

MODERN MILLING.—ITS BIRTH AND DEVELOPMENT.

By GILBERT LITTLE.  
I.—THE BIRTH.

MACAULAY, in his review of Hallam's history, refers to the custom, universally followed by writers of the last century, of amalgamating the history and science of their subject. In our day these two ingredients have to a large extent been separated with the best results, and our readers will understand the reasons that have induced us to refrain from mixing the ancient history with the modern philosophy of milling. In this series of articles we shall deal with "Modern Milling: Its Birth and Development," and the time where our record begins is the still recent date, 1869, when Messrs. W. Baker and Sons, of Bristol; Mr. Stannard, of Nayland, Suffolk; Mr. Allen, of Middleton, Cork; Messrs. Radford, of Liverpool; Messrs. Hays and Messrs. Muir, of Glasgow; and Mr. James Wood, of the North Shore Mills, Liverpool, attempted the Hungarian or "semolina system."

It will serve no good purpose to refer to the early failures in detail, or to rake up the ashes of the dead-and-gone objections that were urged against the new system, as the subsequent revolution has only confirmed the great lesson which the history of all changes in the arts and sciences teach, viz., that the agitation in favour of any new departure in an industry lives, and is formidable only by virtue of what is reasonable in its demands. This has been very clearly exemplified in the development of gradual reduction milling, as it was the few who advocated that there was no middle course between "sudden-death" milling, and the six or seven break method, the men who rushed to the complete change with scant consideration for the majesty of custom, who have reaped the fortunes made during the great "boom" in milling. It was not necessary that our modern milling engineers should possess that proud patience which the gods are said to love, by reason of which many great inventors have lived down misappreciation, as the change was so sudden that there was not the slightest chance of any display of that hard, uphill, unrewarded struggle against deeply-rooted beliefs in the efficiency of methods that have so long obtained. The only delay arose from the tardiness of the British milling engineers to give fitting embodiment to the ideas of the progressive millers, and it is known that many improvements were birth-strangled through the crude machinery, and nearly all the early machines were imported from Germany and America. As stated in the "Jubilee" article in THE ENGINEER of June 24th, engineers have made very few discoveries. The carrying out of original research is not their duty. The milling engineers also left that to the philosophic millers, and the McDougalls, the Bakers, the Muirs, and other scientific millers having discovered here a fact and there a fact, the milling engineers combined them, and produced results of the most far-reaching nature; and think of it as we may, the highest form of engineering genius is that power of combining factors or forces that fit each other and give birth to something greater. It may be as well to describe here the different phases peculiar to the inception of the gradual reduction system in this country and in America.

In this country the reducing or break rolls led to the introduction of purifiers, in America the purifiers were the forerunners of the rolls. In order that this point may be made perfectly clear to engineers not versed in the details of milling, we shall give a succinct description of the great underlying points of the old and the new systems. Prior to 1869, that is, before the introduction of any of the modern machinery, the ingenuity and skill of all millers were devoted to attempts to reduce the entire kernel of the wheat berry into flour, without the production of any semolina or middlings. Every improvement tried on the millstones—their speed, their dress, and their general handling—had this one object only in view. Middlings, of which it is now the aim of all millers to make the largest portion possible, were regarded as a product that might make an inferior flour; and the best milling was believed to be the system that made the least quantity of middlings and the greatest amount of flour at one operation. In the modern system the central idea is to produce the largest quantity of middlings and the smallest portion of "break" flour. In the old system about 93 per cent. of the kernel was instantly ground into flour, and about 7 per cent. of middlings; in the new system this

is just reversed, and it is considered a highly organised mill which makes 90 per cent. of semolina and middlings and only 10 per cent. of flour in the reductions. In America the purifier was invented to deal with the 10 per cent. of middlings which the miller could not but produce, however close he might grind with his millstones, and the handling of this despised product on purifiers developed an entirely new principle in milling. The American sieve and air purifier not only made this product more valuable, as the miller expected, as a cattle food, but more valuable than the highest grade of flour he formerly made. As this idea was forced home on the miller, the necessity of producing a larger portion of middlings was apparent, and high-grinding with millstones was tried. Before the development of the purifier the millstones were grinding about twenty bushels an hour, after they were fed to turn out only seven or eight bushels, and all with a view to make more middlings. The best form of millstone, however, could only make a very small percentage of middlings, and as the grinding became higher and higher, a kind of gradual reduction was tried

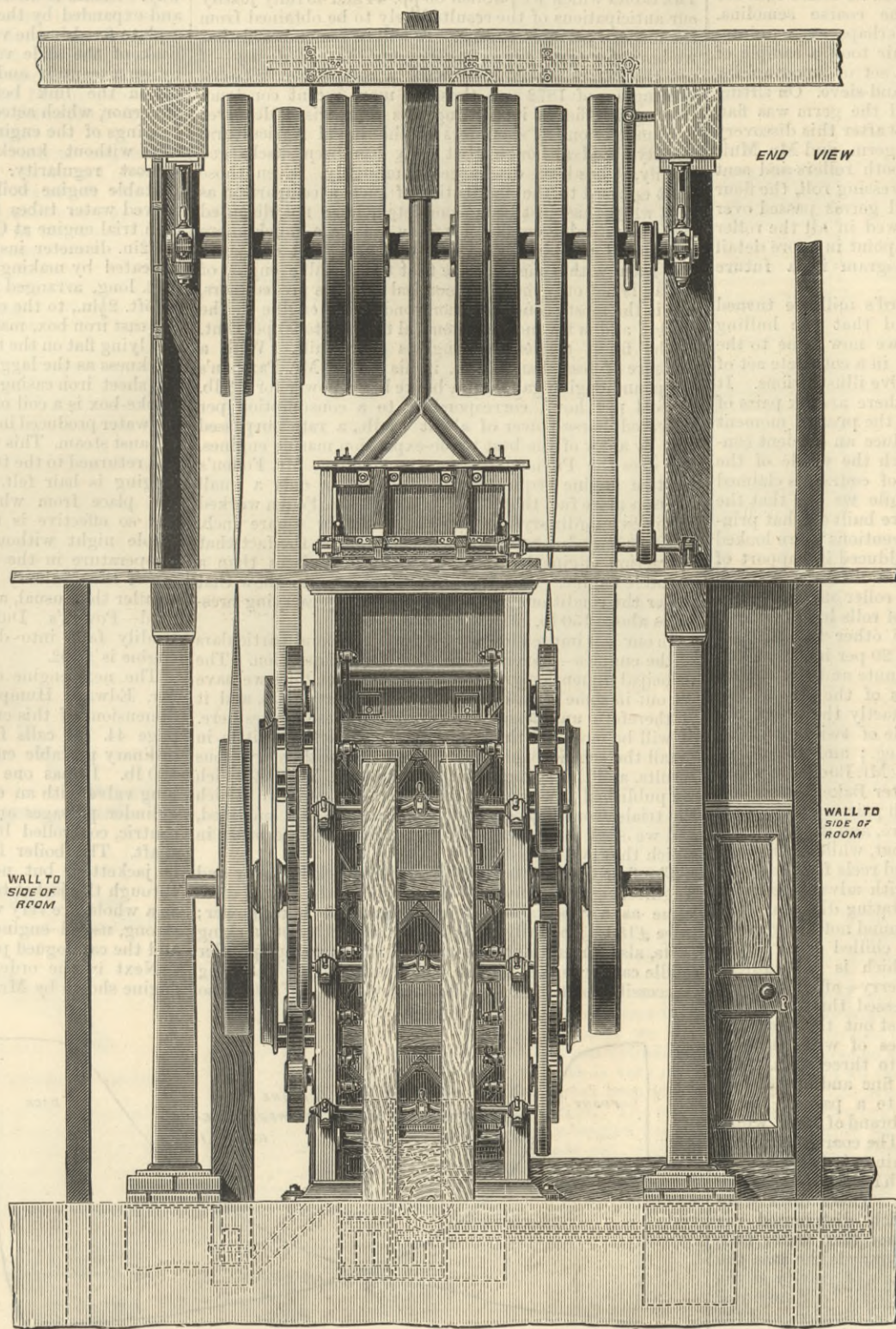
To make the early efforts at semolina milling clear to the readers of THE ENGINEER, we shall proceed to describe the mill of Mr. J. Stannard, of Nayland, Suffolk, erected in 1869 and 1871. Between 1869 and 1871, Messrs. Baker and Sons, of Bristol, Mr. Allen, of Middleton, and Messrs. Radford, of Liverpool, had all attempted the semolina system, under the superintendence of the father of British milling, Mr. J. A. Buchholz, but none of the above-mentioned firms had as complete systems as Mr. Stannard—hence our desire to explain his alterations. Writing to the author on December 14th, 1886, Mr. Stannard says:—"I replaced nearly all the machinery in my mill at a heavy outlay of money and time, but owing to various causes I substantially returned to the old system. In the first place, while we had rolls there were no purifiers, and the other machines that now render the gradual reduction system a success, and not an English operative miller, who understood what was required, and too many of them did not desire to be informed, as no doubt the new system appeared only a means of bringing on them more trouble."

Another drawback which seriously interfered with the success of the early attempts at gradual reduction milling was the failing to observe that smooth roller mills were indispensable to the successful treatment of semolina after it had been made by the fluted rolls. In some of the best English and American mills a pair or two of millstones are still retained to treat the pure semolina, but they are only suited for this part of the process, and certainly do not make a better flour than can be done by smooth chilled iron rolls, while in the treatment of the second and inferior quality of middlings the rolls are infinitely to be preferred. This part will be fully dealt with in a later article; meantime, we continue our description of the points in Mr. Stannard's mill as erected by Mr. Buchholz.

In 1869 one of the Buchholz hullers was constructed by Messrs. Murgatroyd, of Stockport, and is still to be seen in the mill at Nayland; this huller contained 10,850 steel blades with a special kind of cardboard between them. The blades on the outer segments were set to face those on the inside revolving drum. After some experience Mr. Stannard removed the segments and replaced them with wire, which enabled him to pass double the quantity of wheat through it with less than half the power, and a much better class of work was done so far as making a larger proportion of the best description of middlings, but it failed to liberate and remove the germ so efficiently, while the bran was not so clean. For a time it was thought that the future of improved milling lay in the direction of hulling and decorticating machines, but experience demonstrated that while a certain portion of the excellent semolina could be made, the severe action of these devices in comminuting the bran and triturating the remaining portion of the berry into "dead" flour led to their rejection. The next machines were the disc mills and dismembrators, which were a cross-breed between rolls and millstones, but they also failed from defects similar to those developed in the hulling machines. It is well-known that the dismembrators produced a large proportion of the very highest quality of large semolina, which when ground

by smooth roller mills made a grade of patent flour that has never been excelled; but the remaining portion of the berry was almost pulped, and the resultant flour was so dead that it could not be sold, and dismembrators had also to be abandoned.

Any reference to the birth of modern milling would be incomplete without some notice of the graduated system erected by Messrs. Muir and Sons, at the Tradeston Mills, Glasgow. The experimenting with this system led to the patent—No. 2560, July 17th, 1875—taken out by Mr. Thomas Muir, for the extraction of the germ. This patent was the subject of a recent interesting patent suit, to which special attention was drawn in THE ENGINEER of November 26th, 1886. This mill was worked on the "combination" system, that is, a mixture of rolls and millstones, and the *modus operandi* was as follows. There were seventeen pairs of millstones for the graduated breaking of the wheat, the speed of which varied from 100 to 150. Over sixty sets of steel roller mills were used to reduce the semolina into flour, and the mills were altogether the best equipped in Great Britain at that time. The system would not be able to hold its own against the complete roller systems of the present day, although 74 per cent. of flour was made from American



MULTIPLE ROLLER BREAK MILL, MADE BY MR. J. A. BUCHOLZ IN 1871.

on millstones; and mills which formerly contained only millstones for reducing the wheat in one operation, had bran cleaners, middlings stones, and two or three pairs for treating the tailings. Following each pair were dressing reels, and at this stage the limit of the production of middlings by millstones was reached. The rigid spindle millstone, with its grinding surfaces, at a fixed and controllable distance apart, was the last step previous to the roller system; the rolls were the necessary outcome of this idea, and thus we see how the purifier in America was the prelude to the gradual "break" system by corrugated rolls. In England, on the other hand, the attempt was made to make middlings by means of rolls, before the purifier had been invented to make the necessary separations. Scattered throughout the kernel of the wheat berry are impure particles which it is essential to remove, and practice has shown that it is only the purifier that can remove those impurities. While there is a very general impression that improved milling was brought from America to this country, there is no doubt rolls and semolina milling were practised here prior to their adoption in America; but it was not until the introduction of the American purifier that the new system became a commercial success.

wheats, and the entire mill was completely automatic. As the germ defence case excited a great deal of attention, it may be of some interest if we describe Mr. Muir's system. Writing to the author on 17th February last, Mr. Muir states that his alterations were made at a very large expenditure of time and money, and his patents were rendered valueless through what THE ENGINEER described at the time as a "little snake-in-the-grass point of law," and Mr. Muir lost his rights, not through the demerits of his invention, but through want of knowledge of every point in the Patent Law. After a long series of experiments Mr. Muir discovered that when wheat grains are cracked and broken up, the germs are for the most part mixed with the large semolina. Under the old millstone system the germ was ground up with the other parts of the kernel, and its oily nature had the effect of discolouring the flour and the bread baked from it. The problem was, how to eliminate the germ; and Mr. Muir discovered a method almost by accident. In the process of reducing the fine semolina and coarse semolina Mr. Muir had observed that the flour from the latter was a much darker colour than that made from the former, and after a minute examination he found that the germs largely predominated in the coarse semolina. Without expecting any result, or perhaps even uninterested in what he was doing, Mr. Muir took a sample of this product and passed it through a set of smooth rolls, catching the crushed material in a hand-sieve. On sifting the crushed semolina Mr. Muir found the germ was flat, and was retained in the sieve. It was after this discovery an easy matter to extract the entire germ, and Mr. Muir passed all his semolina through smooth rollers and sent the crushed product to an ordinary dressing roll, the flour being dressed out while the flattened germs passed over the tail. This method is still followed in all the roller systems, and we shall describe the point in more detail and illustrate the process by a diagram in a future article.

