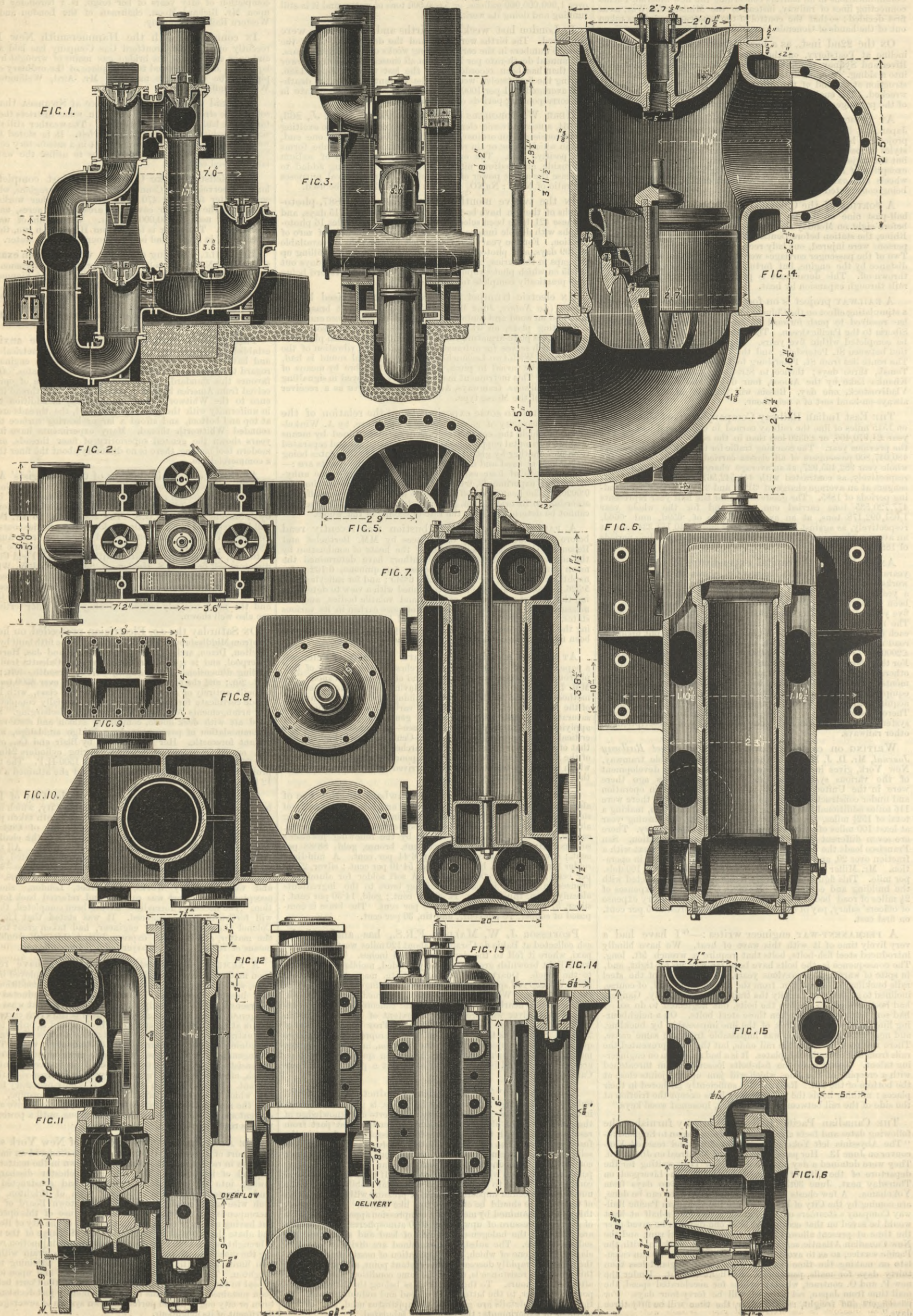




COMPOUND DIRECT-ACTING PUMPING ENGINES, HAMPTON.

MR. J. W. RESTLER, M. INST. C.E. ENGINEER; MESSRS. MORELAND AND CO, CONSTRUCTORS.

(For description see page 13.)





price being 3s. 6d. for the South Metropolitan and 3s. 9d. for the two other companies. The drop in residuals is such that where the companies made 11d. in 1882, they only made 8d. last year. The number of gas consumers in London approximates to 291,000, with an increase of more than 2000 per annum. The gas lamps are 69,000, with a yearly increase of about 1000. The increase in the number of consumers appears inadequate, compared with an addition of 66,000 to the population, and an increase of nearly 9000 in the number of houses. The inference is unavoidable, that a large proportion of the new houses are lit by means of oil. It is a strange conclusion, but if we compare the total of houses in London with the total of gas consumers, we must infer that half the houses in London are without gas. If so, the consumption of oil must be large, and helps to account for the enormous stores of petroleum in the metropolis. While cheap burning oil is evidently keeping gas to a large extent out of the houses of the working classes, the question arises whether the gas companies might not cultivate a trade in this direction, and thereby strengthen their position as menaced by the electric light. The latter is most likely to compete with them among the larger class of consumers. For the present the electric light has a struggling kind of existence, but it is making some headway, though not in such a manner as to produce a marked impression on the revenues of the gas companies.

In addition to the statistics of the metropolis, there are those which relate to the suburbs and the provinces. Mr. Field analyses the accounts of twelve suburban companies and ten provincial companies, besides those of nine gas undertakings conducted by local authorities, the latter being the Corporations of Birmingham, Bolton, Halifax, Leeds, Leicester, Manchester, Nottingham, Oldham, and Salford. The idea that local authorities are specially qualified to deal with the gas supply is only partially borne out by these statistics. The capital employed by the metropolitan companies is at the rate of 12s. 3d. per 1000 cubic feet of gas sold, while the Corporations required 13s. 10d. The suburban companies employ 13s. 5d., and the provincial companies are the most moderate, their capital being 11s. 6d. per 1000ft. The Corporations are low in the matter of working expenses, and also in the prices charged for the gas. In the net profit per 1000ft. the Corporations are much the lowest, doubtless for the reason that they have no need to make profits for the sake of paying dividends. Yet in the gross profit per 1000ft. of gas the Corporations take a full penny more than the provincial companies. One peculiarity in the Corporation management consists in using gas profits in aid of rates. This was carried last year to the extent of 2½d. per 1000ft. on the average among the nine Corporations specified. The largest appropriation of this nature was in the case of Salford, where it amounted to nearly 5½d. per 1000ft. The highest absolute amount was at Manchester, where it reached £52,000. But £24,454 was also required for the sinking or redemption fund, and the total is shown to exceed the net profit by as much as £27,972. At Oldham we find that £2544 of gas profits went in aid of the electric light. To the presence of the electric light we may probably attribute the exceptional circumstance that the sale of gas in Oldham last year fell off by nearly 1½ per cent. Another feature in the accounts of the nine Corporations consists in the amount of interest paid for borrowed capital. Last year the metropolitan companies paid interest to the extent of 1½d. per 1000ft. of gas sold, while the Corporations paid at the rate of nearly 6d. for annuities and interest on borrowed moneys. The decline in the value of the residual products of gas-making affects all gas undertakings. In 1883 the Corporations realised 75 per cent. of the cost of coal by the sale of the residuals. Last year they realised less than 49 per cent. The Commercial Company, in London, is exceptional in the circumstance that while in 1883 it recovered under 60 per cent., last year it obtained a mere fraction less.

It seems strange that the waste of gas has undergone no material reduction within the last five years. Going back to 1874, we find that the percentage of gas unaccounted for was much greater than at the later date. Still the present loss is large, exceeding in the metropolis 5 per cent. of the make, the actual quantity being larger than the entire volume sold in Nottingham. More than 120,000 tons of coal per annum are thus burned to waste in London. Allowing that some of the gas may be stolen, and that the meters fail to register all that passes through them, the loss is still considerable. Concerning some of the comparisons, it should be observed that there is a variation in lighting power. Common gas in London has, by statute, an illuminating power of not less than sixteen candles. Among the twelve suburban companies, Richmond has a standard of fifteen candles, and all the rest only fourteen. Among the nine Corporations, there is a considerable range in the legal standard, and the figures make it appear that the authorities give very much better gas than the law requires of them. As we presume the gas is tested by their own officials, it would be a matter of some interest if an independent test were applied, so as to verify the fact that Nottingham gives 19-candle gas instead of 13½; Oldham, 19·50-candle gas instead of 14; and Birmingham, 17·32-candle gas instead of 15. The provincial companies do not profess to be so generous, though two or three of them run rather high. In London, where the gas supplied by the companies is tested by the Metropolitan Board and the Corporation, the observed lighting power is less than a candle above the legal standard. Among the results worthy of note in the history of the London gas supply, as exhibited in Mr. Field's annual "Analysis," we find the following:—The capital employed in the manufacture of the metropolitan gas supply in 1869 was considerably under £8,000,000, whereas it now exceeds £14,000,000. But the proportion per 1000ft. of gas has fallen from 15s. 10d. to 12s. 3d., and the working expenses have declined from 18·05d. to 13·72d. While dividends have been maintained, the price of gas has been lowered and the quality improved.

Legislation has protected the consumer, and does not appear to have injured the companies.

#### STEAM ENGINE ECONOMIES.

The steam engine as a whole—that is to say, engine, boiler, and condenser—uses in the production of power two fluids, a liquid, and a solid. The fluids are air and steam, the liquid is water, the solid is coal. Of these, the air, coal, and water all leave the apparatus at a higher temperature than they entered it. They must therefore be prefixed by the negative sign— $-$ . The steam leaves the engine at a lower temperature than it entered it. Therefore it must have prefixed to it the positive sign  $+$ , because the performance of work depends on the loss of heat, and of temperature, which are two different things, of the materials employed to perform work. With the steam we need not now concern ourselves. The well-known formula  $\frac{T-t}{T}$  expresses the efficiency of the engine.

A moment's reflection will show that everything put into the apparatus cold and taken out hot represents a loss of efficiency. The three cold things are the coal put in the furnace; the air used to burn that coal; and the feed-water pumped into the boiler. We propose to consider here what economy could be effected by previously heating them all.