In our progress with Mr. Stannard's mill we turned aside at the point where he found that the hulling machinery would not answer, and we now come to the time—1871—when he decided to put in a complete set of Buchholz break rolls, of which we give illustrations. It will be seen from our views that there are six pairs of rollers in one frame. In America at the present moment there are efforts being made to produce an efficient concentrated break roller mill, in which the whole of the rolls are fitted into one frame; this, of course, is claimed as a purely novel American idea, while we see that the first set of rolls made in England were built on that principle, and the more American "inventions" are looked into the stronger evidence can be adduced in support of the fact that many of them are old and discarded English methods. In the first English-made roller mill—as illustrated on pp. 41, 47—the upper pair of rolls had V-shaped flutes, about 9 per inch, while all the other five pairs of rolls had straight flutes, from 12 to 20 per inch; and all the top rolls were run at 360 per minute and the bottom ones at 120 per minute. In the rolls of the present day the number of flutes per inch are exactly the same, but V-shaped flutes are used at an angle of twist on a 30in. long by 10in diameter, of about 10 deg.; and the differential speed is also the same as tried by Mr. Buchholz, which shows how near he was, as Mr. Procter Baker remarked, "to hitting a big thing." Under each pair of rolls a sieve was fitted, all covered with No. 16 wire, and it is only fair to Mr. Buchholz to put it on record that, while the milling engineers who succeed him all adopted reels for the scalping process, they have gone back with advantage to his original system of using sieves or rotating dicekeys. The rolls were made of steel, which was found not a very suitable material for grooved rolls, and chilled iron is now universally used. The "chop"—which is the miller's term for the liberated kernel of the berry—after it passed through the scalping sieves was dressed through a long rell with a head sheet of silk to dust out the flour and three tail sheets of different meshes of wire, through which the semolina was divided into three sizes. The first division of semolina was very fine and almost free from germ, and was spouted direct to a pair of stones which reduced it to a really excellent brand of flour, which sold on Mark-lane at a high price. The coarser semolina was treated on three centrifugal machines, in the centre of which were discs 10in. diameter which revolved inside the centrifugal rell at a very high speed. These discs were formed of small steel blades, which distributed the semolina very much after the manner that water falls from a fountain, only more inclined towards the axis, the light fluffy portion dropping by the law of gravity at the centre—on the same principle as the "eclectic" disintegrator—the next heavier falling into a second division, and the coarsest of all being thrown by the centrifugal force into the outer chamber at the circumference. This principle has been widely adopted in modern purifiers (and is now being largely adopted for separating cement, basic slag, ores, chemicals, &c., the author himself having recently taken out a couple of patents for apparatus pneumatically to sift these materials) and in every part of the first attempt by Mr. Buchholz can be seen the germ idea of nearly every good feature in the perfected system of gradual reduction milling. Witness his break system on six pair of rolls, his scalping of each break on a separate sieve, the dusting and sizing of the "chop" on a long circular reel, and there is no room left for a doubt that he introduced into this country a complete system of break rolls and a no less complete system of dusting and separating the breaks. The weak part of roller milling at this early stage was the treating of the semolina on the "sudden-death" principle and the lack of good middlings purifiers. Mr. Buchholz evidently clearly grasped the principle of gradual reduction of middlings and semolina, as well as the graduated breaking of the wheat, as he tried to deal with the former on four different pairs of millstones, the speed of which he reduced to seventy-five per minute. The semolina, however, after the first reduction on the stones was not suited for further treatment by the same severe rubbing

system, and the result was that without the intermediate purifications between the reductions and the want of smooth rolls, the product, germ, specs, and all the internal impurities, were pulverised into flour by the millstones, and a very dark grade of baker's and household flour was made. In a future description of one of the best and most recent mills we shall show how the separation of all the impurities is effected, according to difference of structure; meantime we wish our non-milling readers to grasp the idea that modern milling is a process of gradual reduction and gradual purification; and the best "break" system is that which makes the largest portion of middlings and semolina, the least "break" flour, and the cleanest and broadest bran; and the best system of gradual reduction of the middlings and semolina is that which reduces these products, and at the same time comminutes the smallest portion of their inherent impurities.

#### THE ENGINE TRIALS AT NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE.

The tables which we publish on pp. 44 and 45 fully justify our anticipations of the results likely to be obtained from the modern portable engine. It will be remembered that we have, for many years, insisted on the expediency—if not the necessity—of instituting a comparison between the engines of 1872 and those of more recent construction. The office of instituting this comparison, devolves legitimately on the shoulders of the Royal Agricultural Society; and although that duty has been discharged tardily, it has been discharged thoroughly. Even those most opposed to the institution of such a comparison as that which has just been completed, have not disputed that the portable engine of to-day can be a much more economical machine than that of 1872. But engineers will learn with some surprise that the portable engine of to-day is not only more economical than its predecessors, but is the most economical non-condensing engine in the world; and is far more economical than quite 90 per cent. of the finest condensing engines ever built. With a pressure of less than 150 lb. in his boiler Mr. Paxman's compound engine gave out a brake horse-power for 1.8 lb. of coal per hour, corresponding to a consumption per indicated horse-power of about 1.6 lb., a rate surpassed only by a few of the best triple-expansion marine engines. Nor does the Paxman engine stand alone; Mr. Foden's traction engine required, it will be seen, only a small fraction more fuel than Mr. Paxman's. Mr. Foden worked at the extraordinary pressure of 250 lb. per square inch. The economy due to this may be set against the fact that a traction engine has larger radiating surfaces than a portable engine. The figures, however, go to show that under the conditions nothing is gained by carrying pressures above 150 lb.

In our last impression we gave a few general particulars of the engines—eleven in all—sent for competition. The principal dimensions of the competitive engines we have set out in some detail in the table of particulars, and it is therefore unnecessary to reproduce these figures here. It will be more to the purpose if we describe a little in detail the engines which have produced such marvellous results, and the system of trial adopted. The list which we published last week, setting forth the order in which the trials would take place, was subsequently modified, and we shall now speak of the engines in the order in which they were tried.

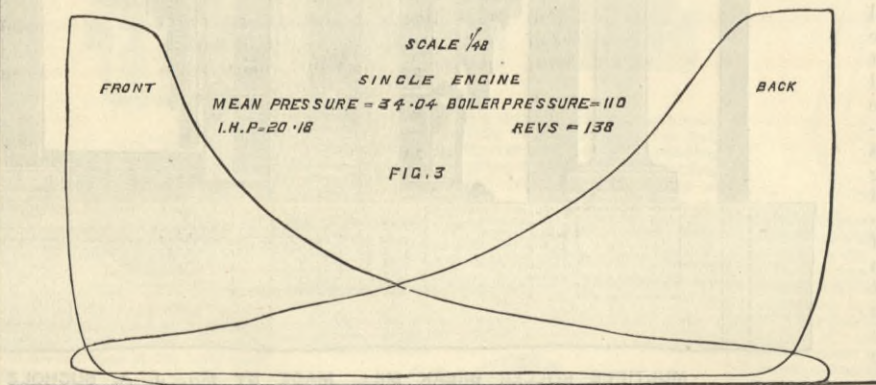
The first tested was that of the Alnwick Foundry and Engineering Company, and described in the official catalogue as a "portable engine, 8 nominal horse-power; price £180. Specially designed for simplicity of working parts, also for an improved method of attaching cylinder saddle carriages, &c., to the boiler, so as to avoid having inaccessible bolts through the boiler shell." We have no

the work professed to be done. It has a simple slide valve and one eccentric. We need not go into any details. Even twenty-five years ago the engine would not have been regarded as economical. The Alnwick Foundry Company, if it wishes to go into the portable engine trade, must produce something entirely different from this its first venture. We know that the price is small, and it is quite possible that the machine is good value for the money; but this will not do in the present day. The foreign purchaser not only expects a good deal for his money, but is willing to pay a good deal of money for what suits him, and this must not be forgotten.

The "simple" engine sent for competition by Messrs. Davey, Paxman, and Co., of Colchester, is in nearly all respects an ordinary portable engine. The cylinder is carried in the usual way on the fire-box; the boiler is of the locomotive type, with raised fire-box, and of Siemens' steel, machine rivetted; the cylinder is jacketted all over, including covers; the jacket being formed by putting a hard cast iron liner into the outer casting; the jacket is carefully drained back into the boiler. The crank-shaft is carried in a cast iron saddle in the usual way. Steam is distributed by a single Trick slide-valve, and expanded by the aid of a gridiron valve working on a plate fixed in the valve chest, as close as possible to the back of the slide valve. The gridiron valve is worked by an eccentric and link motion, the position of the die in the link being determined by the high-speed governor, which acted to perfection during the trial. The bearings of the engine were not too slack, and the engine ran without knock, maintaining its speed with the utmost regularity. The boiler differs from ordinary portable engine boilers, in that it has eight Paxman curved water tubes fitted in the fire-box—as in the Paxman trial engine at Cardiff—and that the steel flue tubes are 2in. diameter instead of 2½in. or 3in. The feed-water is heated by making it traverse a lin. copper pipe about 42ft. long, arranged in four "coils," each of two lengths of 5ft. 2½in., to the centre of the bend. The coils lie in a flat cast iron box, making an extension of the exhaust pipe and lying flat on the top of the boiler. The box is the same thickness as the lagging into which it is set, so that when the sheet iron casing is put on it cannot be seen. In the smoke-box is a coil of copper tube, through which passes the water produced in the heater by the condensation of the exhaust steam. This water is heated up in the smoke-box, and returned to the tub, from which the pump sucks. The lagging is hair felt, wood, and sheet iron. Every thing and place from which heat might escape is covered, and so effective is the protection that after standing a whole night without fire the boiler still retained a temperature in the morning of 190 deg. The fire bars are of the ordinary cast iron type, the air spaces being smaller than usual, a necessary precaution with the coal used—Powell's Duffryn—which is very friable, and readily falls into dust. The catalogued price of this engine is £202.

The next engine on our list is a "simple" engine by Mr. Edward Humphries, Atlas Works, Pershore. The dimensions of this engine will be found in the table on page 44. It calls for no special description, being an ordinary portable engine, with a boiler made to work at 100 lb. It has one double slide valve, that is to say, a long valve with an exhaust port at each end, so that the cylinder passages are very short, driven by a single eccentric, controlled by a Hartnell governor on the crank shaft. The boiler has thirty 2½in. tubes. The cylinder is jacketted, but not the covers. The steam passes through the jacket to the cylinder. The engine and boiler as a whole, are very well made and of good proportions—a strong, useful engine. The working pressure is 100 lb., and the catalogued price is £190.

Next in the order of actual competition comes the engine shown by Mr. Cooper, of Ryburgh, Norfolk. This engine was built for Mr. Cooper by Messrs. Richard Garrett and Sons, of Leiston, but wholly from the designs and under the direction of Mr. Cooper, who has departed widely from the dimensions invariably adopted by the firm for compound cylinders. It goes without saying that the engine is thoroughly well made. It ran very well and without hitch of any kind, but the governors required adjustment, and did not maintain regularity of speed. It will be seen from our table that it did a very fair duty on the brake. As the machine is of very peculiar



DIAGRAMS FROM DAVEY, PAXMAN, AND CO.'S SIMPLE ENGINE.

desire to say hard things of any exhibit or exhibitor, but we must speak the truth, and the truth of this engine is that the firm has still everything to learn concerning the construction of a portable engine sent to compete for a prize. This particular engine is the first built by the firm, and no doubt the experience obtained in the trial shed will bear good fruit in succeeding engines. We may perhaps do some service to a section of our readers, if we make it clear to them that the day is gone past when "anything would do" for a portable engine. The English trade in portable engines is nearly dead, and the competition for the foreign trade is so keen, and agents are so independent, that nothing whatever is to be done, save in a very small and precarious way, with second or third-rate engines. If engineers wish to go into the portable engine trade, they must be prepared to supply something very good indeed. If they are not, then let them keep away from portable engines. That shown by the Alnwick Company closely resembles what used to be common enough twenty-five years ago in country farmyards. It has a single cylinder, 8½in. diameter by 12in. stroke, and the crank shaft is certainly not too strong for

construction, we may here describe it at some length. This engine has been specially designed for the general work of a farm, and the aim has been to produce an engine that will move itself and a moderate load, and yet is nearly as simple and easy to drive and more convenient to get about than a common portable engine. Care has been taken to dispense with all superfluous weight, and the introduction of some novel features has contributed to the result obtained. It is an 8 horse-power compound engine, weighing only 5 tons 18 cwt. empty, and is only 6ft. wide over the hind road wheels, the latter being 4ft. 8in. by 16in. The front wheels are made to turn under the boiler, so that the engine will turn round in its own length. One of the novel features is the driving gear for the road motion. Instead of the train of spur gear and counter shafts now generally used, the power is communicated direct from the crank shaft to the axle of the hind road wheels by means of a steel chain, which is composed of a large number of thin links, of the form of the early Green's lawn mower; it is almost noiseless in working, and although so light it will stand a strain of 7 tons; but when the engine is giving off 18 brake horse-

power there is a pull of only 24½ cwt. on it, and as it is protected from dust and well lubricated, it will last a long time. Special provision has been made of automatic apparatus for taking up any slack, and that in such a manner that the pulling side of the chain is always straight, whether the engine is running backwards or forwards. Two deflecting rollers are used on the outsides of the chain. They are carried by light bars, which are pivoted underneath the crank shaft, and these bars are coupled near to the rollers by an adjusting screw, to put the requisite amount of pressure on to take up the slack; and as they can swing on the pivot, they accommodate themselves to the chain, the pulling side of which is always straight. In the width of the chain there are twenty-six links. The gearing is proportioned for the crank to run about 270 revolutions per minute when the road wheels are travelling four miles an hour. There is no "slow" speed as generally understood, but its equivalent is provided in a very simple manner by admitting steam direct from the boiler to the low-pressure cylinder. This is done by the starting valve, which is arranged in such a manner that when the lever is in central position the valve is closed; if lever is pushed forward engine works compound, but if lever is pulled backward both cylinders work high pressure, and give off sufficient power to lift the entire weight of the engine. The reversing gear is of a very simple nature; but as we understand this and some other points are subject to some foreign patent not yet completed, we defer a detailed description for the present. The catalogued price is £325.

The fifth competitor is a small vertical engine and boiler, mounted on high, light, iron wheels, and made by Messrs. Jeffery and Blackstone, of Stamford. It is intended for working small thrashing machines, corn mills, &c. The vertical cylinder is fixed at the back of the boiler, and the crank shaft above, near the top. The whole is carried on a well designed wrought iron frame bolted to the boiler. The machine is very rigid, and the bearings are large. There is a good governor, of the ordinary centrifugal type. The boiler has vertical tubes. The finish of the whole machine is good, and during the run on the brake it worked very steadily and well. By the addition of a second or cut-off slide and lagging the boiler, the economy of this engine might be greatly augmented. Of its class it is a very praiseworthy little engine. The catalogued price is £100.

The sixth engine is the compound by Messrs. Davey, Paxman, and Co. This engine is of a type very similar to that adopted some years ago by the firm for use in the African diamond fields. The engine is secured to a wrought iron frame made of I plates, fixed to the boiler by brackets. In this way, by slacking a few bolts, the whole engine can be taken off the boiler, and the weight

The seventh engine on the list is a compound, by Mr. E. Humphries, of Pershore. In our table will be found dimensions. The cranks are placed at an angle of 180 deg., that is to say, they are opposite each other. The arrangement of the valves is very peculiar. On the outside of the high-pressure cylinder is a valve-box of great length, rendered necessary by the circumstance that the steam ports are in the covers of the cylinders, not in the cylinders themselves. There are here two plain slides for admission and cut off, one at each end of the cylinder. These are driven by an eccentric actuated by a Hartnell governor, which, of course, determines the point of cut-off. Between the two cylinders is another valve chest in which work four plain slide valves, two being exhaust valves from the

6ft. high, and the springs, of the helical type, are in boxes on the side frames near the crank shaft bearings. The interest in this engine does not, however, turn at present on its performance as a traction engine, but its powers on the brake. During the trial it was run at 250 lb. boiler pressure. The steam is cut off by a special gear, which we shall explain in a moment, when the piston has made a stroke of half an inch. This corresponds—with the proportions of the cylinder—to an eighty-fold expansion, if we neglect clearance, &c. As a matter of fact the terminal pressure is about 5 lb. above the atmosphere, and we have therefore  $\frac{265 \text{ lb.}}{20 \text{ lb.}} = 13\frac{1}{4}$  expansions as occurring in practice.

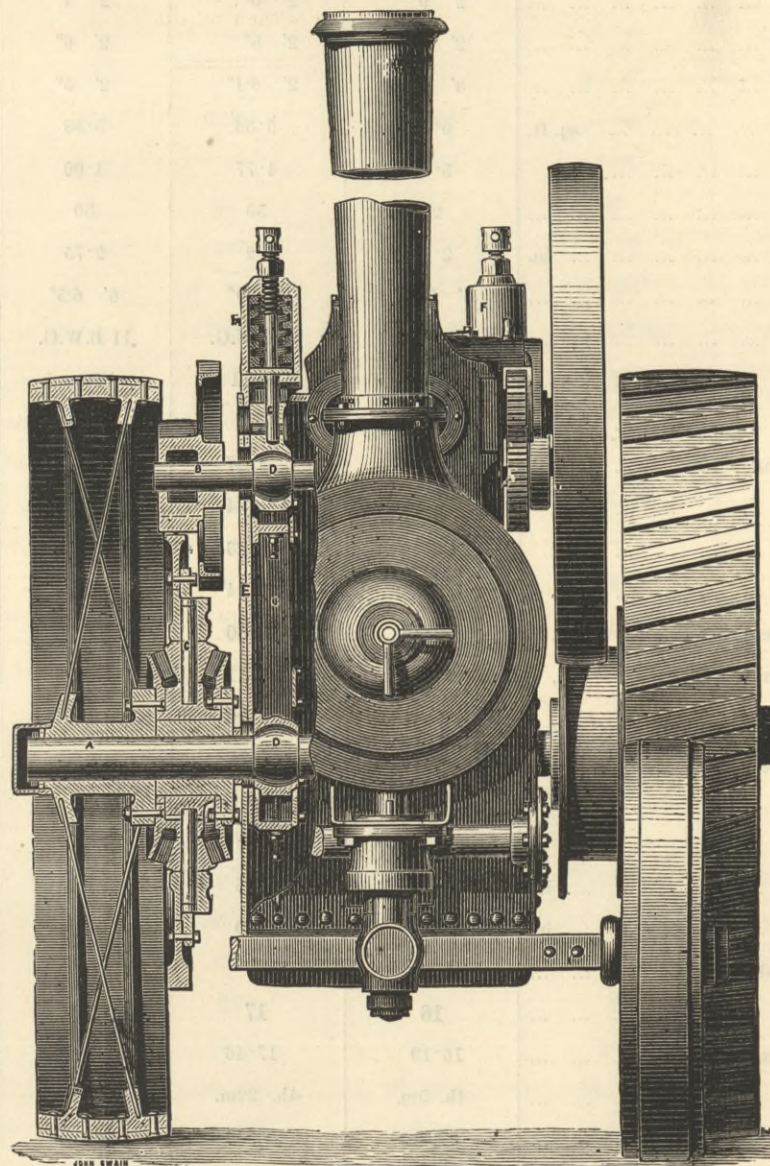
The cut-off gear is suitable for running either way, and is a modification of Farcot's. On the back of the main slide is another. The main slide has the admission ports through it, and the riding-valve will when in mid position leave these ports open. The riding valve is carried by the main valve, the friction between the two being sufficient for this purpose. Each valve has its own rod; that of the main valve is driven by a link motion in the usual way; that of the riding-valve is prolonged through a stuffing-box carried by an arm on the main valve spindle. This stuffing-box is only used to supply friction, should there not be enough to secure the action of the riding-valve and appears to be entirely unnecessary. The end of the riding-valve spindle enters a brass box, in which slides vertically a spindle caused to rise and fall by the governor. The spindle has a V piece on it, which passes through a slot in the valve spindle. The action of the gear will be readily understood. As the governor rises and falls so does the V piece, and on its position depends the point in its stroke at which the motion of the riding-valve shall cease, by the valve spindle being stopped by coming against the V when the steam is cut-off. The working of the whole will be readily understood from the drawing, page 46

This apparatus worked fairly well during the trial, but the governor hunted almost incessantly. The action would be improved by a dash-pot. The equivalent of a dash-pot now used by Mr. Foden—namely, a small stud pressed by a spring into a notch in the governor spindle—failed from some cause to do its duty. We believe that Messrs. Foden's works cannot compare in dimensions with those of the great Lincolnshire houses; it is the more creditable to him that the workmanship of boiler and engine is excellent. Notwithstanding the enormous pressure of 300 lb.—the pressure at which the safety valves blow off—the boiler and all its fittings were perfectly tight, not a breath of steam or drop of water being apparent.

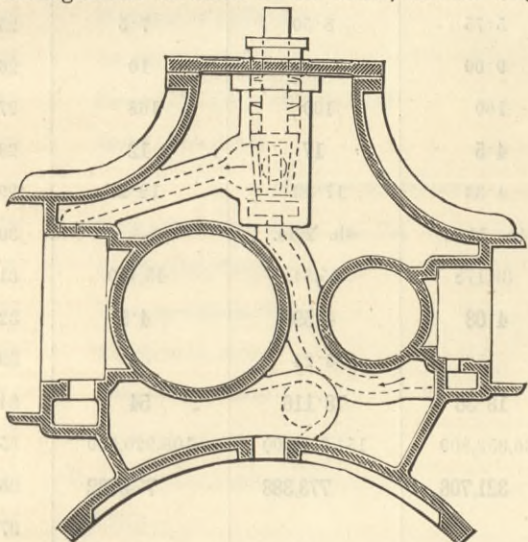
The crank shaft is of steel, with discs instead of cheeks. The crank pins are not set quite at right angles. By a simple arrangement the engine can be made to work non-compound, in starting. The catalogued price of this engine is £460.

The simple engine sent in for competition by the same maker is so similar in other respects to that just described, that it requires no special description. It works at 120 lb. pressure, and all the traction arrangements are practically identical. The price is £400.

The last two engines on our list are a simple and a compound portable, by Messrs. J. and H. McLaren, of Leeds. These engines seem to leave little to be desired in the matter of design, save that the Hartnell governors with which they are both fitted do not perhaps look as well as other forms of governor, and the overhang of the



FODEN'S COMPOUND TRACTION ENGINE.



SECTION OF FODEN'S COMPOUND ENGINE CYLINDERS.

reduced for transit across a difficult country. As coal was extremely dear, and, what was much worse, very scarce in Africa, economy in its use was of the utmost importance, and these engines were made to work at high pressures. Mr. Paxman holds that when high pressures are used the cylinders should not be secured directly to the boiler, as

low-pressure cylinder, and two being at once admission valves to the low-pressure cylinder and exhaust valves from the high-pressure cylinder. There are four separate rods for the four valves carried in a species of frame embracing the valve chest, so that two rods go into the chest at the back and two at the front end, this arrangement being rendered necessary by the fact that although we have spoken of it as one chest between the two cylinders, a thick partition renders it actually two. It is very much to be regretted that the indicator had never been put on this engine before it came into the showyard. The consequence was that it was not known till the engine went on the brake that the valves were improperly set, with the result that enormous back pressure was set up in the low-pressure cylinder. All the work was thus virtually done by the high-pressure cylinder, and the consump-

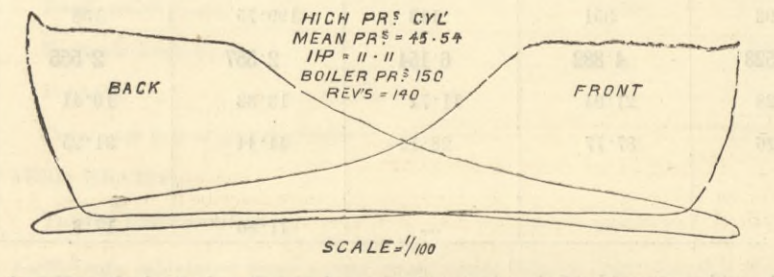


FIG. 1.

HIGH AND LOW PRESSURE DIAGRAMS FROM DAVEY, PAXMAN AND CO.'S COMPOUND ENGINE.

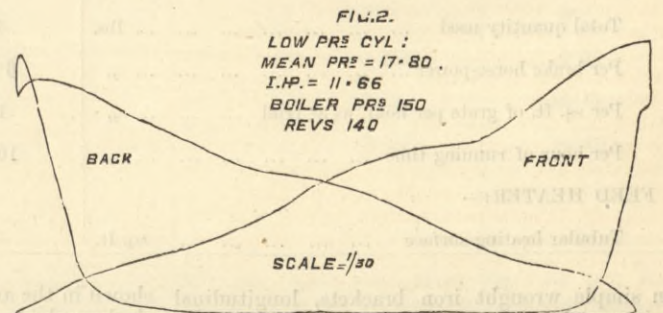


FIG. 2.

LOW PRS CYL :  
MEAN PR<sup>2</sup> = 17.80.  
I.P. = 11.66  
BOILER PR<sup>2</sup> 150  
REVS 140

the stresses are likely in time to injure it. The cylinders are jacketed, and so are the covers; the drainage of the jackets being carefully provided for by four wrought iron tubes, two taking steam into the tops of the jackets and two drawing off water from the lowest point. The boiler is very similar to that of the simple engine by the same firm, only there are no Paxman tubes in the fire-box. To the low-pressure cylinder there is one Trick valve for the distribution of the steam; the high-pressure cylinder is fitted with the Paxman cut-off gear, identical with that on the simple engine. It controlled the engine perfectly throughout the run; indeed, none of the other engines tested were as well governed as the Paxman engines. The feed-water heater is the same as for the simple engine, only there is no coil in the smoke-box. The working pressure is 140 lb. The catalogued price is £290.

tion of fuel was so high that with the consent, indeed at the suggestion of the maker, the run was stopped after a couple of hours; it is therefore impossible to say of what the engine is capable. For this reason we have not included its performance in the table; we may say, however, that the engine is well made, and of good proportions. It is much to be regretted that the experiment could not be carried out, because the engine constitutes a radical departure from normal practice. The catalogued price is £215.

The eighth engine with which we have to deal is a compound traction engine built by Messrs. Edwin Foden and Sons, of Sandbach, Cheshire. This engine we illustrate above and on page 43. It is in many respects identical with the spring mounted traction engines built for some years by the firm with great success. The wheels are about

Hartnell governor, and two eccentrics beyond the crank shaft bearing in the compound engine is not commendable. The engines have identical boilers, the dimensions of which will be found in the table. The boilers are very long, and, as will be seen, is the stroke. The cylinders are jacketed all over in the most elaborate way, even the ports being surrounded with steam. We need not say that the casting, especially for the compound engine, was extremely difficult and complicated. Yet it was made by Messrs. Hill Bros., of Leeds, in just one week after the patterns had been delivered to them. This firm is celebrated in the North for its admirable castings, and those in Messrs. McLaren's engines are so hard that they had to be planed with chilled cast iron tools. The cylinder bodies are very little softer than the valve seats. The cast iron saddles are suppressed, the crank shaft brasses being carried

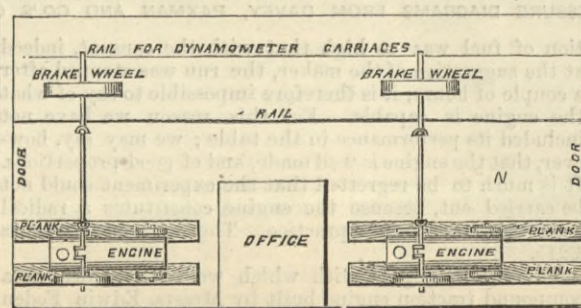
TRIALS OF ENGINES AT NEWCASTLE.—SIMPLE ENGINES.