We shall assume that the temperature of the furnace is 2000 deg. Fah., which is a moderate assumption, but sufficient for our purpose. Taking the consumption of coal at 3 lb. per horse per hour, and the sensible heat of the coal at 50 deg., we see that our three pounds of coal must be raised through 1950 deg. The specific heat of coal is 0·24; therefore each pound of coal will require to raise its temperature to that of the furnace  $1950 \times \cdot 24 = 468$  units, or, for 3 lb., 1404 units. But 3 lb. of coal will develop about 42,000 units, the amount varying with the quality of the coal. Therefore, heating the coal up to furnace temperature demands about one-thirtieth of all the heat generated, or, say, over 3 per cent. About 18 lb. of air are usually required to burn a pound of coal, or, for 3 lb., 54 lb. of air. The specific heat of air is 0·23. Consequently, assuming the air to have a temperature of 50 deg., we shall have  $1950 \times 54 \times \cdot 23 = 24,219$  units, or more than one-half of the whole heat generated by the fuel. Of this heat, however, a large proportion is surrendered subsequently to the water in the boiler. The escaping products of combustion go away, however, at a high temperature, varying between 400 deg. and 600 deg. Taking the latter as probably that in an engine using 3 lb. of coal per horse per hour, we have  $550 \times 54 \times \cdot 23 = 6831$  units wasted, or, in round numbers, a little over one-sixth of the whole heat generated, or very nearly 17 per cent. If, then, it was possible to raise the temperature of the air entering a furnace to 600 deg. for each 100 lb. of coal used with cold air, 83 lb. would suffice with the hot air. This is a very considerable saving, and it is a curious fact that so little has been done to secure even a part of it. Attempts have been made at various times—as, for example, on certain boilers in Woolwich Arsenal and by Mr. Alexander, of Cirencester—to raise the temperature of the air by using up waste heat, and these attempts all met with a certain success. The most elaborate attempt which has been made, however, in this direction took the form of an experiment carried out for more than three years, beginning in the summer of 1881, at the chemical works of the Pacific Mills, Lawrence, Massachusetts, under the direction of Mr. J. C. Hoadley. The description of this experiment occupies a quarto volume of 173 pages, published by Wiley, of New York, and Trübner, London, in 1886, to which book we must refer our readers for details. The apparatus transferred a part of the heat of the waste gas to the air entering the furnace. The boiler tried was one of fifty, all alike. They are externally-fired return tube boilers, 5ft. in diameter and 21ft. long over the smoke-box, which is 1ft. long. The tubes are 20ft. long, 3·5in. diameter, arranged in seven horizontal rows—four rows of eleven tubes each, one of nine, one of seven, and one of five, making sixty-five tubes in all. The fuel used is anthracite and bituminous coal. The grates are 5ft. 4in. wide. The heating apparatus consisted of tubes about 18ft. long, arranged in a species of oven turned over the boiler, through which oven the heated products of combustion escape. It is impossible to reproduce even in part the elaborate particulars of the results as given by Mr. Hoadley. It must suffice to say that the ordinary boiler had an efficiency, measured for the whole week's work day and night, of 68·87 per cent. with anthracite, and with bituminous coal of 64·61, while with the warm air the efficiency rose with anthracite to 79·2 per cent., and with bituminous coal to 74·96 per cent. The temperature of the escaping gas was 368 deg. entering the heater, and 189 deg. leaving it. The temperature of the air supplied to the furnace was 315 deg. This result was obtained, of course, by making the air and the hot gas travel in opposite directions. A blower was employed to propel the air through the heating apparatus. This consumed about 1 per cent. of the whole power of the engine. Summing up the results, Mr. Hoadley says: "It therefore appears that the net saving effected by the warm blast was from 10·7 to 15·5 per cent. of the fuel used with cold blast, which is the same thing as to say that discontinuing the warm blast would cause an increased consumption of fuel equal to from 12·3 to 18·9 per cent. of the quantity used with hot blast." Thus it will be seen that practice very fairly corresponds with the theoretical proposition we have laid down.

It will be freely admitted that a saving of 10 to 15 per cent. in coal bills is of great importance, to say nothing of the reduction in the amount of smoke produced. The first cost of the apparatus, the space occupied, and the wear and tear, are items which, however, must not be overlooked. The apparatus used at the Pacific Mills worked for two years, at all events, uninterruptedly without requiring any repairs or renewals, and was last year in good order, with "some

indications of reasonable durability." But it must not be forgotten that if the waste gases are used in this way, they cannot also be available for heating the feed-water, as in a Green's economiser. The steam user will have to choose between the two systems, and sometimes the one, sometimes the other, will commend itself to him. When space is not of much moment, there is a system of heating the air which is at once very inexpensive and extremely durable and efficient. It consists simply in using good bricks, not necessarily fire-bricks, as a regenerator on Siemens system. The hot gases are first passed through one stack of bricks for an hour, and then through another. The air supply is in like manner passed alternately through each stack. The system is so well understood, and so simple, that we need not explain it. The results likely to be obtained are so good, and the cost of the plant so small, that it is remarkable that it has not been freely adopted. To a certain extent, the draught will be affected, but in many cases there is enough draught and to spare, and in others a fan or blower will supply all the air wanted. The most expensive means of obtaining a draught that can be devised is a highly heated chimney.

In just the same way that the loss by using cold air and the gain to be obtained by employing hot air is calculated, we can ascertain the gain to be had from heating feed water. The liquid enters the boiler at 50 deg., let us say, and leaves it as steam at 300 deg., corresponding to a pressure of 52 lb. per square inch. In order that this may take place, each pound of feed-water requires 1155 units. If the feed entered the boiler at 300 deg., then in the boiler it would need to receive but 905 deg. The difference between 905 and 1155 units represents the saving to be effected by raising the temperature of the feed-water. In other words, by imparting 250 units per lb., and so raising it from 50 deg. to 300 deg., a saving of about 27 per cent. is effected regarding the matter in one way, and about 22 per cent. regarded in another way. That is to say, for every 100 lb. of coal used with hot feed, 127 lb. would be used with cold feed; and for 100 lb. used with cold feed, 78 lb. would suffice with hot feed. The advantage to be thus gained is fully appreciated on land, where plenty of space is available for heating feed-water in "economisers;" non-condensing engines also heat feed-water by the waste steam; but at sea, where such a saving would be more than ever desirable, nothing has been done in this direction worth naming. If by the aid of heat otherwise wasted the temperature of the feed could be raised to 369 deg. Fah., a saving would be effected as compared with the existing plan of about 25 per cent. This is just what is claimed for the triple engine as compared with the ordinary compound. If it is worth while to incur the enormous outlay rendered necessary by altering engines or replacing them, surely it is worth while to stretch out our hands to grasp the saving which can be made in another direction. It was recently estimated that the introduction of the triple expansion system would involve an outlay of one million sterling per annum for some years. If 25 per cent. can be saved on the ordinary compound by substituting triple-cylinder engines, and 25 per cent. more by heating the feed-water, it is obvious that the new system would require only half the fuel used under the old. We do not venture to assume that so excellent a result would be realised in practice; but it does seem at least certain that to risk a few thousand pounds in experimenting would not be rash speculation. As to the argument that room would be required, it is enough to answer that less boiler space would be needed. If we do not do it in this country, then it will be done abroad, and English shipowners will hold up their hands and say, "How is it we never thought of this?"

#### THE CLARK PROCESS FOR BRISTOL.

The inhabitants of Bristol have been trying to obtain powers to derive their water supply from the Severn Tunnel water, but for reasons mysterious in the extreme our leading chemists seem to have determined not to let them. It appears that the water in question contains magnesia in considerable quantities, but can be easily softened by the well-known Clark process, as indeed Professor Wanklyn testified. The Bristolians therefore proposed to have this process applied to the Severn Tunnel water before using it. For reasons, however, which we will not for the credit of chemical science enter into, the eminent chemists arrayed on the other side, and engaged as scientific experts to give evidence against the Bill, were practically unanimous in stating that the Clark process would not be of any value in softening this water. Dr. Tidy indeed maintained that "when you adopt Clark's process, with the greatest possible care, you cannot reduce the magnesia by more than one-fourth," and was prepared to vouch that Professor Dewar would give similar evidence. Dr. Frankland, sen., supported these statements by speaking from work done by himself or his assistants, and Dr. Odling spoke in general terms to the same effect. The strange thing about this evidence is that it appears to be at variance with the facts, which moreover are easily proved by direct experiments. The analyses of the Severn Tunnel water in its natural condition will give the following results:—Carbonate of lime, 13·6 grains per gallon; carbonate of magnesia, 5·4; sulphate of magnesia, 3·2; nitrate of magnesia, 0·6; chloride of magnesia, 0·8; chloride of sodium, 3·5; total, 27·1. After being softened by the Clark process by Professor Wanklyn in his laboratory, the softened water contained only 9½ grains of solid matter per gallon, and of these 1·57 grains were lime and 1·44 magnesia, showing that the Clark softening process answered perfectly well with that description of water. The accuracy of this analysis is no doubt beyond question; but it is nevertheless possible that the chemists who gave their evidence against the adoption of the Clark process may have been led to such totally different results by a kind fate that wished to make their work as scientific experts for the side they were engaged by, as easy and as harmonious with their conscience as possible. At the same time, it is very curious that some of these gentlemen when cross-examined did not come out of the fire as well as one could have wished such eminent chemists to do. It appeared, for instance, that Dr. Frankland, sen., had not conducted his experiments himself, that his figures would not work, and that he had entrusted the whole matter—a very important one it must be admitted, bear-

ing as it does so closely on the health and comfort of thousands of people—to an assistant. This flippant and careless attitude is the more to be regretted as some system of artificially softening water is becoming every day more and more indispensable. Our industries are suffering in many instances from the hardness of our water. The numerous inconveniences which are suffered by London alone on account of hard water are incredible. Health and wealth are both sacrificed to this Moloch of our time, which chemists seem to have agreed to support and defend. We will not enumerate the many difficulties encountered by the users of this fluid, but we cannot refrain from expressing considerable surprise that the Clark process, which has been known to everyone for thirty years, and which has been adopted with great success in many cases, should not be more largely used. The adoption of this process involves an outlay of a fraction of a penny per thousand gallons, its actual value to the community may often be counted by shillings per thousand gallons, and its non-adoption may mean that industries which might otherwise flourish do not even spring up. The sooner some cheap system of softening water is adopted the better. The methods of utilising the Clark process which have been brought out during the past few years have no doubt done a good deal towards reducing the system to a practicable one, and to overcome the difficulties which are inherent in the system as Clark left it; but it has nevertheless at present gained but little ground, and there are perhaps not more than half a dozen towns using it.

THE EYMOUTH HARBOUR.