Particulars of Boilers, Engines, and Results of Trials.

No.	Names of exhibitors ...	Alnwick Company.	Paxman and Co.	Humphries.	Jeffry and Blackstone.	McLaren.	Foden.	No.
1	BOILER:—	Locomotive	Locomotive	Locomotive	Vertical	Locomotive	Locomotive	1
2	Length of barrel ...	6' 0.5"	7' 0"	6' 3"	5' 6"	6' 8.5"	—	2
3	Diameter of barrel inside ...	2' 6"	2' 7.625"	2' 8"	2' 3"	2' 7.5"	2' 6"	3
4	Length of fire-box, mean ...	2' 9"	2' 0"	2' 4"	—	3' 0.75"	1' 9"	4
5	Width of fire-box, mean ...	2' 6"	2' 8"	2' 6"	—	2' 2.25"	2' 0"	5
6	Height of fire-box over grate ...	3' 1"	2' 8.4"	2' 5"	1' 9" dia.	2' 5.25"	2' 2"	6
7	Area of grate, normal ... sq. ft.	6.875	5.33	5.88	2.4	6.70	3.58	7
8	Area of grate at trial ... "	5.62	4.77	4.00	2.4	3.34	3.00	8
9	Tubes, number ...	24	53	30	27	52	76	9
10	" diameter outside ... in.	2.75	2	2.75	1.75	2	1.625	10
11	" length between plates ...	6' 0.5"	7' 0"	6' 6.5"	2' 10.75"	6' 8.5"	6' 0"	11
12	" thickness ...	0' 0.125"	14 B.W.G.	11 B.W.G.	12 B.W.G.	12 B.W.G.	18 B.W.G.	12
13	" material ...	Iron	Steel	Iron	Iron	Steel	Steel	13
14	Heating surface, fire-box ... sq. ft.	35.5	30.4	27.50	14.75	31.30	19	14
15	" tubes in fire-box ... "	—	8.37	—	—	—	—	15
16	" tubes ... "	105.0	194.24	141.26	37.00	182.70	177.6	16
17	" smoke-box ... "	—	2.23	—	—	—	—	17
18	" total ... "	140.5	235.24	168.76	51.75	214.00	196.6	18
19	" per brake horse-power ... "	8.75	13.80	10.55	11.25	12.60	16.75	19
20	" per sq. ft. of grate ... "	20.45	44.11	28.70	21.56	32.0	56.15	20
21	Area through tubes ... "	0.81	0.90	1.041	0.33	1.126	0.93	21
22	Ratio of area through tubes to grate area ... "	0.118	0.168	0.177	0.14	0.168	0.26	22
23	Pressure, lbs. per sq. in. ...	80	95	85	60	130	120	23
24	ENGINE:—							24
25	Diameter of cylinder ... in.	8.75	9.5	10.5	5.75	8.50	7.5	25
26	Length of stroke ... in.	12.0	12.0	14.0	9.00	15.00	10	26
27	Revolutions per minute declared ...	150	132	130	160	130	168	27
28	Brake horse-power ...	16	17	16	4.5	17	12	28
29	" " at actual revolutions ...	16.19	17.46	17.99	4.33	17.83	12.27	29
30	Time of running, total ...	4h. 5m.	4h. 22m.	4h. 0m.	4h. 11m.	4h. 29m.	—	30
31	Revolutions, total ...	37,342	35,558	35,050	39,178	35,842	45,400	31
32	Time, mechanical hours ...	4.037	4.489	4.493	4.08	4.595	4.5	32
33	Revolutions, actual ...	152.4	135.7	146	156	133.24	—	33
34	Horse-power hours ...	64.59	76.32	71.89	18.36	78.116	54	34
35	Foot-pounds, total ...	127,888,200	151,137,600	142,342,200	36,352,800	154,677,600	106,920,000	35
36	Foot-pounds per lb. coal ...	316,554	783,091	402,687	321,706	773,388	774,782	36
37	WATER:—							37
38	Total quantity used ... lbs.	3060	1687	2864	657.5	1868	1394	38
39	Per brake horse-power per hour ... "	47.35	23.58	39.82	35.26	23.91	25.63	39
40	Evaporated per lb. of coal ... "	7.60	8.74	8.16	5.73	9.34	10.10	40
41	Temperature of feed ...	160, about	—	170 about	—	—	—	41
42	COAL:—							42
43	Total quantity used ... lbs.	404	193	351	113	199.75	138	43
44	Per brake horse-power ... "	6.25	2.528	4.882	6.154	2.557	2.555	44
45	Per sq. ft. of grate per hour, as at trial ... "	18	9.28	21.94	11.72	13.33	10.41	45
46	Per hour of running time ... "	100	44.26	87.77	28.12	44.44	31.25	46
47	FEED HEATER:—							47
48	Tubular heating surface ... sq. ft.	—	—	—	—	11.80	17.8	48

instead on simple wrought iron brackets, longitudinal stiffness being got by two wrought iron stay rods, which brace the brackets and the cylinders together. The feed-water heater at the side of the boiler contains 42ft. of 1in. copper tube, placed in a pipe through which the exhaust steam passes. The tube is cut up into equal lengths, and secured at each end into a head, so that each length can be readily removed. The tubes have each one complete turn in their length, to give elasticity and provide for expansion. The steam passes outside. The temperature of the feed was raised to 212 deg. during the trial. The cut-off gear consists of a gridiron valve, which works direct on the back of the main high-pressure slide, and is controlled by a Hartnell governor on the crank shaft. The low-pressure slide is set to cut off steam at about 5/8th of the stroke. The prices are, simple £175; compound £200. The system of testing was very nearly that employed at Cardiff in 1872. The testing shed was arranged as

shown in the annexed plan sketch. Along one side of the shed was laid a line of rails, on which two trolleys were



SKETCH PLAN OF TRIAL SHED.

placed. Each of these trolleys carried one of the well-

known brakes of the Royal Agricultural Society. The trolleys could be wheeled along the rails to suit the position of the engines. At the other side of the shed was an office for the engineers and judges, and two sets of planks laid level in ballast, on which the engines stood. At each end of the shed were large double doors to admit the engines. The chimneys of these last stood out through the canvas roof, removed for the purpose where needed. A water service was laid on, and weighing machines were provided. The water was all supplied to the engines from 30-gallon standard measures. Each engine pumped from a barrel set on end beside it. This was filled to the top at starting, and again at the finish, all the feed-water passing through the 30-gallon vessels and being properly noted. The brake weights were calculated by the engineers, and, for the first time in the annals of the Society, an allowance was made for what we may term the internal resistance of the brake

TRIALS OF ENGINES AT NEWCASTLE.—COMPOUND ENGINES.

Particulars of Boilers, Engines, and Results of Trials.

No.	Names of exhibitors ... ..	Cooper.	Paxman and Co.	Humphries.	Foden.	McLaren.	No.
1	BOILER:—	Locomotive.	Locomotive.	Locomotive.	Locomotive.	Locomotive.	1
2	Length of barrel ... ..	6' 6"	—	6' 3"	—	6' 8.5"	2
3	Diameter of barrel inside ... ..	2' 5.25"	2' 10"	2' 8"	2' 6"	2' 7.5"	3
4	Length of fire-box ... ..	1' 10.4"	2' 0"	2' 4"	1' 9"	3' 0.75"	4
5	Width of fire-box ... ..	1' 10.5"	2' 3.75"	2' 6"	2' 0"	2' 2.75"	5
6	Height of fire-box over grate ... ..	2' 7"	2' 7.4"	2' 5"	2' 2"	2' 5.25"	6
7	Area of grate, normal... .. sq. ft.	3.49	4.62	5.88	3.58	6.7	7
8	Area of grate at trial ... .. sq. ft.	—	4.21	4.00	3.00	3.35	8
9	Tubes, number ... ..	22	53	30	76	52	9
10	„ diameter outside ... .. in.	2.5	2	2.75	1.625	2	10
11	„ length ... ..	6' 9.4"	7' 0.75"	6' 6.5"	5' 6"	6' 8.5"	11
12	„ thickness ... ..	11 B.W.G.	14 B.W.G.	11 B.W.G.	18 B.W.G.	12 B.W.G.	12
13	„ material ... ..	Steel	Steel	Iron	Steel	Steel	13
14	Heating surface, fire-box ... .. sq. ft.	21.5	27.77	27.50	19	31.3	14
15	„ smoke-box ... ..	—	2.55	—	—	—	15
16	„ tubes ... ..	97.25	194.24	141.26	177.6	182.7	16
17	„ tubes in fire-box ... ..	—	—	—	—	—	17
18	„ total... ..	118.75	224.56	168.76	201.0	214.00	18
19	„ per brake horse-power ... ..	7.0	11.22	10.55	11.15	10.7	19
20	„ per square foot of grate ... ..	34.0	48.80	28.7	56.15	32.0	20
21	Area through tubes ... ..	0.611	0.90	1.041	0.93	1.126	21
22	Ratio of area through tubes to grate area ... ..	0.172	0.195	0.177	0.26	0.168	22
23	Pressure, lbs. per square inch ... ..	125	150	—	250	150	23
24	ENGINE:—						24
25	Diameter of cylinders ... .. in.	6 and 9	5.75 and 9.25	7 and 12	4.75 and 9.5	5.75 and 9.0	25
26	Length of stroke... .. in.	11.0	14.0	14	10	15	26
27	Revolutions per minute declared ... ..	170	134	185	156	135	27
28	Brake horse-power ... ..	17	20	20	18	20	28
29	„ „ at actual revolutions ... ..	18.3	20.89	19.54	18.85	22.02	29
30	Time of running, total ... ..	4h. 6m.	4h. 28m.	2h. 26m.	4h. 21m.	4h. 23m.	30
31	Revolutions, total ... ..	42,348	37,496	26,549	41,730	39,343	31
32	Time, mechanical hours ... ..	4.15	4.66	—	4.583	4.85	32
33	Revolutions, actual ... ..	172	139.9	181.8	159.8	149.5	33
34	Horse-power hours ... ..	70.55	93.24	—	80.25	97.38	34
35	Foot-pounds of work done, total ... ..	139,689,000	184,536,000	—	158,895,000	192,812,400	35
36	Foot-pounds of work per lb. of coal ... ..	539,340	1,096,796	—	782,241	1,071,608	36
37	WATER:—						37
38	Total quantity used ... .. lbs.	2414	1658	Trial	1394	1904	38
39	Per brake horse-power per hour ... ..	34.21	17.78	not	17.37	19.75	39
40	Evaporated per lb. of coal... ..	9.32	9.88	completed.	9.06	9.38	40
41	Temperature of feed ... ..	—	—	—	—	211	41
42	COAL:—						42
43	Total quantity used ... .. lbs.	259	168.25	—	148.5	203	43
44	Per brake horse-power ... ..	3.685	1.804	—	1.858	2.08	44
45	Per hour ... ..	63.17	37.66	—	34.3	46.31	45
46	Per square foot of grate per hour ... ..	18.08	9.0	—	10.85	13.82	46
47	FEED HEATER:—						47
48	Tubular heating surface ... .. sq. ft.	—	—	—	—	—	48

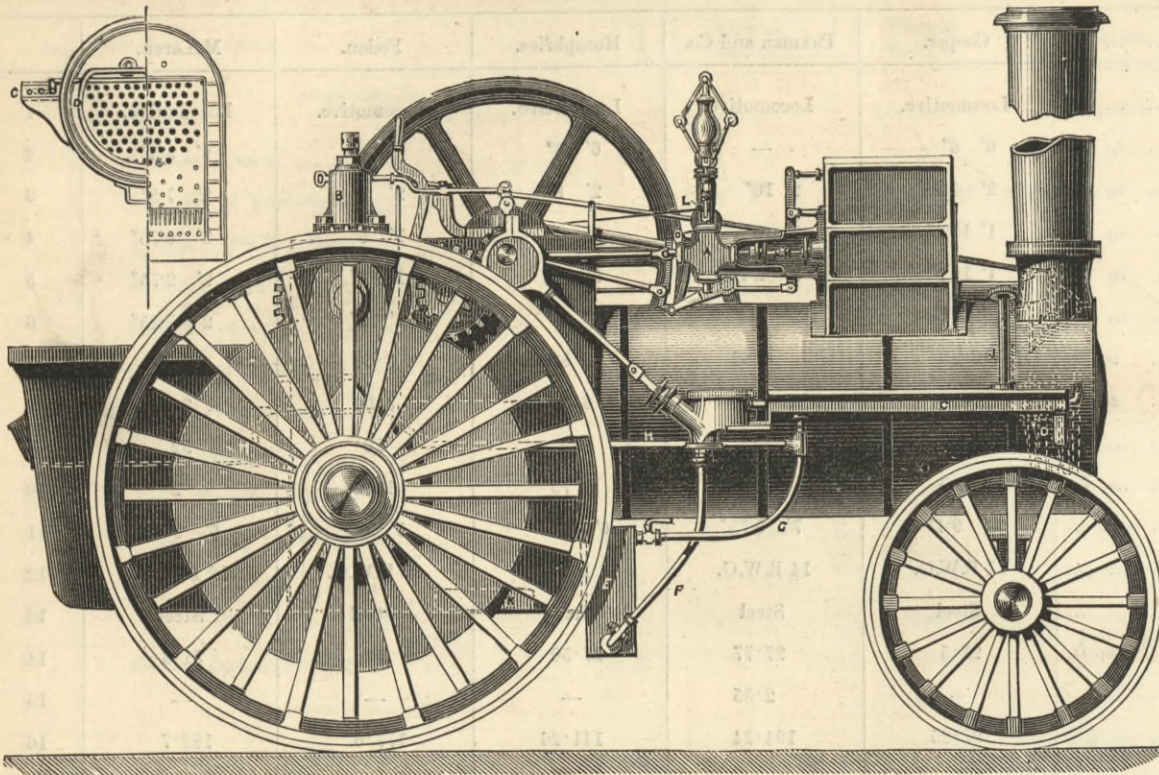
based on coefficients calculated from actual experiment. The allowance varied a little with the load carried, but may be roughly assumed as about 0.75-horse power; and in comparing the results of the Newcastle with those of the Cardiff trials, it must be borne in mind that in the latter case the true brake work done was a little in excess of that set forth in the Royal Agricultural Society's report. The method of working we have already described. A preliminary run was first made, and when it was seen that everything was in good order, and the steam pressure that at which the exhibitor declared to work, the fire-box was swept out, and 14 lb. of wood was served out to him, and weighed coal. As soon as the steam was up to the point at which he resolved to work—generally a few pounds over the declared pressure—the experiment began, and the run was then made for four hours. At the end of that time any coal the competitor had left from the last lot served out to him was taken away, and he was credited with its weight. The engine was then allowed to run as long as it could until its speed fell