In December last we gave a description of the works which had recently been completed, forming an excellent little harbour, more particularly for the fishing trade of the coast. The works cost about £25,000, and everyone interested expected very great facilities and commercial results, the only work remaining to be done being the removal of part of the outer harbour bar. It is now nearly two years since the harbour was opened. When the scheme was embarked upon it was with the intention of providing a harbour into which boats could be run at all heights of the tide. An excellent harbour was made, but before it was entirely completed the money, which had been lent by the Public Works Loan Commissioners, became exhausted, and the bar was left in the same condition as formerly. The fishermen admit that the harbour is first-rate, but complain bitterly that, after having been saddled with this heavy debt and landing dues, which they did not formerly pay, they are no better off than before. They cannot enter the harbour three hours before or after high water, thus losing time and the market. It appears that the Loan Commissioners cut down the original designs to the lowest possible proportions, and the loan granted allowed hardly any margin even for the works as reduced. Owing to different causes which were unavoidable, the trustees had spent all the money before commencing the entrance channel works. They then asked the Loan Board for other £3000, which would have sufficed to finish the channel; but this the Board refused to give. Of course this policy is very suicidal, as there is small prospect of any interest being paid on the money spent if the boats find a difficulty in getting into the harbour. It looks rather as if the Loan Board would be glad to have another financial failure, as it will form an additional argument against the whole system of loans to harbours, to which they have always been opposed. It would be much better if the money were at the disposal of some board which understands the system and its advantages if properly worked. The entrance channel being left to the last was a necessity from the nature of the works, or of course the engineers would have preferred to have left some of the inside work unfinished until the revenue increased. The dredging and cutting of the bar may be effected by the expenditure of £3000 economically used, with dredgers, assisted by scouring operations, and it seems a very serious thing that a small community should be saddled with a heavy debt for incomplete works, when a comparatively small addition to the present expenditure would make the works of the greatest importance to the community, and repress the present ominous discontent that promises to culminate in refusal to pay dues.

THE BUSINESS SIDE OF THE JUBILEE.

MERCHANTS in the large towns express satisfaction at the results of the Jubilee. A very large amount of money has been "moved." Cash lying idle in the bank has, as the Scotch say, been "lifted" and set in circulation. An immense amount has been expended in labour involved in the preparations for the rejoicings. All the working classes associated with the production of edibles and drinkables have benefited to a great extent; in many instances wages have been doubled. Values of produce, except farm produce—which has rarely been so excellent in quality, and yet so low in price—have been fully maintained. Butchers, fishmongers, poultryers, bakers, and confectioners, have all been literally "pulled out of the place" with work. The gas and electric companies have had their resources taxed to the uttermost to meet the loyal demand for illuminations; the makers of flags, banners, and triumphal trophies; carpenters in erecting barricades, platforms for sight-seeing, temporary buildings for demonstrations, games, &c.; clothiers, drapers, and dressmakers—both sexes desiring to look their best on Jubilee Day—have been utterly unable to meet the exceptional calls upon them; while the noble army of waiters, usually the meekest of men, have been able to adopt the tone militant. The man who got 2s. 6d. a day has been able to command 5s., and thousands have taken to the duty "for this occasion only," so as to earn an honest penny or two. Printers worked night and day to produce programmes, invitation cards, and the hundred-and-one requisites of public and private entertainments; owners of horse-flesh and vehicles for hire had a royal week of it; in fact, it is hardly possible to name a business which has not been stirred to activity by the magnificent outburst of enthusiasm signalling the Jubilee year. Everybody seemed anxious to do something extra in honour of the event, and this was precisely the reason why industry felt its pulse quickened, with, it is to be hoped, more than fleeting effect.

A NOVEL RAILWAY ACCIDENT.

As a timely reminder to those whose business it is to look after the safety of railway travellers, it will not be out of place to mention the painful accident which has just occurred on the Berlin-Potsdam Railway, the third fatal one, it may be noted in passing, which has taken place on the line in recent times. It appears that an empty goods train was prematurely signalled into the station at Waansse, and ran into a standing excursion train, waiting to return to Berlin, when a smash took place which caused the reservoir of gas under one carriage to explode while the locomotive of the goods train caused the gas to ignite, which flew about in all directions and over the cushions, and set fire to everything inside the carriage in which three persons were caged, and could neither escape nor receive assistance from without on account of the build of the carriage, and were

in the most incredibly short space of time burnt to an actual cinder. The only remnant of the male passenger appears to have been part of his waistband, by the buttons of which it is hoped to recognise his personality. The obvious moral to be drawn from this sad catastrophe is, that where gas is used on railroads the reservoir of it must be so placed and formed that under no circumstances, can it be smashed by a collision or the gas ignited if such should take place. The gas receiver in this case was a long sheet iron drum, placed transversely beneath a second-class carriage.

THE NEW COINS.

THERE is no doubt that the Mint authorities, or whoever may be responsible for the recent issue of "Jubilee" coins, have played nicely into the hands of counterfeit money makers. There is not one of the denominations which have been tampered with that is creditable—artistically or mechanically—to the Royal Mint, and which may not be easily imitated by professional smashers. In fact, the pieces resemble castings more than coins which have been struck between steel dies, and hence the temptation to manipulators who work with pikin, ladle and mould. We should advise the public to be on their guard, and to test new coins wherever possible, by weight, before pocketing them. This may be done by placing in the opposite scale-pan a known genuine coin of the old type, and of the same denomination as that to be tested. This really will be the only safe plan for deciding which is the good coin and which the "duffer," for false coiners cannot imitate in weight, however readily they may copy the designs of coins of the precious metals. The new sixpences have already been withdrawn. They have been freely gilt and passed as half-sovereigns. As many as thirty were found on one individual during the present week.

LITERATURE.

*An Elementary Treatise on the Mathematical Theory of Perfectly Elastic Solids, with a short account of Viscous Fluids.* By WILLIAM JOHN IBBETSON, M.A. London: Macmillan and Co. 1887.

THE present work gives an account of the mathematical theory of Elasticity, and forms, consequently, a complementary treatise to the "History of the Elasticity and Strength of Materials," begun by the late Dr. Isaac Todhunter, and completed by Professor Karl Pearson, recently reviewed in these columns. The style of the book addresses itself principally to mathematicians, especially of the Cambridge school, where the book will be useful as a much-needed standard treatise; but we doubt whether it will repay the practical engineer, unless he has a proclivity for such treatment, to spend much time on these analytical developments. The conclusion arrived at from a perusal of the book is that the problems which are capable of complete analytical solution are, with few exceptions, of theoretical interest; while, on the other hand, the problems which the engineer submits for solution lead immediately to such analytical complication as to be theoretically insoluble, the bodies and shapes which the engineer designs being rarely of a simple mathematical form. The engineer in such cases of difficulty turns up generally the empirical formula given in his pocket-book, and when this formula is carefully examined as to its theoretical basis, we shall generally find that it is founded on the assumption of what is called "homogeneous strain and stress" in this book, following the terminology of Thomson and Tait's "Natural Philosophy." Mr. Ibbetson has done well in his treatise to give in Chaps. II. and III. a careful analysis of such "homogeneous strain and stress," illustrated by careful diagrams drawn to a good large scale.

According to the "principle of superposition," permissible when the strains and stresses are small, a homogeneous strain or stress is the resultant of linear strains or stresses in three rectangular directions. Given that the stress is a uniform linear tension, the strains consist of a simple extension in the direction of the tension, and a simple compression in lines perpendicular to the tension; and given that the strain is a uniform linear extension, the stresses consist of a linear tension in the direction of the extension, and pressures in lines perpendicular to the extension. In order to connect these strains and stresses, the values of the elastic moduli as determined by experiment must intervene, and it is now found simplest, following Thomson and Tait, to express these moduli for an isotropic substance in terms of two, namely, the "elasticity of volume," denoted usually by  $k$ , and the "elasticity of figure," or the rigidity denoted by  $n$ . Much confusion in the mathematical treatment of the subject of elasticity would be avoided if all foreign writers would conform to this terminology.

It will then be found that—Ibbetson, pp. 136, 137—if the stress in an isotropic solid is a simple uniform longitudinal tension  $P$ , the strains will be an

extension  $(\frac{1}{3n} + \frac{1}{9k})P$  in the direction of the tension,

and compressions  $(\frac{1}{6n} - \frac{1}{9k})P$  at right angles to the

tension; but given that the strain is a simple uniform longitudinal extension  $e$ , the stresses will be

a tension  $(k + \frac{4}{3}n)e$  in the direction of the extension,

and tensions  $(k - \frac{2}{3}n)e$  at right angles to it.

Once let the practical engineer thoroughly grasp these elementary theorems, and with a slight additional knowledge of the theory of the flexure of beams, he will be sufficiently equipped for most practical purposes with the theory of elasticity.

What the engineer generally calls the modulus of elasticity is the ratio of the tension per square inch to the corresponding extension of a bar of the substance, defining extension as the ratio of the elongation to the original length. This modulus is distinguished by mathematicians by the name of Young's modulus, and is the modulus most easily determined by experiment in a testing machine. The above theory shows that Young's modulus is the reciprocal of  $\frac{1}{3n} + \frac{1}{9k}$ , and is therefore  $\frac{9kn}{3k+n}$ . Of the

two quantities  $n$  and  $k$ , perhaps  $n$  is the most readily determined by experiment, from observation of the shearing vibrations of the substance, and then  $k$  is known, from the previous value of Young's modulus; or we may attempt to determine the lateral contraction of the substance, under uniform tension, by careful measurement of the change in diameter of a test piece under tension in the testing machine.

Mr. Ibbetson carefully explains these preliminaries, but uses them only as a stepping stone to the most general case of the general strain and stress in a substance under arbitrarily applied forces and displacements, the most general problem in elasticity for the mathematician, leading to analytical developments of differential equations and curvilinear co-ordinates; but now the author takes leave of the engineer, so far as any practical applications are concerned. The object of the mathematician is now to concoct a physical problem which shall suit the analysis which he has built up, and it is instructive to notice how, as in the cognate subject of hydrodynamics, the conditions to be satisfied at the boundaries form the great impediment to progress; or sometimes, on the other hand, when the boundary conditions are satisfied, to make the equations of internal equilibrium hold.

In Chap. VII. Mr. Ibbetson returns to the practical side of the subject in its connection with the theory of beams, columns, and shafts, and discusses some problems concerning the stability of loaded columns and rotating shafts, of considerable practical interest to the architect and the engineer. The discussion of the effect of the flexure of the spokes of the driving wheels of a coupled engine, and of the elasticity of the side rods, would form an interesting question in its practical bearing on the comparative merits and economy of single and coupled locomotives.

In Chap. VIII., on the equilibrium of plates and shells, the analytical difficulties which intervene render the results again of theoretical importance; but we are surprised not to find an application to an important practical problem, the collapsing pressure of flues and tubes, formerly experimentally investigated by Fairbairn, and recently the subject of a very interesting analytical investigation by M. Halphen.

The subject of Chap. IX. is the investigation of the modification of elasticity on questions of impact, and will doubtless prove interesting but rather short to Mr. Donaldson; here an interesting practical development from the impulse on a rigid obstacle to the impulse of pile driving would have been acceptable. We notice too an omission of the explanation of the modification of the theory of beams, due to difference of moduli for tension and pressure, the theorem claimed by Mr. Donaldson.

Chap. IX. treats of the question of viscosity, and forms a chastening conclusion to the book, if we are to argue from the experiments on steel given in the appendix to Chap. IV., which prove that steel is viscous, like sealing-wax, and only requires time to yield in a similar manner, so that we may live to see the Forth Bridge gradually assume Hogarth or Ruskin's line of beauty, and so gradually reach the water between its 1700ft. spans.

Chap. I. reviews the different molecular hypotheses advanced by Boscovitch, Cauchy, Sir W. Thomson, and others; but it is a relief to find that the author has developed his theories without introducing any molecular ideas, but simply from the straightforward assumptions of the continuity of matter. Chap. II. analyses strains—i.e., deformations; Chap. III. analyses stresses—i.e., the tensions and pressures inside a body; in Chap. IV. it is shown how to connect stresses and strains by the intervention of a certain amount of experiment; and now we are in a position to develop our equations as far as analysis will permit us at present. Useful tables are given, connecting the elastic constant in absolute measure and in gravitation measure, as universally employed by engineers. The expression, "weight moduli," of page 201, is ambiguous, and should be replaced by "gravitation moduli."

In conclusion, the book is well printed and the diagrams much better drawn than is usual in mathematical treatises, and generally the whole work reflects great honour on the author, and will prove of great use to the scientific world.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

*Les Machines Marines: Cours Professe à l'Ecol d'Application du Genie Maritime.* Par A. Bienaymé. Ouvrage Couronné par l'Académie des Sciences. Paris: E. Bernard et Cie. 1887. 4to. 527 pp. Plates.

*Tables and Formulas for Switches and Crossings for the Australian Railway Gauges.* Calculated by S. Polliter, C.E. Sydney: Turner and Henderson. 1886.

*De l'Exploration Economique des Lignes Secondaires des Grands Réseaux de Chemins de Fer dans Différents Pays de l'Europe.* Par L. De Busschere, J. De Jaer, et P. Niels. Texte and Atlas. Bruxelles: E. Ramlot. 1887.

*Drainage of Lands and Towns.* By G. D. Dempsey, C.E. Revised, with large additions, by D. K. Clark, M. Inst. C.E. London: Lockwood and Co. 1887.

*An Introduction to Machine Drawing.* By David Alan Low. London: Longmans, Green, and Co. 1887.

*Annual Report of the Board of Regents of the Smithsonian Institution for the Year 1884.* Part II. Washington: Government Office. 1885.

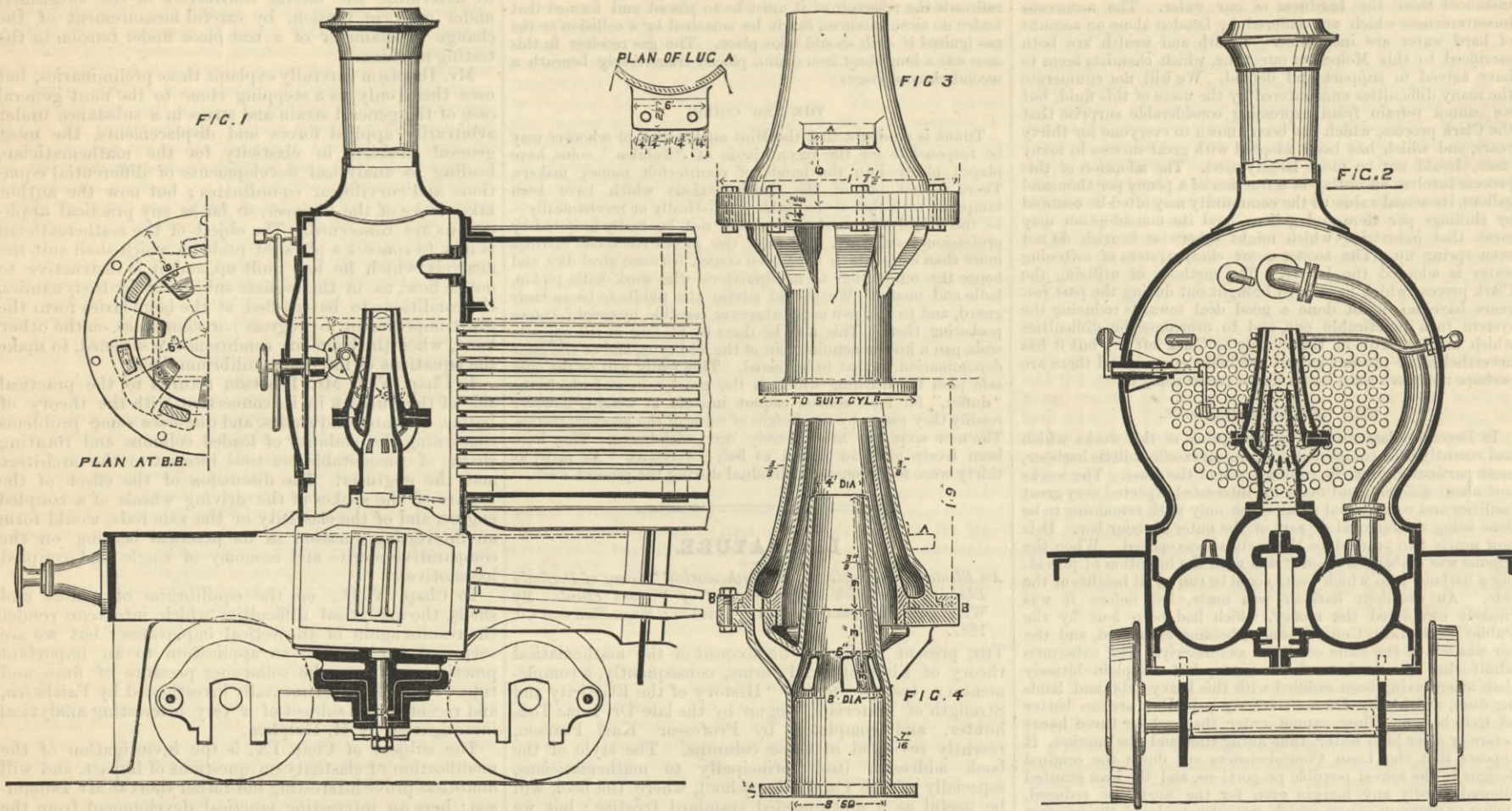
*Duncan's Manual of British and Foreign Tramway Companies, and Tramway Directory of 1887.* London: Effingham Wilson and Co. 1887.

DOUBLE - CYLINDER COMPOUND PUMPING ENGINE — SOUTHWARK AND VAUXHALL WATERWORKS, HAMPTON.

ON page 10 we publish the first of a number of engravings illustrative of a fine pair of inverted double-cylinder compound direct-acting rotative pumping engines and pumps, designed for the Southwark and Vauxhall Water Company by their engineer, Mr. J. W. Restler, M.I.C.E., for the Hampton pumping station, and constructed by Messrs. S. Moreland and Co., London. The engines have given remarkable results, and have cylinders 32in. and 52.65in. diameter and 7ft. stroke. We shall describe the whole with future engravings.

ADJUSTABLE VORTEX BLAST PIPE, WATERFORD AND LIMERICK RAILWAY.

MR. APPLEBY, ENGINEER.



APPLEBY AND ROBINSON'S BLAST PIPE.

On another page we have referred at length to this invention, in successful use on the Waterford and Limerick Railway. The following description is that of the inventors:—

"This invention relates to improvements in 'Blast Pipes' for locomotives and other boilers, in which a steam jet or blast pipe is employed to secure a draught through the furnace and heating tubes, and in the means whereby such draught may be varied and regulated according to the duty to be performed."

"Assuming blast pipes of design A B or C, as shown on accompanying drawing, to be applied to a locomotive engine, the opening for the intake of air will be about the level of the lower tubes, and it extends upwards to about the level of the upper tubes; the openings here referred to communicate with an annular chamber or air passage surrounding the central nozzle, this chamber is itself surrounded by a casing, the space intervening between the two forming a channel for conveying away

or wholly intercepted, and the collective area of the steam passage or passages is diminished, with the effect of intensifying the blast and increasing the draught, and thereby generate steam that could not be otherwise obtained. By means of suitable connection the external casing may be rotated and the action of the apparatus regulated from the foot-plate of locomotive, or other conveniently accessible position.

"Engineers will at once see the true value of this invention, not only for generating steam under extreme circumstances, but the great saving of fuel effected by having means to regulate the blast upon the fire, combined with the increased heating surface obtained through the lower tubes, which have hitherto been only partially operated upon by the ordinary blast pipe. By this arrangement the exhaust steam is allowed to escape at a lower

tube 10 mm. wide, the lower end of which, as also the end of the side piece, is widened out. The upper end is carefully ground. B is also a T-tube, consisting of a piece 25 mm. in width, and a piece of the same tubing as used for A. All three extremities of B are widened out. A is connected with B by means of a very good cork stopper—not caoutchouc—which should be as long as possible and very compact. A should fit into B in such a way that both tubes are perfectly concentric, and that while A can slide perpendicularly but with strong friction in B, the possibility of an oscillation in a lateral direction is altogether excluded. The upper opening is closed by means of a perfect membrane of sheet caoutchouc 5 mm. thick. As it is not easy to obtain perfect caoutchouc, and the least fault may cause it to split, it is best to tie two or three thinner

W. and L. Railway.—Comparison of Coal Consumption in Locomotives Fitted with the Ordinary Blast Pipe and Appleby and Robinson's Patent Regulating and Combined Regulating and Vortex Blast Pipe.