below the entered or nominal speed, when it was stopped and the counter number taken. During the run Mr. Stead, of Middlesbrough, acting as chemist to the Society, took samples of the furnace gas in a way which we shall describe presently; and after the run was over Sir Frederick Bramwell made various experiments to ascertain the quantity of air admitted to the furnace. There are many ways in which the fuel consumptions can be worked out from the data. The simplest is that which we have used. It consists in dividing the whole number of revolutions on the counter by the nominal speed—that is to say, the speed at which the engine would have given out the power for which the brake weight was calculated. The quotient is the mechanical time in minutes, and this divided by sixty gives the mechanical time in hours and decimals of an hour. This being multiplied by the declared horse-power, gives the power for one hour, suppose the whole work done by the coal had been done in one hour, and this divided

into the total coal, gives the coal per horse-power. Minute decimal fractions we have neglected, as it is useless to overload data with a multiplicity of figures possessing no real significance. As an example of the process of calculation, we may take the figures for Mr. Foden's compound engine. He "declared" to run at 156 revolutions per minute, and to exert 18 brake horse-power at this speed. His brake was loaded, therefore, to 202.75 lb., its circumference being to the point of suspension of the load 17.24 ft., and its internal resistance 0.8-horse power. The total number of revolutions made was 41,730, and this divided by 156 gives 4.455 hours. The mechanical time was greater than four hours, partly because the speed of the engine was about 158 during the run, and partly because the fire in the fire-box and the steam due to the surplus pressure was sufficient to keep it going for some minutes after the serving out of coal had ceased at the end of the four hours. The total coal burned was 148 lb., and 4.455 hours multiplied by 18-horse power, gives 80-horse

COMPOUND TRACTION ENGINE<sup>1</sup>

MR. E. FODEN SANDBACH, ENGINEER.



power for one hour, which divided into 148 lb. of coal, gives an hourly consumption at the rate of 1.85 lb. per hour.<sup>1</sup> The other figures in our table are easily deduced, and many others will suggest themselves to our readers which they can calculate for themselves almost *ad libitum* without our aid. It must not be forgotten that the water supplied is no measure of the water actually evaporated, because all the water resulting from steam condensed in the jackets returned to the boiler at once and re-evaporated, and there is no means of ascertaining with any approach to accuracy what this weighed. Much the same statement applies to water resulting from steam condensed in the feed-heaters and returned to the pump-tub unmeasured.

The whole of Monday, the 4th inst., was spent in getting things put right in the testing shed. On Tuesday the trials began with the engine of the Alnwick Company. The trial calls for no particular comment. We need only say that the governor wanted adjustment and acted very badly. The brakes are fitted with a new and

engine was almost perfectly uniform, the tachometer denoting the passing of the crank over the dead points twice in every revolution by a slight movement.

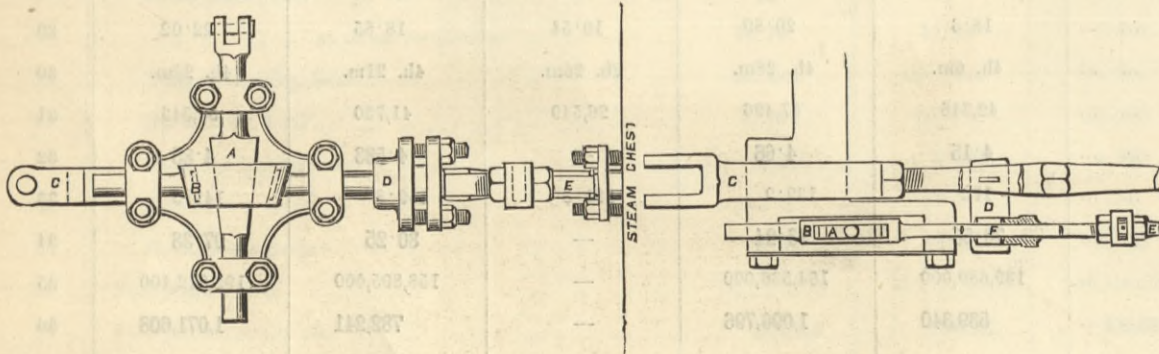
When the four hours' run was concluded the engine was hauled out of the shed and steam again got up, which was allowed to blow away from the safety valve; the engine, working without a load, was run at just such a speed as would enable it to pump in feed enough. In this way an attempt was made to test the boiler for evaporation without the jacket influence making itself felt in the result. The performance of this engine was wonderful in itself, but more wonderful when it is borne in mind that the fire lighted in the trial shed was the second fire lighted in it, as its completion was so hurried that it was only run for half-an-hour in Colchester before being sent away by rail. While on the subject of limited time, we may add that the drawings for Messrs. McLaren's engines were only completed on June 6th. Not two months were spent in getting out the drawings, making the

We have already spoken of the running of the former engine; it was fired by Mr. Foden's son, a youth of sixteen, who bids fair to be the best fireman in England. It is much to be regretted that the Hartnell governor on Mr. McLaren's engine worked loose during the run. In consequence he had to stop to secure it, losing thus eight minutes; of course this was allowed for by the judges but we need not say that a stoppage of this kind seriously affects the result in trials such as these were, so much depending on small matters of detail in the management of a fire.

It was seen early in last week that the trial of strength really lay between three firms only—namely, Messrs. Davey, Paxman, and Co., J. and H. McLaren, and E. Foden and Sons. The engines of the Alnwick Co., and of Messrs. Jeffery and Blackstone, were quite out-classed. That of Mr. Cooper included too many novel features to render it probable that it would give a very high result. The simple engine of Messrs. Humphreys did not claim to be exceptionally economical, and the unfortunate mistake or accident with the slide-valve of the compound engine, brought to an untimely end what promised to be an interesting experiment. This engine is, as we have explained, constructed with the cranks opposite each other a system which has not hitherto been applied to portable engines, and the merits of this mode of compounding as compared with that usually adopted, would have been, at all events to some extent, elucidated could the engine have made a run under legitimate conditions. The end of the week fully confirmed what had been prognosticated. The Paxman compound engine and the Foden compound engine had beaten all previous records to an enormous extent, and much the same might be said of the performance of the Paxman simple engine and the McLaren simple engine. A reference to our table will show how closely these engines competed in the matter of fuel. There remained to be tested the McLaren compound engine and the Foden simple engine, and of the former great things were expected. On Monday the test of these engines began. The first to run was the McLaren compound, which started on its four hours' trial at 10.42 a.m., and finished at 3.5 p.m.—a total run of 4 h. 23 m., the last 23 minutes being run with the coal in the fire-box at the end of the four hours' run and the ashes. The engine was entered to make 20-horse power at 135 revolutions, and overran a good deal. The engine ran beautifully, the speed being kept very steady. Mr. H. McLaren acted as fireman, and his skill and coolness left nothing to chance. Unfortunately, after the run had lasted about an hour, the stuffing-box of the high-pressure piston-rod, which is fitted with metallic packing, began to blow a little, and could not bear tightening up without heating the rod, and this told no doubt against the result, which was, however, admirable, the consumption being at the rate of only 2.08 lb. per brake horse-power. This is really a wonderful performance.

Shortly after the McLaren engine started, the Foden engine began to run. Some trouble was caused at first by the expansion gear, but this was easily put right by the adjustment of a couple of nuts, and the engine began its four hours' run on the north brake at 12.32 p.m., and finished at 4.55 p.m., thus making 4 h. 23 m., the 23 m. being running-down time. The engine ran very well, but the governor, which is similar in all respects to that of the Foden compound engine, hunted persistently. The cut-off gear is, in fact, too quick and delicate in its action, and would be greatly improved by the addition of a dash-pot to steady it. This engine made an excellent run, the consumption of fuel coming out at 2.55 lb. per brake horse-power per hour. Thus it will be seen that the performance of the three simple engines differed only by fractions of a pound expressed by hundredths. The performances of the compound engines was not quite so close, but still the differences are very small. It seems evident that nothing was gained by the use of the excessive pressure carried in the Foden engine, and this is satisfactory, for while we see no reason why 250 lb. should not be adopted if the adoption was attended by an adequate saving in fuel, we must add that, other things being equal, the lower the pressure carried in any engine—and above all in an agricultural engine—the better. If Mr. Paxman secured a better result than Mr. Foden, with 100 lb. less pressure, the fact goes to prove that the additional 100 lb. is not wanted with these types of engines. In so close a competition it became a difficult task for the judges to award a prize, and much time was spent on Tuesday morning in examining the workmanship and the design of the engines. In the afternoon the awards were made known in the show-yard, both prizes, £200 for the compound, and £100 for the simple engine being awarded to Messrs. Davey, Paxman, and Co. Where three firms had done so well, it is to be regretted that all could not take prizes, but according to the rules laid down by the Council for the guidance of the judges, there was no room for hesitation. The most economical engines were those of the Colchester firm, and the firm won accordingly, and fully deserved what it has obtained. Mr. Foden and Messrs. McLaren may find ample consolation in the fact that they have beaten all other makers of non-condensing engines save one, and have turned out machines which cannot fail to raise their reputation to the highest point.

Although time and space press, we cannot conclude this notice of the performance of the competing engines without drawing attention to the remarkable character of the results obtained. The best triple-expansion marine engines scarcely get below 1½ lb. of coal per indicated horse-power. Yet here we have little non-condensing engines, running at about the same pressure, working with about the same quantity of coal. A most interesting experiment remains to be carried out. A condenser ought to be fitted to one of the competing engines, and a test made for economy of fuel. We are disposed to believe that the result would be very little altered, the cooling action of the condenser on the low-pressure cylinder neutralising the advantage gained by a vacuum. It is at all events difficult to believe that anything much



FODEN'S AUTOMATIC CUT-OFF GEAR FOR REVERSING ENGINES.

very ingenious tachometer, the invention of Dr. T. Horn, and made by Mr. Thorne, of Gracechurch-street. A magnetised bar of steel hangs on five pivots in front of and close to a disc of copper, which rotates rapidly as the brake revolves, and by the action of the Faradic currents, set up the plate, tends to drag the magnet round with it, and thus moves the hand on the dial. It will be understood that this brief description is intended only to explain the principle, not details. The tachometers are not calibrated, and so give no positive indication of speed in numerical terms, but they served admirably to show whether the engines ran steadily or not. After the run on the brake was over, the engine had a board fitted to the mouth of the ash-pan. In this board were two rectangular holes controlled by slides, and an anemometer applied to these holes gave an indication of the quantity of air passing into the furnace. The experiment in the case of the Alnwick engine was brought to a conclusion by most of the fire-bars tumbling into the ash-pan. They got bright red-hot when the supply of air was stopped, and no means existed of removing the hot ashes below them.

On Wednesday, the 6th inst., two engines were tested, namely, Mr. Paxman's simple engine on the north brake, or that marked N in the sketch, while the simple engine of Mr. Humphreys went to the other brake. Mr. Paxman fired his own engine with consummate skill, in spite of an injured hand, on the system of "little and often." His pressure never varied more than a pound during the run, and the engine was over twenty minutes in "running down"—that is, after the end of the four hours—during which period he burned his ashes. The speed of the

patterns, and building Mr. Paxman's compound engine. In the face of such facts as these—and we find it necessary to state that we have taken pains to satisfy ourselves that they are facts—it seems strange that the firms signing a now memorable circular letter, should insist that twelve months are required in which to design, build, and test an engine which would give satisfactory results. Such a statement argues incompetence—it argues that those who make it do not know how to build a good engine, and require a year or two of experiment and instruction before they can produce a satisfactory result. We know that this is not the case; we are certain it is not the impression they intended to convey. That it does convey it is an additional proof, if any were wanting, of the injudicious character of a document which we have reason to know more than one firm already regrets signing.

On Wednesday the Paxman engine was replaced with Messrs. Jeffery and Blackstone's vertical engine, which made its preliminary run in the evening and its four-hours' run on Thursday morning. Also Humphreys' engine on the south brake was replaced by Cooper's self-propelling compound, which made a preliminary run, and went on at 12.40 p.m. with its four-hours' run. The vertical engine was replaced at 3.30 p.m. on the same day with the Paxman compound engine, which underwent its trial on Friday. Mr. Cooper's engine was replaced on Thursday evening by Mr. Humphreys' compound, which began its four-hours' run on Friday at 1.38 p.m., the experiment coming—as already explained—to an abrupt conclusion at 4.7 p.m. The Paxman compound engine ran for 4 h. 28 m., and during that time its speed was perfectly uniform; there was no knock or vibration; in all respects the engine ran in a way that left nothing to be desired, and gave the highest economical result ever obtained from a non-condensing engine. We give some diagrams.