Description of blast pipe, &c.	Miles run.		Coal consumed.		Average load vehicles.			Cost for 30,000 miles at 18s. per ton.	
	Train.	Shunt-ing.	Total.	Total cwt.	lbs. per mile.	Pass.	Goods.		Total.
No. 27 engine, four wheels coupled 5ft. 3in. diameter, 16in. by 24in. cylinders:— With ordinary blast pipe, 4½in. diameter . . . . .	1311½	231	1542½	394	28.61	4	14	18	249 1 0
With patent regulating and vortex pipe . . . . .	825	153	978	170	19.46	3	12	15	169 7 10
Saving effected at 30,000 miles per annum.									£79 13 2
No. 1 engine, six wheels coupled, 4ft. 6in. diameter, 17in. by 24in. cylinders:— With ordinary blast pipe, 4½in. diameter . . . . .	2010	202	2212	766	38.78	1	31	32	340 16 7
With patent regulating and vortex pipe . . . . .	2051½	130	2081½	583	29.94	1	28	29	260 12 4
Saving effected at 30,000 miles per annum.									£50 4 3

Hassendean Cottage, Gloster-place, Windsor, June 27th, 1887.

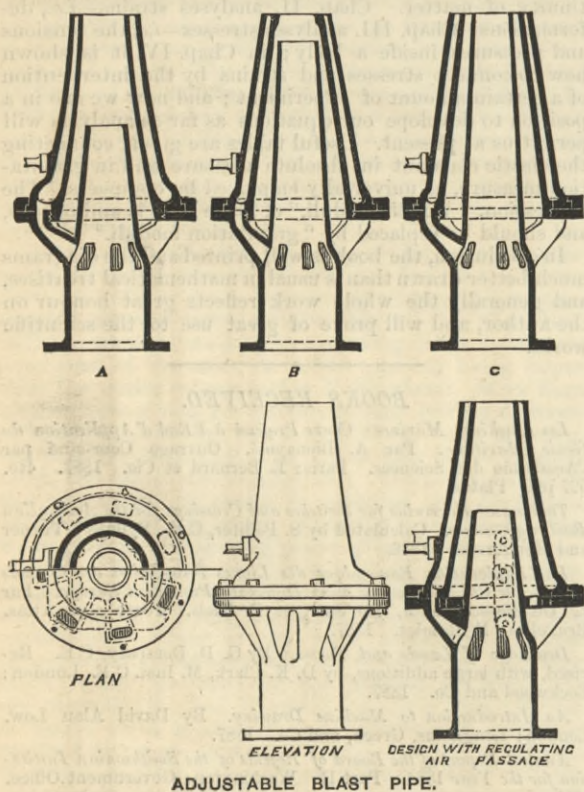
G. MITCHELL.

velocity than with the ordinary pipe, reducing the back pressure upon the pistons, and undue strain upon the motion. For shunting engines, local traffic, and trains with frequent stoppages, these pipes are invaluable, as the engine will generate ample steam for all requirements with the two orifices open. From results already obtained we find a direct saving in the consumption of coal of at least 6 lb. per mile, and from experiments now conducting, we have no hesitation in saying the saving will be further increased."

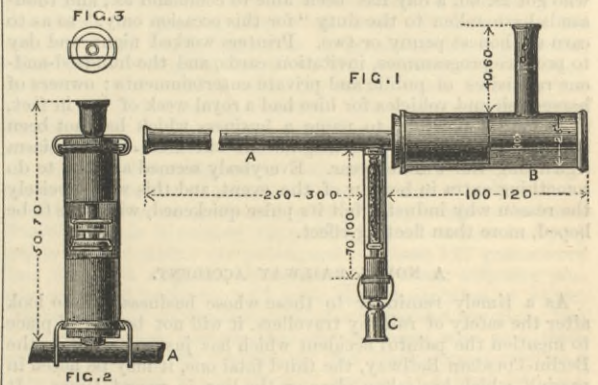
A SIMPLE AIR PUMP FOR USE IN THE LABORATORIES OF WORKS, &c.

The pump here illustrated is described by O. N. Witt—*Chem. Zeit.* 10, 760—in which he reviews the different kinds of air-pumps at present in use. The one here described does not, as the two kinds generally employed in laboratories, require either a strong pressure of water or a long column of discharged water. Now, as one or the other of these requisites is not often to be found in works, the author has constructed a pump the principle of which depends on the hydraulic ram. It can be looked upon as a modification of Jagno's pump, the theory of which has been explained by Mendelejeff, Kupitschoff, and Schmidt—*Annalen*, 165, 63. Jagno's pump works with a column of water, and falls 1½ metres high. If the pressure is stronger the fall may be successively shortened to 40 cm.; if smaller it must be correspondingly lengthened. These are very modest requisites, and the only reason why this pump has found so little favour in laboratories is due to its liability to get out of order, and Lin-neman's—*Annalen*, 177, 295—improvement on that pump is somewhat expensive. The accompanying Fig. 1, which we take from the *Journal of the Society of Chemical Industry*, will readily explain the construction of the pump as recommended and used by the author for several years: A is a T-shaped glass

sheets, one over the other, on to the tube. The thickness of the sheets employed should depend on the water pressure at disposal, and must be tried in each special case. A must be pushed into B so far that the water which enters at b, while slightly lifting the caoutchouc sheet, is jerked out at a. Under ordinary circumstances this occurs when, on blowing into b, a loud sound resembling a blast from a trumpet is heard. C is a Bunsen valve, which must have been made with great care,

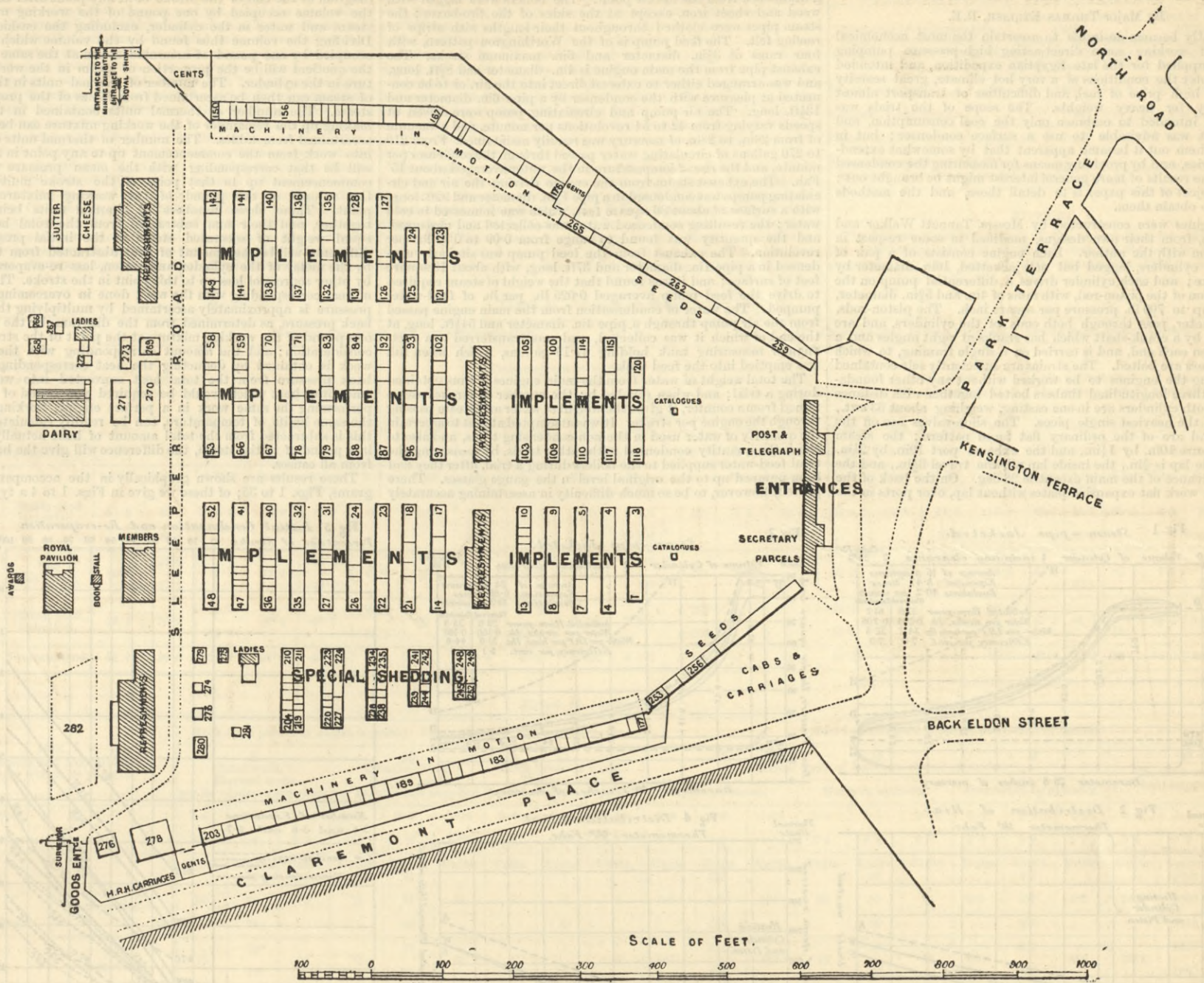


steam supplied to the lower end thereof, through passages leading from the central steam nozzle. It will be readily understood upon looking at design A and B, the air is drawn up from the bottom and intermixes with the steam, and can be arranged to either intermingle within a few inches at the bottom or top of the pipes, or any position between the extreme bottom and top of the blast pipe, which may be found most suitable for the class of boiler; the blast pipe having to generate steam or exhaust air. In design C the annular stream of air discharged is both lined with and enveloped by steam. The external casing is formed with a seating, and it is mounted upon the lower portion of the apparatus in such a manner as to be capable of being rotated. In its seat are formed ports corresponding with the passages leading from the central nozzle. When the ports coincide with the passages, steam is free to escape by the annular passage, but upon the external casing being rotated, the supply of steam to the external or annular passage is partially



and should fit perfectly. It should, moreover, be so small that it works easily in the tube, and offers a sufficient passage for the expelled air. As the whole pump oscillates very considerably when in action, the junctions must be tied with silk and thin wire, and fastened so thoroughly that the various parts cannot be displaced. Much depends on the good quality of the small valve; it is not easily made, and the black tubing which is used for it gradually loses its elasticity. It is therefore

PLAN OF THE IMPLEMENT YARD AT NEWCASTLE.



advisable to replace it by an arrangement such as the one shown in Fig. 2. This consists of a wide piece of tubing, which is drawn over and attached to the shortened adjoin piece of A by means of a cork. A thin piece of tubing ground in front is passed through the other end of the wide tube, and on the former glides a somewhat broader but short tube, widened at each end, over the front opening of which a strip of caoutchouc cloth is stretched—Fig. 3—just broad enough to cover the opening of the small tube.

THE NEWCASTLE SHOWYARD.

The agricultural engineering world has once more prepared for, and is hoping for tangible results from, a Royal meeting. The locality of the meeting has changed from the rural, to the mining and manufacturing North. The implement yard, as shown by the plan above, presents a familiar though modified arrangement. At Newcastle there are five distinct thoroughfares made amongst the shedding, and the length of ground covered is less than usual. Fronting the entrances runs the main avenue through the centre of the yard. The two blocks forming this highway are the two principals in the whole of the implement section. They contain fourteen sheds, and are like the smaller block to the right, containing in all 9 sheds, devoted to the department know as "ordinary" shedding. The numbers, as will be seen by reference to the plan, run from 1 to 149, the following number, 150, being the first in the machinery-in-motion department, which skirt the "ordinary" shedding on the extreme right and left. The right takes up the sequence of the numbering, and contains 150 to 176. Directly across the yard will be found machinery-in-motion stands from 176 to 203. The trial yard is to the left of that shown in our engraving, and runs parallel with, but outside, the cattle part of the yard and on the Claremont-road. The dairy this year has some novelties in dairy implements, irrespective of some machines which are familiar to visitors. Messrs. E. R. and F. Turners' "Gippeswyk" type of vertical engine will this year provide the necessary power to work the machines requiring it.

At the meeting of the Council of the Society on Wednesday, Mr. Bowen-Jones presented the report of the Implement Committee, from which it appeared that they recommended that the trials of potato raisers should take place after harvest, the details of arrangements to be decided by the stewards and judges at the time of the show, and that such information be communicated to the exhibitors. They also recommended that the potato raisers entered for trial and selected by the judges should remain in the possession of the exhibitors up to the time of trial, and any exhibitor whose machine should be selected by the judges, and who did not produce it at the time, should forfeit £10 for each machine not thus submitted.

Mr. Anderson had reported that Sir Frederick Bramwell and himself had compiled a complete syllabus of the trials of engines at the Newcastle show, and that copies had been forwarded to the competitors.

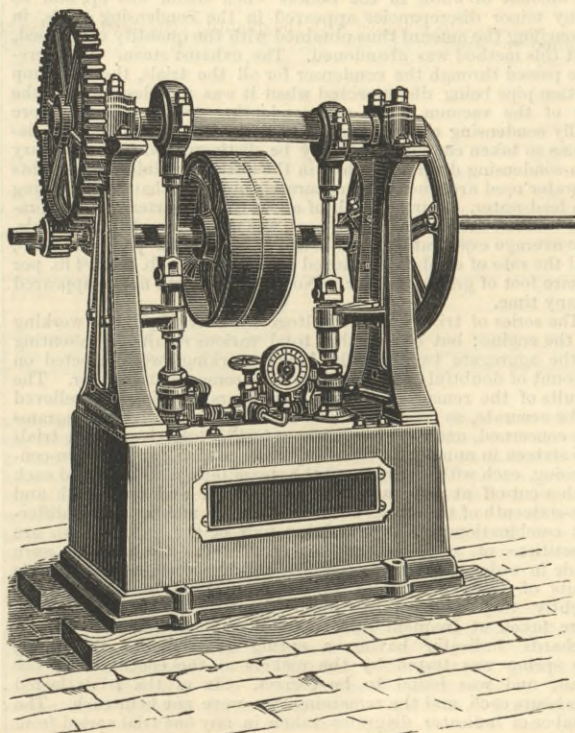
From the report of the Showyard Contracts Committee it appeared that the Newcastle showyard works are in a sufficiently forward state, the implement portion being complete, and many of the exhibits in position. The Local Committee have com-

pleted the sleeper roads across the showyards, and also to the entrances. The whole of the water-pipes are laid. Satisfactory arrangements for the decoration, both floral and otherwise, of the Prince's tent have been made.

HYDRAULIC BALING MACHINERY.

The hydraulic pump and press illustrated have recently been supplied by Messrs. John Birch and Co., of Liverpool, for shipment to a distant eastern port. They are designed for pressing hides into bales of 84in. by 42in., and rugs into bales of 78in. by 35in.

The pump is arranged for either hand or power driving, and

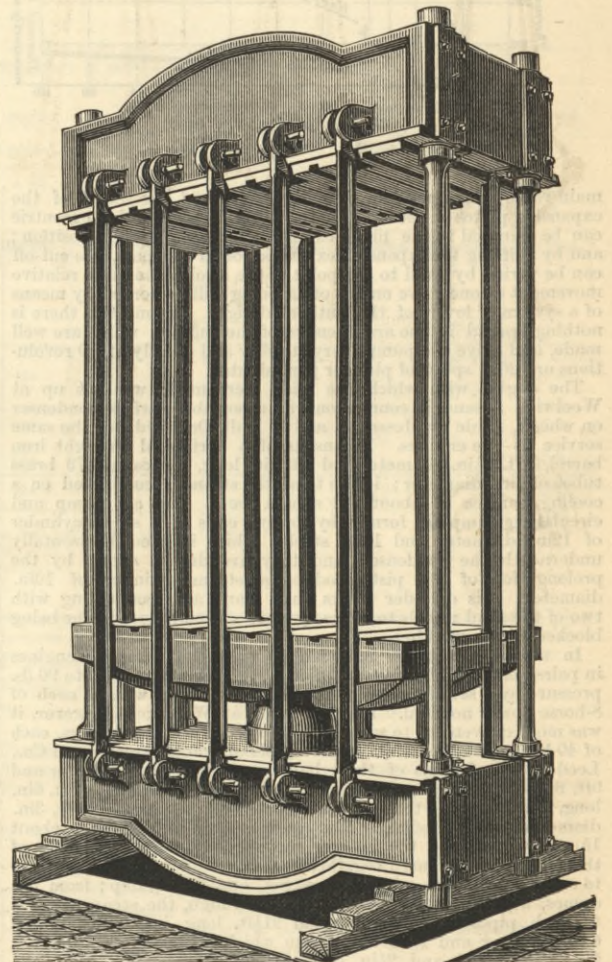


HYDRAULIC PUMP.

is capable of working one or a series of presses, or an accumulator. Speed and power were both specially aimed at in its construction, and so as to effect these purposes in the most efficient manner it is arranged as a double-throw pump, with rams of different diameters.

The press is fitted with T-iron guide bars for holding in the

bales whilst being pressed, these guard bars being so arranged as to enable the two different sizes of bales mentioned above, or, if need be, three different sizes, to be made in the one press, this arrangement being rendered necessary in this instance owing to the packers having to make up hides one portion of



BALING PRESS.

the day and rugs the other. When the bale is made, the bars at the front of the press can be removed, or swung up and down on pins as is most convenient. The press top and rising table have grooved boards fixed to them so as to allow hoops or ropes to be fixed round the bales.

EXPERIMENTS ON THE DISTRIBUTION OF HEAT IN A STATIONARY STEAM ENGINE.<sup>1</sup>

By Major THOMAS ENGLISH, R.E.

It recently became desirable to ascertain the most economical method of working some direct-acting high-pressure pumping engines, supplied for the late Egyptian expedition, and intended for use under the conditions of a very hot climate, great scarcity of water, high price of fuel, and difficulties of transport almost prohibitory for heavy weights. The scope of the trials was originally intended to embrace only the coal consumption, and whether it was advisable to use a surface condenser; but in carrying them out it became apparent that by somewhat extending the series, and by providing means for measuring the condensed water, some results of more general interest might be brought out; and the object of this paper is to detail these, and the methods adopted to obtain them.

The engines were constructed by Messrs. Tannett Walker and Co., Leeds, from their own designs, modified in some respect in consultation with the author. Each engine consists of a pair of horizontal cylinders, lagged but not jacketed, 16in. diameter by 18in. stroke; and each cylinder drives a differential pump on the prolongation of the piston-rod, with rams of 4in. and 5 1/2 in. diameter, working up to 700 lb. pressure per square inch. The piston-rods, 2 1/2 in. diameter, pass through both ends of the cylinders, and are connected by a crank-shaft which has cranks at right angles and a fly-wheel on each end, and is carried on a single framing, to which the cylinders are bolted. The strains are sufficiently self-contained for enabling the engines to be worked without any other foundation than three longitudinal timbers bolted together with distance blocks. Both cylinders are in one casting, weighing about 33 cwt., and this is the heaviest single piece. The slide-valves are on the outside, and are of the ordinary flat faced pattern; the steam ports measure 10in. by 1 1/2 in., and the exhaust port 10in. by 2 1/2 in. The outside lap is 5/16 in., the inside lap nil, the travel 3/16 in., and the angular advance of the main eccentric 28 deg. On the back of the main valve work flat expansion plates without lap, over ports in the

small locomotive, which was kept blowing off at 140 lb. pressure. The water condensed in the space between the pipes passed off by a drain-cock from the lowest point. The boilers were lagged with wood and sheet iron, except at the sides of the fire-boxes; the steam pipes were clothed throughout their lengths with strips of roofing felt. The feed pump is of the Worthington pattern, with four rams of 3 1/2 in. diameter and 6in. maximum stroke. The exhaust pipe from the main engine is 4in. diameter and 8 1/2 ft. long, and was arranged either to exhaust direct into the air, or to be connected at pleasure with the condenser by a pipe 6in. diameter and 13 1/2 ft. long. The air pump and circulating pump were driven at speeds varying from 42 to 54 revolutions per minute, and a vacuum of from 26in. to 28in. of mercury was readily maintained. From 210 to 270 gallons of circulating water passed through the condenser per minute, and the rise of temperature in the water averaged about 15° Fah. The exhaust steam from the engine driving the air and circulating pumps was condensed in a pipe 1 1/2 in. diameter and 92ft. long, with a surface of about 36 square feet, which was immersed in cold water; the resulting condensed water was collected and measured, and the quantity was found to range from 0.09 to 0.13 lb. per revolution. The exhaust from the feed pump was similarly condensed in a pipe 1in. diameter and 37ft. long, with about 10 square feet of surface; and it was found that the weight of steam required to drive the feed pump averaged 0.025 lb. per lb. of feed-water pumped. The water of condensation from the main engine passed from the air pump through a pipe 4in. diameter and 54 1/2 ft. long, at the end of which it was collected, and was transferred to a rectangular measuring tank holding 47.19 gallons, which when full was emptied into the feed tank.