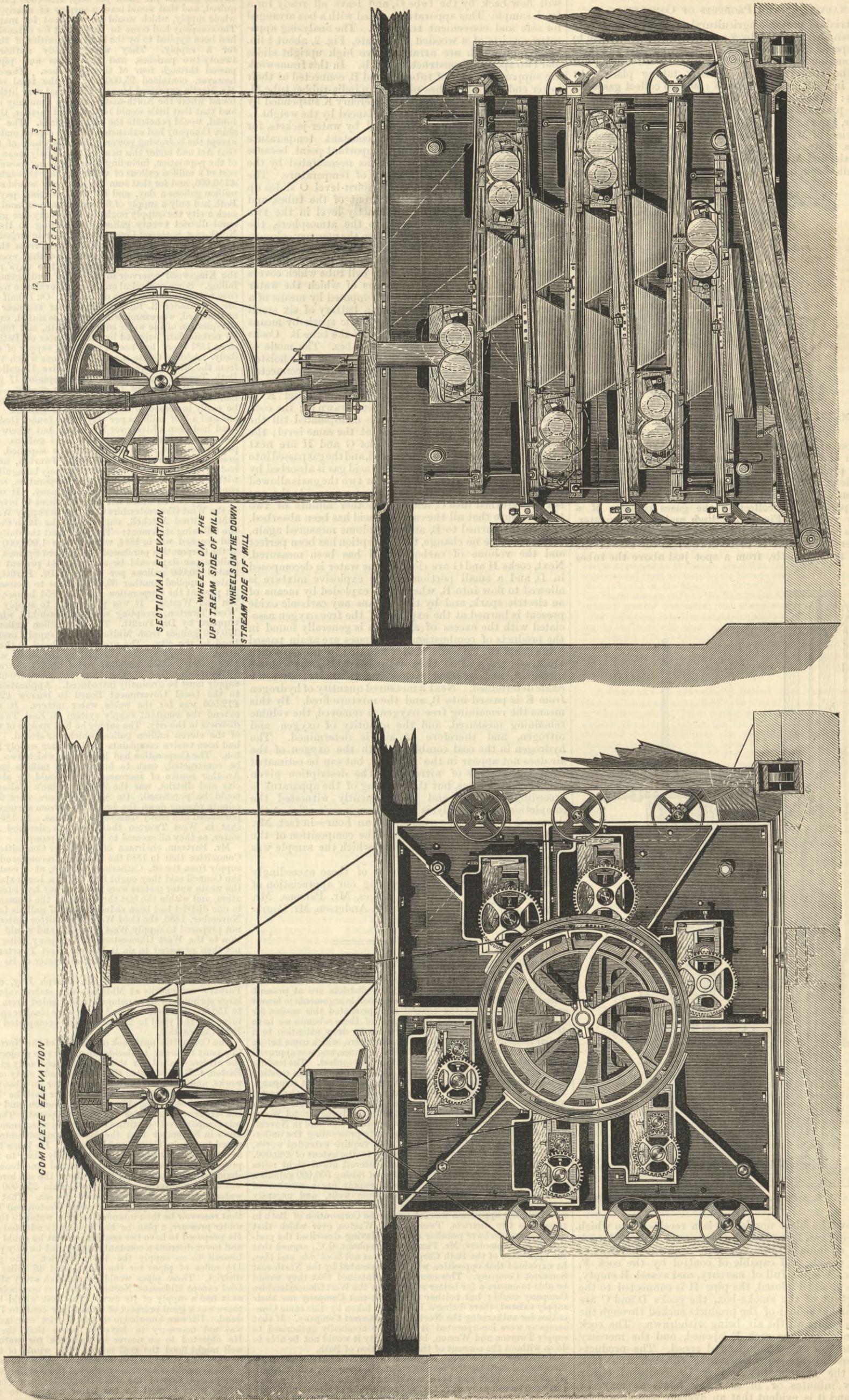
On Saturday only two engines were tested; the compound of Mr. Foden on the north brake, and the simple engine of Messrs. McLaren on the south brake.

<sup>1</sup> It will be seen that there are certain small discrepancies in the table, which are due to the circumstance that the fractions used are in some cases nearer approximations than they are in others. Thus, for example, the official consumption of the Foden compound is given as 1.848 lb., instead of 1.85 lb., as given by us above. The difference is obviously quite insignificant. The quantities referred to brake horse-power are obtained with those given in line 28.

MULTIPLE ROLLER BREAK MILL AND SIEVES.

MR. J. A. BUCHOLZ, LONDON, ENGINEER.

(For description see page 41.)



below 1½ lb. of coal per indicated horse-power per hour can be got by any expedient.

#### ANALYSIS OF THE PRODUCTS OF COMBUSTION.

The trials of portable agricultural engines at Newcastle have been characterised by a novelty to which we wish to draw especial attention. For the first time the products of combustion have been completely analysed during the times the trial runs were actually taking place. At Cardiff, in 1873, an attempt was made to collect gases for analysis: but so imperfect were the means then available that no practical results were obtained. At Newcastle, however, the engineers were fortunate enough to secure the services of Messrs. Pattinson and Stead to conduct the analyses. Mr. J. Pattinson is the Public Analyst of Newcastle, and Mr. J. E. Stead occupies the same position at Middlesbrough. To the latter gentleman is due the

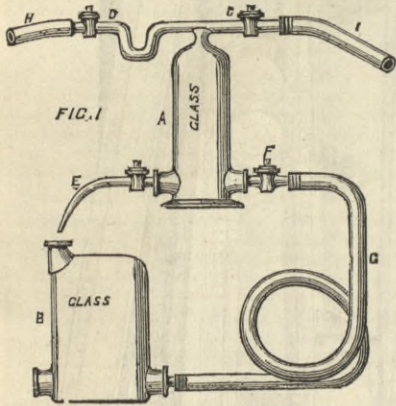


FIG. 1.—MR. J. E. STEAD'S APPARATUS FOR TAKING SAMPLES OF THE PRODUCTS OF COMBUSTION—SCALE ½.

invention of an apparatus, which we shall proceed to describe and illustrate, by means of which the analysis of the products of combustion is rendered easy and expeditious. The process consists of two parts—first, the collection of the products, and secondly their analysis. The apparatus for collecting the gases consists of a mercury vessel A, Fig. 1, 7in. high and 1½in. diameter, which is connected by the tube H and cock D to the place wherever the sample is to be drawn; in the case of the engines at Newcastle, from a spot just above the tubes

obtained. To fill A the cocks F and C must be opened and the vessel Braised to a higher level than A, when the mercury will flow back by the tube G, and leave all ready for a fresh sample. This apparatus is fitted with a box arranged for safe and convenient transport. The analysing apparatus consists of a wooden base-plate, Fig. 2, about 14in. by 9in., on which are arranged two high upright slides and two specially-constructed stands. In this framework are supported a pair of tubes, A and B, connected at their lower ends by a breeches-piece to an india-rubber tube M, which unites them to a vessel of mercury K suspended by a cord passing over a pulley and balanced by the weight L. The tubes A and B are surrounded by water-jackets, for the purpose of maintaining a constant temperature throughout the analysis—a very important point, because it eliminates the tedious calculations necessitated by the changes of volume due to changes of temperature. The tube B is graduated, and a small spirit-level O slides up and down on a pair of wires in front of the tubes, and enables the mercury to be set exactly level in the two tubes, and as tube A is open to the atmosphere, the pressure in B must be the same when the mercury columns are level. C is an inverted bell tube dipping into a beaker of caustic potash. E is an inverted bell tube containing hydrogen. D is a similar inverted bell tube which covers a pair of platinum poles, by means of which the water contained in the beaker can be decomposed by means of a current of electricity produced by a battery of six small cells, which also serve to send an electric spark by means of a Rumkorf coil through the top of the tube B. Cocks F, G, H, I, J, govern the various tubes. The mode of operating is as follows:—The mercury vessel K is hoisted till the tube B is full, the gas to be analysed is connected to the tube N—corresponding to tube I, Fig. 1; the cock F is opened, the cock G being shut, the vessel K is depressed until sufficient gas has been drawn in; the cock F is then closed, and the vessel K is manipulated till the mercury in tubes A and B stands at the same level; the volume in B is then read off. Cocks G and H are next opened, the mercury vessel K hoisted, and the gas passed into the bell tube C, where the carbonic acid gas is absorbed by the caustic potash. After a minute or two the gas is allowed to flow back into tube B, the volume measured; the gas is then returned into C, and left another minute or two to make sure that all the carbonic acid has been absorbed. It is then returned to B, and the volume measured again, and if there be no change, the absorption has been perfect and the volume of carbonic acid has been measured. Next, cocks H and G are closed, some water is decomposed in D, and a small portion of the explosive mixture is allowed to flow into B, when it is exploded by means of an electric spark, and by that means any carbonic oxide present is burned at the expense of the free oxygen associated with the excess of air which is generally found in the products of combustion. The gases are again passed into C, and the carbonic acid generated by the explosion absorbed; the gas is then returned to B, the volume measured, and by that means the volume of carbonic oxide determined. Next a measured quantity of hydrogen from E is passed into B, and the mixture fired. By this means the remaining free oxygen is removed, the volume remaining measured, and the quantity of oxygen and nitrogen, and therefore of air, is determined. The hydrogen in the coal combining with the oxygen of the air does not appear in the products, but can be estimated from the volume of nitrogen. The description given above seems tedious, but the working of the apparatus is exceedingly simple, and we frequently witnessed the completion of an analysis in the engineer's office at the showyard in about one-quarter of an hour—in fact, Mr. Stead was often able to announce the composition of the waste gases before the run during which the sample was taken was complete.

We cannot conclude our notice of these exceedingly interesting trials without expressing our appreciation of the courtesy shown us by the judges, Mr. Parsons, Mr. Pidgeon, and Mr. Yates, and by Mr. Anderson, Mr. Courtney, and the engineering staff.

#### THE WATER SUPPLY OF WEST GLOUCESTERSHIRE.

The severe drought from which many districts are at present suffering furnishes one of the strongest possible arguments in favour and in justification of the several bills promoted this session for increasing water supplies. With some of these schemes we have dealt in former issues; we now propose to draw attention to a similar measure affecting West Gloucestershire, which came before a House of Lords Committee in the first instance, and was approved of after a lengthy examination and a vigorous contest. The leading purpose of the Bill was to extend the limits of supply of an existing water company, and to confer further powers on that company. This company, called the West Gloucestershire Water Company, was authorised in 1884, after an unusually severe struggle in each House, caused by the opposition of the then existing Bristol Water Company. The first pipe of the new company was laid in November, 1885, and the company is vigorously prosecuting the undertaking; but they find already that they require extended works, and for that purpose additional capital to the extent of £60,000. Their pumping station is at Frampton Cotterell, about eight miles from Bristol, and the engine is capable of raising 500,000 gallons a day. Adjoining the present limits of supply are a number of districts at present mainly supplied from wells, and urgently needing a better source. All these districts were in favour of the new Bill; but opposition was set up by the Corporation of Bath in respect to two districts, Twerton and Weston, over which that body claimed to have peculiar rights. Having described the position of the promoters, Mr. Pembroke Stephens, Q.C., argued that the opposition of the Bath Corporation was not *bona fide*, and then he explained that opposition was also presented by the North-east Somerset Company. This company maintained that they would be able to ensure a far better supply than the West Gloucestershire Company could; but neither the North-east Company nor their supply existed, there being a Bill to be taken by this same Committee for authorising the North-east Somerset Company. If that company were incorporated it would be nominally authorised to supply Twerton and Weston, but in reality it would not be able to do so without the consent of the Corporation of Bath.

Mr. Henry John Martin, engineer to the West Gloucestershire Company, describing the operations of the company, said the supply of water so far had been ascertained to be 3,000,000 gallons a day. The company were laying down a mile of service pipe, and were under contract to lay down thirty or forty miles. The popu-

lation of the district within the existing limits was 35,000, but the proposed extension would increase the total to 60,000. Allowing twenty gallons per head per day, 1,200,000 gallons would be required, and that would leave a surplus of nearly two-thirds of the whole supply, which would be sufficient for many years to come. The company had come to Parliament for extensions because they had been applied to by the local authorities of three new districts for a supply. They were already authorised to supply twenty-two parishes, and the mains and pipes already laid passed through four of these parishes. These four parishes, however, contained 25,000 out of the total of 35,000 people. Mr. Martin expressed his conviction that very little water would be found where the North-east Somerset Company intended to bore, and that that little would be bad; and further, that such water, if found, would penetrate the coal workings. The West Gloucestershire Company had exhausted all their capital under their first Act, except the borrowing powers; and the whole of the capital under that Act and under this new Bill would only mean £2 10s. per head of the population, including the borrowing powers. The average cost of a million gallons of water per day throughout England was £150,000, and for that sum the company would obtain their three million gallons a day, and at the same time pay for their works. Bath had only a supply of fifteen gallons per head per day, but for such a city the supply ought to be twenty-five gallons; and for a rural district twenty gallons. Reverting to the scheme of the North-east Somerset Company, Mr. Martin urged that as nobody would have a right to demand a supply from the company that scheme was incomplete, and he added that even at present the West Gloucestershire Company had a two days' reserve supply at the Kingswood reservoir to meet the contingency of the engine failing. Some geological and general evidence was given, and the case for the promoters was concluded. On behalf of the opponents, Mr. Alexander R. Binney, C.E., water engineer to the borough of Bradford, was examined. Having, he stated, carefully gone into the question of the water supply of Bath, and founding his figures on certain data supplied by the engineer of Bath, he found that since 1881 there had been a minimum supply of a million gallons daily. Adding this to the 170,030 gallons which they could obtain from the Midford springs, it would give 17 gallons per head to Bath, Twerton, and Weston. In his opinion 17 gallons per head per day was sufficient for a domestic supply. The Corporation had storage power to the extent of eleven millions, which could be easily increased to thirty millions of gallons. This would give one and a-half millions per day. He found that the average per head had been a little over 17 gallons, but where the waste water meters were used the average was 14 gallons. At that rate a population of 70,000 or 80,000 could be supplied, which was much greater than the population of Bath, Twerton, and Weston. He had never known an instance of a company being allowed to compete within the limits of a supply of a Corporation, nor a Corporation competing within the limits of a company. It would be a waste of money, and he would not advise a client to invest in the scheme of the West Gloucestershire Company to supply West Twerton.