The total weight of water from the main engines is thus obtained during a trial; and when divided by the number of strokes ascertained from a counter, it gives the weight of water and steam passing through the engine per stroke. It was attempted at first to ascertain the quantity of water used in the non-condensing trials, and also to check the quantity condensed in the other trials, by measuring the total feed-water supplied to the boilers during a trial, after they had been pumped up to the original level in the gauge glasses. There proved, however, to be so much difficulty in ascertaining accurately

Cotterill.<sup>2</sup> It consists in ascertaining, from the weight of water used per stroke, and from the pressure given in the calculated mean diagram at the end of the stroke or at any point after the cut-off, the volume occupied by one pound of the working mixture of steam and water in the cylinder, excluding the cushion steam. Dividing the volume thus found by the volume which would be occupied by one pound of saturated steam at the same pressure, the quotient will be the proportion of steam in the working mixture in the cylinder. The number of thermal units in this weight of steam can then be ascertained from tables of the properties of steam. The number of thermal units contained in the water making up the remainder of the working mixture can be similarly ascertained from tables. The number of thermal units converted into work from the commencement up to any point in the stroke will be that corresponding with the mean pressure from the commencement up to that point of the stroke multiplied by the volume of one pound of the working mixture at that point. These three numbers of thermal units being added together, and their sum subtracted from the total heat in an equal weight of saturated steam at the initial pressure, the difference will be the amount of heat abstracted from the steam by the metal of the cylinder and piston, less re-evaporation, and by other sources of loss up to this point in the stroke. The amount of heat corresponding with the work done in overcoming the back pressure is approximately ascertained by multiplying the average back pressure, as determined from the diagram, by the volume of one pound of the working mixture at the point of the stroke under consideration; and the amount corresponding with the effective work is obtained by deducting the heat corresponding with the back pressure from the total heat converted into work. The amount of heat which would be required per pound of steam for performing the same work in a perfect engine, working between the same limits of temperature, can be readily calculated; and if this is subtracted from the total amount of heat actually received in a pound of initial steam, the difference will give the heat wasted from all causes.

These results are shown graphically in the accompanying diagrams, Figs. 1 to 35; of these we give in Figs. 1 to 4 a typical pair.

Fig. 1 Steam-pipe Jacketed

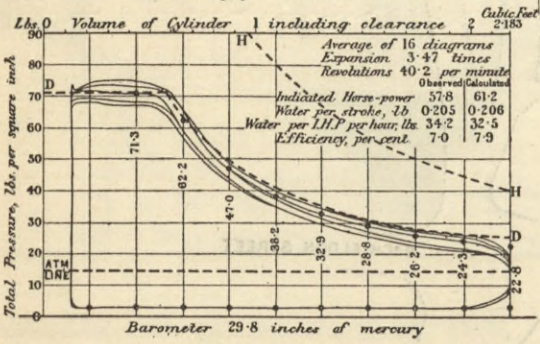


Fig 3 Steam-pipe Jacketed.

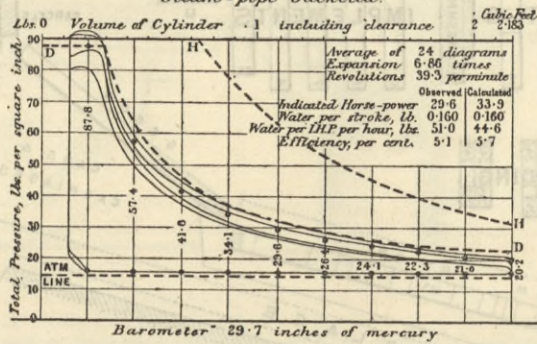
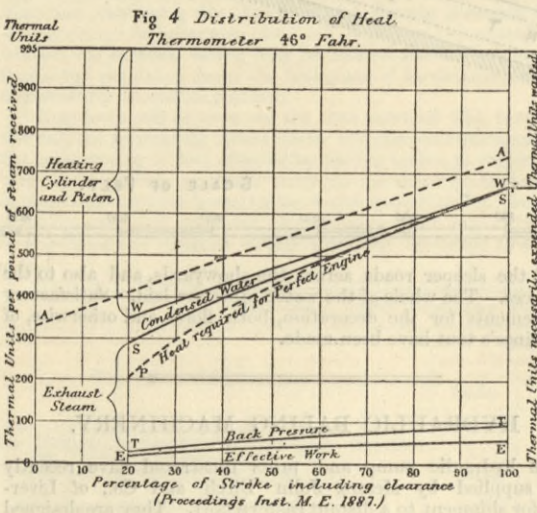
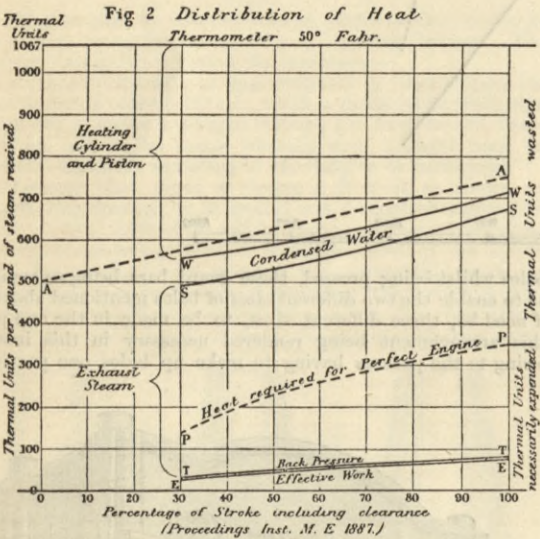
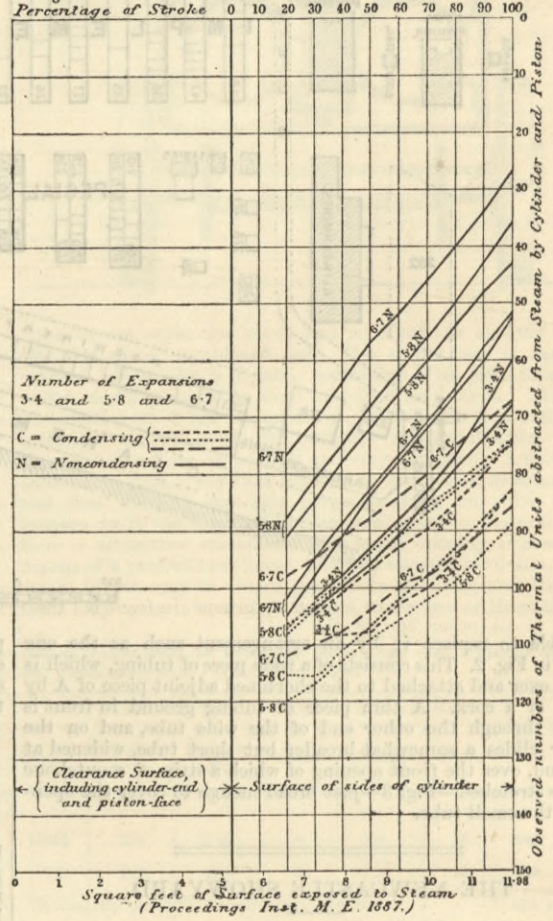


Fig 5 Initial Condensation and Re-evaporation.



main valve which measure 10in. by 1 1/2 in.; and the travel of the expansion plates on the main valve is 3/16 in. The expansion eccentric can be clamped to the main eccentric in any required position; and by shifting the expansion eccentric round the shaft, the cut-off can be varied by hand to any point of the stroke, the same relative movement of one valve on the other being still preserved by means of a system of levers of the author's design. Beyond this there is nothing special in the arrangement of the engines, which are well made, and drive the pumps very steadily and quietly at 40 revolutions or 120ft. speed of plunger per minute.

The engine with which the trials were made was set up at Woolwich Arsenal in connection with a portable surface condenser on wheels, made by Messrs. J. and E. Hall, Dartford, for the same service as the engines. It consists of a horizontal wrought iron barrel, 2ft. 3 1/2 in. diameter and 9ft. 9in. long, enclosing 379 brass tubes of 5/16 in. diameter; inside these the steam is condensed on a cooling surface of about 604 square feet. The air pump and circulating pump are formed by the two ends of a single cylinder of 12in. diameter and 14in. stroke, which is fixed horizontally underneath the condenser, and they are driven direct by the prolongation of the piston-rod of a steam cylinder of 10in. diameter; this cylinder works on a crank axle connecting with two of the road wheels to act as fly-wheels, the whole machine being blocked up for working.

In actual use it was intended to work the pumping engines in pairs, each pair being supplied with steam of 80 lb. to 90 lb. pressure by a set of twelve multitubular boilers on wheels, each of 8-horse power nominal. For the trials at Woolwich, however, it was more convenient to substitute three multitubular boilers, each of 40-horse power nominal, made by Messrs. John Fowler and Co., Leeds. The barrels of these boilers are 4ft. 1in. diameter and 9ft. 6in. long; they have copper fire-boxes, 3ft. 5in. wide by 4ft. 6in. long, and 5ft. deep to the bars, and contain 58 brass tubes, 3in. diameter and 10ft. long. The grate area in each boiler is about 15 square feet, and the heating surface 548 square feet. Two of these boilers were used together in the trials, for supplying steam to one main engine, air-pump engine, and feed pump; from the domes, which are 2ft. diameter and 3ft. high, the steam was led through pipes 3in. diameter and 2 1/2 ft. long, into a steam main 6in. diameter and 19ft. long, from which a branch 4in. diameter for 68 1/2 ft. length and 2 1/2 in. diameter for 9 1/2 ft. length led to the engine; the surface of the steam pipe was therefore about 141 square feet.

A jacket by which the boiler steam could be partially dried, or possibly slightly superheated, was fitted on the steam branch. It consisted of a 6in. pipe enclosing a length of 5 1/2 ft., or a surface of 54 square feet of the branch; the space between the two pipes could be filled at pleasure with steam supplied from the boiler of a

the amount of water in the boilers when steam was up, and so many minor discrepancies appeared in the condensing trials, in reconciling the amount thus obtained with the quantity condensed, that this method was abandoned. The exhaust steam was therefore passed through the condenser for all the trials, the air-pump suction-pipe being disconnected when it was not desired to make use of the vacuum. The non-condensing trials were therefore really condensing at atmospheric pressure; but the indicator diagrams so taken cannot practically be distinguished from ordinary non-condensing diagrams, while in the author's opinion the weights of water used are much more accurately obtained than by measuring the feed-water. Hartley coal, of about three-quarters the evaporative value of best Welsh steam coal, was used throughout the trials. The average evaporation was about 7.9 lb. of water per lb. of coal; and the rate of combustion varied from about 6.5 lb. to 12.4 lb. per square foot of grate per hour. No priming worth notice appeared at any time.