Mr. Alfred Mitchell, engineer to the Bath Corporation, made the following statement:—The point that the daily supply of water had reached was in 1884, when it was 1,008,000 gallons per day. If the Corporation purchased the Midford Springs, another 170,000 gallons per day would be secured. At present the Corporation rented 30,000 gallons per day, and Dr. Parfitt, who owned the water, supplied another 30,000 gallons to houses in the district. At present the Corporation supplied 9854 houses, including Twerton and Weston. It was practicable to supply all the houses in West Twerton, excepting some on Rush-hill, which were already supplied by Dr. Parfitt. The one million gallons added to the 170,000 gallons from Midford would supply over 20 gallons per head to the city. The average per head in the districts on the constant supply system, checked by the waste water meters, was 13.9 gallons, which included water used for street watering and all purposes. The change from an intermittent to a constant supply must be gradually introduced. Application had been made to the Local Government Board to borrow £20,000, of which £12,500 was for the waste water meters. It was intended to extend the constant supply system to East Twerton and all the districts in the city. The supply he had spoken of was independent of the eleven million gallons which was stored. Since 1883 there had been twelve complaints of the water supply from East Twerton. The Corporation had land upon which two reservoirs could be constructed, each to hold twelve million gallons of water. Another source of increase, which would be abundant for the city and district, was the St. Catherine's Valley, where water could be purchased. On Saturday there were 5000 gallons per minute passing down the brook there from springs which could be purchased and easily directed into mains. In 1884 he ascertained that in West Twerton there was no demand for Corporation water, as they all seemed to have good pumps.

Mr. Bartram, chairman of the Water Committee, informed the Committee that in 1886 the Committee recommended an increased supply from the St. Catherine's springs, at a cost of £32,000, but the Council said they ought first to try a less expensive plan, and the waste water meters were tried. They had exceeded all expectation, and within the last three months the consumption per head in one district had been reduced from 37 gallons to 12 gallons. In November, 1886, the Cold Water Committee stated that they were not prepared to supply West Twerton, and would offer no opposition to the West Gloucestershire Company doing so. They were not then prepared to do it because West Twerton was in a very different position as regarded the character of its population from East Twerton.

The brief examination of Mr. Joseph Day, engineer to Dr. Parfitt's waterworks at Midford—who stated *inter alia* that the large spring they were pumping now yielded from 140,000 gallons to 150,000 gallons a day, and there were smaller springs that would bring up the yield to 200,000 gallons—completed the case for the Bath Corporation.

The Committee next took up the Bill of the North-east Somerset Company in order to decide upon the two projects together. Of the evidence called for this Bill, we need only give that of Mr. Easton, C.E., who stated that he had made sixty or seventy waterworks, and was now consulting engineer to about twenty Corporations and companies. In November last he looked into the question of supplying Weston and Twerton, and he then advised the larger scheme which was now proposed. The whole district was comparatively destitute of water in the summer. He did not know in November that the West Gloucestershire Company proposed to supply Weston and Twerton. He knew the district well, and selected Keynsham as a most likely place to find water. He proposed to sink a well into the new red sandstone series at Keynsham, at a surface level of 155ft. above the sea level; to pump the water into a covered reservoir to contain 250,000 gallons at a top water level of about 175ft. above the sea. That would supply a population of 11,000 people, including Weston and Twerton. From that reservoir he then intended to force water to the upper district under pressure, a plan he had frequently adopted at other places. He proposed to have two engines, so that he could give both upper and lower districts a constant supply; but he only proposed to bind himself to supply the lower district. He proposed to lay 11½ miles of pipes for the lower, and 45 miles for the upper district. These pipes would go through every village in the district except Midsomer Norton, which was not included in the Bill, as it had a supply of its own. The cost would be £38,000, and there was a good prospect of from 5 per cent. to 7 per cent. dividend. His own knowledge of the district convinced him that it was not necessary to have to prove that there was water. He objected to go nearer to Radstock for water, because the well might flood the coal mines. The whole of the works could be done in a year; he had done much larger works in that time.

The Committee eventually rejected the North-east Somerset Bill, and passed that of the West Gloucestershire Company, without calling upon counsel for the latter measure to address them a second time in the customary manner.

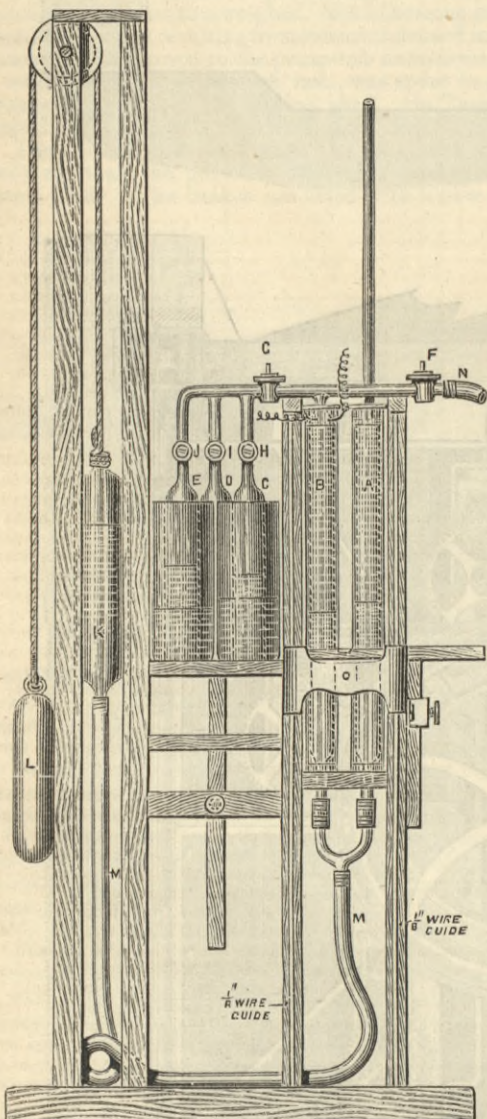


FIG. 2.—MR. J. E. STEAD'S APPARATUS FOR ANALYSES OF PRODUCTS OF COMBUSTION—SCALE ½.

and below the blast nozzle. B is a receiver into which the mercury can flow through the pointed pipe and cock E. G is an india-rubber pipe connecting the bottoms of the two vessels, and capable of control by the cock F. The vessel A being full of mercury, and vessel B empty, the cocks E and F closed, the pipe H is connected to the desired point of the smoke-box, the cocks D and C are opened, and sufficient of the products sucked through the tube I to ensure all the air being withdrawn. The cock C is then closed, the cock E opened, and the mercury allowed to flow out at any desired speed. The products of combustion are thus drawn in through the pipe H, and the sample in A may be collected either in a few minutes or in as many hours as may be desired, and it is evident that an average sample will be



RAILWAY MATTERS.

It is stated that the construction of the Delagoa Bay Railway is progressing rapidly.

THE Birmingham railway carriage and wagon builders are busy. The demand on South American, Indian, and other export account is considerably better than it has been for some years past.

In spite of the circumstance that the cantons of Geneva and Neuchatel have refused to grant any money towards the construction of the tunnel through the Simplon, the prospect of the scheme being carried out is good.

THE construction of the Trunk Railway of New Zealand is being steadily proceeded with. At present it is passing through the valley of the Waipa, which is an exceedingly fertile country.

A WELL-KNOWN railway chief engineer writes:—"I am very busy with the line this hot weather; in 25 miles 42 rails have had to be cut off 4in., that is 14ft., and afterwards as equally divided as possible."

THE Russian railway system increased in 1886 to the extent of 1268 versts, the following additions having been opened for public traffic:—From Kisil-Arwat to Amu-Darja, 788 versts;

OUR Birmingham correspondent notes that "the rapid development of railways in South America, India, and other distant countries continues to afford to local engineers very acceptable enquiries for wheels and axles, bridges, and similar work.

IN view of the many shocking accidents on American lines, the New York Legislature has passed a Bill excluding coal stoves from passenger cars on the railroads of the State. After May 1st, 1888, it will be unlawful for a company "to heat its passenger cars on other than mixed trains by any stove or furnace kept inside the cars or suspended therefrom,"

SPEAKING of the bridge which failed so disastrously in the States a short time since, the American Engineering News says:—"There is to be no mistake this time about the new 'tin bridge,' work on which we are informed has begun.

For poor human nature a pendulum seems That must constantly vibrate between two extremes.

There will be no great harm done, and yet it seems almost a pity, for half the money that the new stone arch will cost would build a solid plate girder with a buckle-plate floor and stone ballast on top of it, which would be to all intents and purposes as solid and as safe as an earth embankment, while it would leave the beautiful road which now passes under the bridge undisfigured.

THE Iowa Railroad Commissioners' report for 1886 contains a classified summary of car-coupling accidents for the past nine years, showing that during that time in the State of Iowa 131 employes have been killed and 965 severely injured.

In coupling cars	Killed.	Severely injured.	Total.	Ratio of killed to injured
459	4073	4532	1 to 8.9	

The indications are, as we have already seen, that the slighter injuries would bring up the ratio of injured to killed to something like that in the Baltimore and Ohio and Lake Shore experience. Doing this, and distributing the various injuries, as respects their nature and severity, about in the proportion of the Baltimore and Ohio experience, we obtain as the appalling totals of the apparent annual injuries to servants from coupling cars in the United States, 459 killed, 4073 severely injured, and 13,770 not seriously injured, or 18,302 in all—one-half more than the casualties to the United States army in the great battle of the Wilderness, though the number killed is not one-fourth as great."

NOTES AND MEMORANDA.

THE deaths registered in twenty-eight great towns of England and Wales correspond to an annual rate of 18.1 per 1000 of their aggregate population.

ADULTERATION of flour by means of the flour of inferior grains may be ascertained by pouring upon a spoonful of flour a little pure ammonia. If the flour be wholly of wheat, the ammonia will render it of a yellow colour, but if it be adulterated with maize, the ammonia will turn it to a pale brown, and if it be adulterated with pease or bean flour, it will become a darker brown.

IN London during the week ending the 2nd inst., 2735 births and 1,338 deaths were registered. Allowance made for increase of population, the births exceeded by 49, whereas the deaths were 157 below, the average numbers in the corresponding weeks of the last ten years.

THE number of hours of bright sunshine recorded by Campbell's sunshine instrument at the Greenwich Observatory during 1886 was 1228, which is about twenty hours above the average of the preceding nine years.

THE mean temperature of the year 1886 at Greenwich was 48.7 deg., being 0.6 deg. below the average of the preceding forty-five years. The highest air temperature in the shade was 89.8 deg. on July 6th, and the lowest 16.5, on January 7th.

SUPERFICIAL tension in liquids being, like the magnetic state, an essentially molecular phenomenon, we might expect that it and phenomena depending on it would be modified by action of an intense magnetic field.

A PAPER was read at a recent meeting of the Physical Society on "Comparing Capacities," by Mr. E. C. Rivington. It is an investigation of the conditions under which the integral current through a galvanometer in a balanced Wheatstone's bridge is zero, when the battery circuit is broken, two adjacent arms A and D of the bridge being shunted by condensers of capacities K1 and K2.

which a telephone may replace the galvanometer are  $\frac{K_1}{K_2} = \frac{C}{B}$ . The case where all the arms have self-induction is investigated.

EXPERIMENTS have been recently made by S. Leone—Gazetta Chimica Italiana—as to how organic substances in water are affected by development of bacteria. He used distilled water, to which a little gelatine was added.

At a recent meeting of the Berlin Physical Society, the president gave an account of a communication which had been made by Siemens at the last meeting of the Akademie der Wissenschaft, describing a method of making steel tubes or cylinders.

HERR A. LEDEBUR has been making experiments on the behaviour of pig iron when heated in wood charcoal, which are described in Stahl u. Eisen. In earlier experiments the samples of pig iron employed contained but little manganese and phosphorus, and were comparatively rich in silicon.

Fibrous wrought iron	from 0.10 to 0.58 per cent.
Thomas steel	" 0.11 to 0.26 "
Cast steel	" 0.40 to 0.65 "

Similarly in a manganiferous (2.75 per cent. Mn) cast iron for the Thomas process the carbon had increased from 2.63 to 3.27 per cent., whilst in a refined Lowmoor iron, with but a trace of manganese, it was constant at 3.5 per cent.; in all the other specimens there was actually a diminution in the amount of carbon.

MISCELLANEA.

MESSRS. WHEATLEY, PRICE, KIRK, AND GOULTY announce a sale of engineers' and contractors' plant on the 21st inst., at Bankside.

THE Carron Company has secured the contract for supplying the cast iron cylinders for the first of the artesian wells which are to be sunk for the London Corporation.

THE Association of Sanitary and Municipal Engineers are meeting to-day and to-morrow at Leicester. To-morrow after assembling in the Town Hall at nine a.m., several excursions will be made to quarries and elsewhere.

MESSRS. HOLDEN AND BROOKE, of Salford, have dissolved partnership, and the business has been converted into a Limited Liability Company, under the title of Holden and Brooke, Limited.

AN even half of a trestle, a mile and a-half long, over the Columbia slough at Portland, Oregon, fell over like a row of bricks, on May 22nd, but fortunately did no damage, except, says the American Engineering News, to the reputation of the man who built it.

ON the 5th inst. a law was published at St. Petersburg decreeing the payment of the following import duties on metallic and mineral ores, excepting copper ores or zinc ores, graphite in lumps or powder, as also on iron, 7 gold copecs; on iron and steel manufactures which have not been tooled, as anchors, nails, hooks, bells, mortars, and railway appliances, 120 gold copecs per pud.