The series of trials extended altogether over fifty hours' working of the engine; but out of this total various results, representing in the aggregate twenty-eight hours' working, were rejected on account of doubtful measurements as to some point or other. The results of the remaining twenty-two hours' working are believed to be accurate, so far as the measurements and indicator diagrams are concerned, and are given without further selection. These trials are sixteen in number, in two sets, one condensing and one non-condensing, each with and without the steam pipe jacketed, and each with a cut-off at approximately one-quarter and one-eighth and one-sixteenth of the stroke successively, thus making twelve different combinations. The remaining four of the sixteen trials are repetitions of some one or other of these twelve, and were made in order to check the results, and to ascertain the probable limits of difference under varying conditions of weather and slightly varying pressures and speeds. Indicator diagrams were taken at frequent and tolerably regular intervals with a Richards' indicator having a spring of 30 lb. to the inch; the spring was tested by the makers at the conclusion of the trials, and was found to be correct. Six of the trials lasted two hours each, and the remaining ten were one hour each. The number of indicator diagrams taken in any one trial varied from eight to twenty-four, and it was found that, including the shifting of the indicator from either end of the cylinder to the other, one diagram could be taken about every five minutes. The calculated mean of the measured ordinates in each indicator diagram, at every tenth of the stroke including clearance, was taken as the basis of calculation for determining the distribution of heat. The clearance is 7 per cent. of the volume described by the piston; and the real number of expansions corresponding with the nominal cut-off at one-fourth and one-eighth and one-sixteenth of the stroke averaged 3.4 and 5.8 and 6.7 respectively. The method of calculation is based on one described by Professor

In the indicator diagrams the lengths of the average ordinates, measured between the zero line and the small circles in the upper curves and also marked in figures, show the pressures taken for calculation; and some of the original indicator diagrams are drawn in, from which these average ordinates were obtained. To avoid confusion only the two extreme indicator diagrams are shown, with a few of the intermediate ones. The abscissae represent the volumes, including clearance, from the beginning to the end of the stroke, in both the upper and the lower diagrams on each figure. In the lower diagram on each figure, the total height represents the number of thermal units which are contained in 1 lb. of steam at the initial pressure, in excess of the number contained in 1 lb. of water at the temperature corresponding with the back pressure—this latter being the final state in which it may be conceived that each pound of the working mixture is recovered after use, and is returned to the boiler.

The number of thermal units which have been converted into effective work at any point in the stroke, being plotted as ordinates from the base line, give the lowest curved line EE in the diagram. Adding to these the number of thermal units corresponding with the back pressure gives the curve TT of total work performed by one pound of steam. The number of thermal units contained in the weights of steam and condensed water respectively, which together make up one pound of the working mixture, in excess of the number of units contained in the same weights of water at a temperature corresponding with the back pressure, are then successively plotted as ordinates upwards from the curve of total work. By joining the summits of these ordinates, the two highest lines SS and WW on the diagram are formed; and at any point of the stroke the remaining height from the uppermost of these lines WW, up to the top horizontal line which represents the number of thermal units supplied in one pound of steam, will show the amount of heat abstracted by condensation on the surfaces of the cylinder and piston, and by other sources of loss. This amount is gradually diminished by re-evaporation between the cut-off and the end of the stroke, the diminution being nearly in proportion to the increase of volume.

The dotted curve PP on the diagram represents the amount of heat theoretically necessary, or that which would be required per pound of steam in a perfect engine, to perform the total work shown by the curve TT; and therefore the vertical distance between any point in this curve PP, and the top horizontal line representing the number of thermal units supplied at the commencement of the stroke, will give the heat wasted from all causes. The ratio of efficiency, given in figures on each indicator diagram, is obtained by dividing the number of thermal units corresponding with the effective work by the number supplied at the commence-

<sup>1</sup> Institution of Mechanical Engineers.

<sup>2</sup> See "The Steam Engine Considered as a Heat Engine," by James H. Cotterill, 1878, pages 281-2.





ment of the stroke. If the steam supplied is mixed with water carried over by priming, or condensed in the steam pipes, there will be no alteration in the curves representing the distribution of heat, so far as the author can see; for these depend solely on the amount of water mixed with the steam at the end of the admission; and whether this water is derived from condensation during admission, or originally enters the cylinder in the liquid state, will not affect the result.

pound weight of steam. The palpable convergence of all these curves to the zero of exposed surface at about 150 thermal units agrees closely with the hypothesis that there is a sudden initial condensation of the entering steam, equivalent, in all the trials with this engine, to the transference of about 150 thermal units, or 28.6 thermal units per square foot of exposed clearance surface, to the surface metal of the steam passages, cylinder, and piston; and that this heat is gradually given back again to the steam during the stroke, by the excess of re-evaporation over further condensation in the cylinder. The heat thus regained by the steam increases approximately in direct proportion to the surface exposed; but still leaves in the metal, at the end of the stroke in this engine, an amount of heat equivalent to 0.4 thermal unit for each degree of difference between the temperatures corresponding with the initial and back pressures.

The adoption of this hypothesis renders it possible to calculate the weight of water required per stroke, and also at any point of the stroke the quantity of heat abstracted by the metal per pound weight of steam supplied. This calculated quantity of heat abstracted is shown by the dotted line AA on the lower diagram for each of the sixteen trials, see p. 16, in comparison with the observed amount shown by the uppermost full line WW. It also becomes possible, by a reversal of the process detailed in the

TABLE I.—Calculated Efficiency of Engine and Consumption of Water with two different Points of Cut-off and with varying Lengths of Stroke.

Table with 10 columns: Diameter of cylinder, Clearance surface, Length of stroke, Number of expansions, Percentage of efficiency, Water consumed per I.H.P. per hour, and three columns for Point of cut-off (1.4in, 4.25in) with Absolute pressures.

APPENDIX.

The following are the details of the calculation for determining the distribution of heat at 80 per cent. of the stroke including clearance, in the trial of 18th November, 1886, condensing,

TABLE II.—Results of Trials.

Table with 13 columns: Horse-power, speed, and water consumption (1-4); Cylinder pressures: Initial, terminal, mean forward, and mean back (5-8); Condensing/Non-condensing; Steam pipe jacketed/Not jacketed.

TABLE II. (continued).

Table with 15 columns: Work done per lb. of steam supplied (9-11); Heat lost and heat supplied per pound of steam (12-15); Condensing/Non-condensing; Steam pipe jacketed/Not jacketed.

\* The figures in group 9 are severally the sum of the corresponding figures given in the two succeeding groups 10 and 11.
† The figures in group 15 are severally the sum of the corresponding figures given in the four preceding groups, 9, 12, 13, 14.

TABLE II. (continued).

Table with 19 columns: Volumes of steam, Condensation in cylinder (16-18); Efficiency of actual engine: Absolute and relative (19-21); Condensing/Non-condensing; Steam pipe jacketed/Not jacketed.

\* The figures in group 18 are severally the percentage of difference between the corresponding figures given in the two preceding groups 16 and 17.
† The figures in group 20 are severally the quotient resulting from the division of those in group 10 by those in group 15.
‡ The figures in group 21 are severally the quotient resulting from the division of those in group 10 by those in group 19.

to the heat supplied, is approximately, but not by any means exactly, in inverse proportion to the weight of water consumed per indicated horse-power per hour. The difference depends principally on the varying limits of temperature between which the engine is worked and the consequently varying amount of heat supplied per pound of steam.

In the appendix are shown the detailed figures worked out for determining in one of the trials the heat distribution at 80 per cent. of the stroke. The calculations required at any other point are precisely similar to these. In Table 2 are collected the results of the whole series of trials, worked out for the termination of the stroke. In the somewhat laborious calculations involved in obtaining these results, the author has received much valuable assistance from Captain Willock, R. E.

A comparison of the whole of the observed results is shown in the diagram, Fig. 5, in which the abscissa represents square feet of surface exposed to the steam throughout the stroke by the steam passage, cylinder, and piston; the clearance surface measures 5.24 square feet at the commencement, and the total surface 11.98 square feet at the end of the stroke. Ordinates measured downwards from the top of the diagram represent the number of thermal units abstracted from the enclosed steam at any point; and the curves shown are plotted from such ordinates, obtained for each point of the stroke by multiplying the observed weight of steam and water in the cylinder in each case by the number of thermal units already ascertained to have been abstracted from one

appendix, to calculate approximately the indicator diagrams resulting from the assumed distribution of heat; and these are shown in each case by the dotted lines DD, Figs. 1 and 3, for comparison with the actual diagrams drawn by the engine. The corresponding calculated horse-power, weight of water per stroke, weight of water per horse-power per hour at the observed number of revolutions, and the calculated ratio of efficiency, are marked in figures on the indicator diagrams. The dotted curve HH on each diagram shows the hyperbolic expansion curve corresponding with the observed weight of saturated steam per stroke.

The conclusions drawn by the author are:—that, in order to obtain the best results for any given range of temperature, there should be a definite relation between the surface of the steam passages, the diameter of the cylinder, and the length of stroke; and that in the design of a steam engine the adjustment of these proportions is perhaps the most important point to be considered as regards economy. The following Table I shows, for two different points of cut-off, the calculated results of varying the length of stroke of the engine which was experimented on, while the diameter of the cylinder, the absolute clearance volume, and the clearance surface exposed, remain unaltered; and it will be seen that the same number of expansions may give widely different results as regards the ratio of efficiency and the water consumed per indicated horse-power per hour; and also that, with the same length of stroke, these results are but slightly affected by doubling the number of expansions.

cutting-off at one-sixteenth of the stroke, and with the steam pipe jacketed.

- Total water used during trial, 1623 lb.
Number of revolutions during trial, 2455.
W = water per stroke = 1623 / 4 = 405.75 lb.
Clearance, 7 per cent. of stroke.
Average point of compression, 96.68 per cent. of return stroke.
Mean absolute pressure at commencement of compression = 2.32 lb. per square inch.
pc = mean absolute cushion-pressure at commencement of stroke = 2.32 x (3.32 + 7) / 7 = 3.4 lb. per square inch.
p1 = initial pressure = 87.4 lb. per square inch.
pb = back pressure = 2.7 lb. per square inch.
p2 = terminal pressure at 80 per cent. of stroke including clearance = 19.3 lb. per square inch.
pm = mean pressure from commencement to 80 per cent. of stroke including clearance = 39.5 lb. per square inch.
Total volume to end of stroke including clearance = 2.183 cubic feet.
Total volume swept through from commencement to end of stroke = 2.040 cubic feet.
Total clearance volume = 2.183 - 2.040 = 0.143 cubic foot.