A FINANCIAL contemporary has sent a reporter to see a water battery, and forthwith announces to the world that the light of the future is to be seen at a certain place in London, and that the wonderful battery will yield as much electric light for £1 3s. 8d. as gas at 2s. 9d. will yield for £2 2s.

ATTENTION is again being drawn to the growth of the sandbank across the Dee below Port Connahs Quay which is making navigation more than ever dangerous. The schooner Aeron Queen, of Carnarvon, got aground in coming up and in going out; and the vessel John and Ann, of Riga, while being towed up took bank and had to be lightened before getting into port.

THE Birmingham, Tame, and Rea District Drainage Board have, upon the recommendation of their works committee, resolved to ask the sanction of the Local Government Board for their borrowing of an additional loan of £20,000.

A NEW sewage scheme is proposed for Wolverhampton. It is the design of Mr. R. E. W. Berrington, the borough engineer, and is expected to overcome the difficulties which have long been experienced from an insufficient sewage service.

A COMPANY is announced called the Natural Portland Cement Company, and is said to be formed to acquire and develop, in Cambridgeshire, land consisting of 230 acres of "extensive deposits of natural cement, fine lias lime, and brick earth.

GOOD progress is being made in the negotiations for constructing a ship canal between Birmingham and the Bristol Channel. With a view to acquainting themselves more fully with the engineering details of the scheme, the committee of the Birmingham Corporation accepted an offer made this week by the directors of the Sharpness Docks and Gloucester and Birmingham Navigation Company to inspect the route by steamboat.

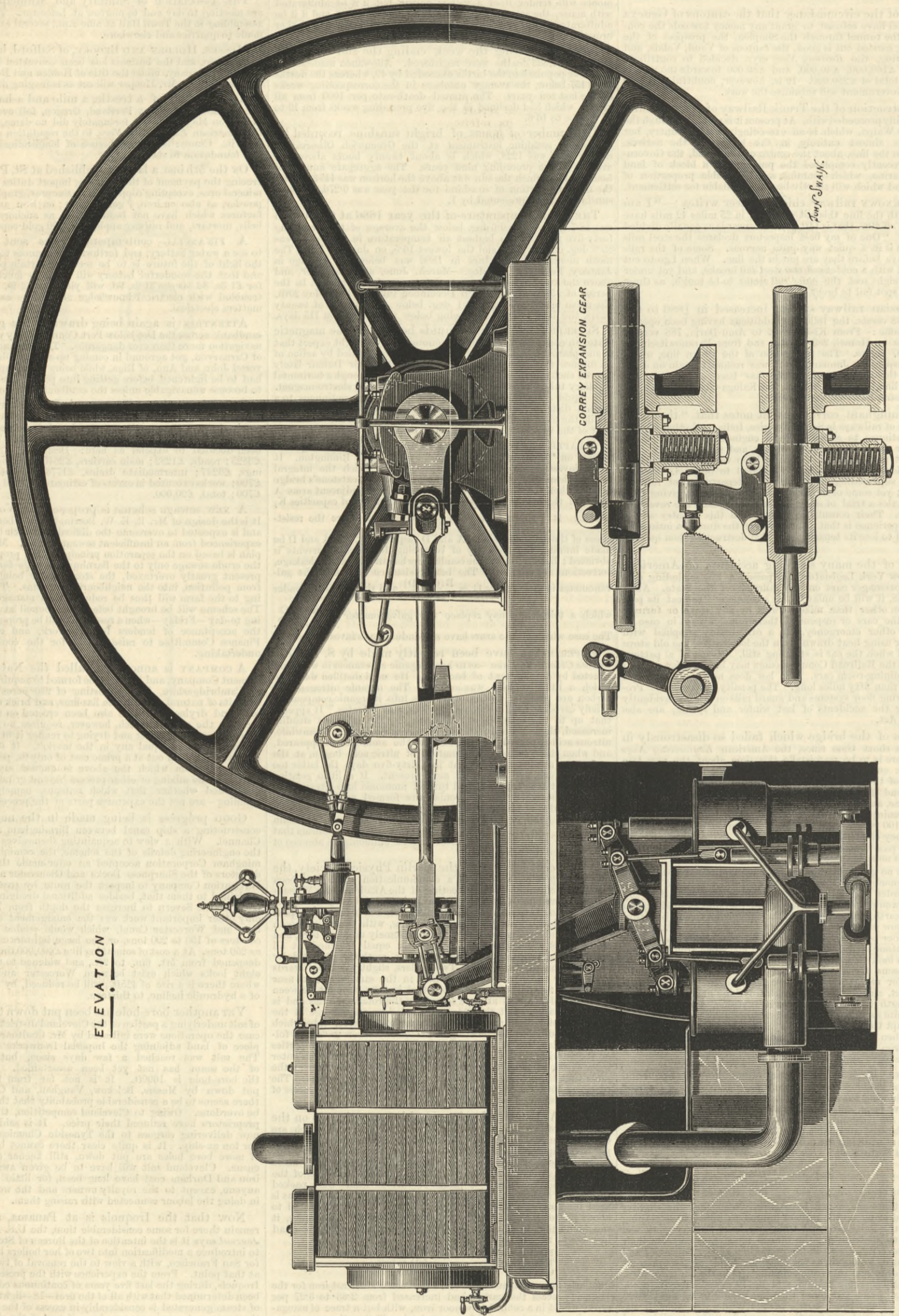
YET another bore-hole has been put down to the stratum of salt underlying a portion of the Cleveland district. In the present case the operations were initiated by Mr. Coulthard, who owns the piece of land adjoining the Imperial Ironworks at South Bank.

Now that the Iroquois is at Panama, and likely to remain there for some considerable time, the U.S. Army and Navy Journal says it is the intention of the Bureau of Steam Engineering to introduce a modification into two of her boilers before departure for San Francisco, with a view to the removal of two on her arrival at that point.

COMPOUND ENGINE-LAUBARDEMENT FLOUR MILL.

MESSRS. T. POWELL AND CO., ROUEN, ENGINEERS

(For description see page 55.)



ELEVATION

CORREY EXPANSION GEAR

J. M. S. N. A. Y.

FOREIGN AGENTS FOR THE SALE OF THE ENGINEER.

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

PUBLISHER'S NOTICE.

Next week a Double Number of THE ENGINEER will be published, containing the Index to the Sixty-third Volume, and also a Supplementary Engraving showing the large Compound Condensing Engines, Pumps, and Engine-house erected at Hampton, for the Southwark and Vauxhall Water Company, from the designs of Mr. J. W. Restler, M.I.C.E., by Messrs. Richard Moreland and Son, of London. Price of the Double Number, 1s.

CONTENTS.

Table listing contents of THE ENGINEER, July 15th, 1887, including sections like MODERN MILLING, RESULTS OF SIMPLE AND COMPOUND ENGINE TRIALS, and ARTICLES.

THE ENGINEER.

JULY 15, 1887.

THE MALIGAKANDA RESERVOIR.

SINCE we last noticed the regrettable failure of this important work, which was designed for the water supply to the City of Colombo, Ceylon, further important details have come to hand as to the character of the cracks through which the water escaped from the reservoir. We had expected that ere this we should have learned the nature of the report of the Commission locally appointed to inquire into the matter; but, as we are informed, that report has been withheld from publication pending its reference to those with whom the responsibility for the design and execution of the work rests.

As we then stated, the walling of the Maligakanda reservoir was founded on a species of laterite known in Ceylon as "cabook." This is a material the clay base of which becomes exceedingly slippery when exposed to wet. Our argument was that there was extreme probability that, all adhesion between the concrete walling and its foundation having been destroyed by the latter becoming saturated owing to percolation through cracks which had appeared in the floor of the reservoir, the weight of the great head of water admitted overcame the resistance due to the mere statical weight of the face wall, and slid this outwards until, at the apex of the curve formed under the pressure, the main wall burst, as it did with a loud report like that of a cannon when fired.

Passing from our own theory upon the subject to that stated by the resident engineer, we confess that at the time of our first dealing with this subject we should have been disposed to have regarded it as utterly untenable, in spite of the high authority which, as we have stated, has given it a certain amount of support. It has certainly never been known to ourselves—and we should be curious to learn if it be within the experience of any other one of our professional brethren—that Portland cement concrete has ever shown the capacity for expansion and contraction to the degree requisite to cause disruption in a mass of it such as formed the walls of the Maligakanda reservoir. But our confidence in this material we must admit to have been rudely shaken of late.

may have proved to be as deleterious to the cement as have those of sea water. As to this, we can only of course indulge in conjecture; but with all our previously formed notions as to Portland cement disturbed by late experience, we can but admit that such an hypothesis does not admit of absolute denial. We must decline therefore to consent now to dismiss the theory of failures from contraction and expansion as being an impossible one; for we do not know under what changed chemical conditions the Portland cement may have been acted upon by the heat of the fierce sun of the tropics and the coldness of the supply of water from the mountains.

It remains, of course, to be seen whether the officers of the local Commission may have been able to advance some third theory altogether distinct in character from the two broached by ourselves and by the resident engineer respectively. It seems to us that it would be extremely difficult to discover one, though it would be premature to decide that it may not have been possible to do so, as the result of close professional inspection of the damaged work. Months have, however, now passed since failure for the second time occurred at this reservoir, and we have read with attention all that has during that interval appeared, written by engineers and others, who have unofficially reported their impressions and conclusions after visiting it. In no such instance have we been able to find a suggestion of a third alternative. Indeed, all that has been published supports in a greater or less degree our own first-written theory; and it would be strange if, after the lapse of time we have named, any officially appointed experts could have discovered signs or appearances which have been concealed from the searching investigations made by non-official persons.

EXPERIMENTAL MACHINERY.

IN producing mechanical inventions the importance of conducting experiments with rapidity and economy cannot be over-estimated. It is impossible to say how many inventions have collapsed, at least as far as the original inventor has been concerned, simply through the immense cost of the experiments. The ways of some inventors are rather mysterious—they seem to have a peculiar veneration for good workmanship, or to think that because a machine is well made and highly finished it must necessarily answer, when perhaps the principles on which it is constructed are radically wrong.

It should be remembered that the expense of making a final machine after the experiments have been brought to a successful issue is often but a small item in the cost of producing an invention. Even if an inventor possess the requisite knowledge, it is not always that the circumstances of the case will admit of his designing a machine so that it can retain its original form when it is perfected. There is but little affinity between a perfect machine and an experimental one. Even in improving an existing machine, it will be found that this is often the case, for the very compactness of a machine will prevent alterations and additions. Of course, the reader must use discrimination as to what class of machine these remarks apply.

This idea is the outcome of considerable experience with inventors and inventions, and, in our opinion, possesses many advantages. For instance, in working on this system, when the final machine comes to be made it will often be found that a considerable quantity of work can be omitted which at an earlier stage was thought to be indispensable, and compactness, economy, and elegance of design can then be considered, when attempts to do so in the experimental machine would only add to the

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

Registered Telegraphic Address "ENGINEER NEWSPAPER, LONDON."

We cannot undertake to return drawings or manuscripts; we must therefore request correspondents to keep copies.

In order to avoid trouble and confusion, we find it necessary to inform correspondents that letters of inquiry addressed to the public, and intended for insertion in this column, must, in all cases, be accompanied by a large envelope legibly directed by the writer to himself, and bearing a 1d. postage stamp, in order that answers received by us may be forwarded to their destination.

Get the little book on engine-driving in Weale's Series, published by Lockwood and Co. and written by Reynolds. Concerning the rock drill, if you are going out to a country where they are in use or likely to be used, no doubt some of the makers in London would explain to you the working of their machines.

The usual formula in connection with fans will not apply without modification, as the grain materially affects the quantity and velocity. The velocity of the air must be considerably increased, but probably not in the usual proportion to increase in height.

ARTIFICIAL IVORY.

To the Editor of The Engineer.

SIR,—I should be greatly obliged if you or any of your readers would inform me who are the manufacturers of the artificial ivory referred to recently in "Notes and Memoranda," or where I could obtain information about it. E. A. G. Croydon, July 11th.

TOWN REFUSE CREMATORIES.

To the Editor of The Engineer.

SIR,—I shall be glad if any of the readers of THE ENGINEER can, through your columns, inform me what towns in England are using crematoriums for the consumption of their town's refuse, where the night soil is conveyed away in sewers, and also what towns have the pan system in use. I enclose my card. SUBSCRIBER. July 11th.

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

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

inventor's difficulties. If an inventor makes a machine with the full knowledge that it will be thrown aside when it is done with, it gives him a freedom of action and room for the display of boldness—one of the most useful qualities in an inventor—which can never be attained by working on any other system. One of the most fruitful sources of trouble in an experimental machine is the accumulation of moving parts through unforeseen circumstances, especially in the interior, causing them to get in the way of each other, and rendering some portions difficult of access or enlargement. This points to the importance of framing in this class of machine. In fact, in some cases it is simply impossible to say what shape the framing will eventually take. It has been found best in these circumstances to make the frame in separate portions, these portions being only what were actually required for the accommodation of the moving parts, which, when their dimensions and relative positions have been found, will then develop the frame. There is room for the display of a great deal of judgment in designing the framing of an experimental machine, particularly in making provision for the contingency of having to alter the positions of the moving parts, as with a little forethought this may often be done without entailing any extra work. For instance, in complicated cases it is often very difficult to determine the relative positions of the various important parts of a machine. Therefore it is sometimes advantageous to construct what may be termed the component parts independently, so that the best arrangement may be arrived at by actual trial. This applies to cases where a machine may be said to consist of several separate machines combined to form a whole, such as a driving gear, feeding arrangement, regulating apparatus, &c. In a case like this, these separate portions can at times be designed both as regards framing and moving parts, so as to admit of their being connected in the various relative positions they are likely to assume in the course of experiment.

We can give a very appropriate instance taken from our own experience of an error into which some constructors of experimental machinery fall as regards framing. A practical man, who should have known better, on carrying out an invention of his, made a machine the frame of which may be best described as a box turned upside down, and it was cast in one piece. Now, although this was a very good form for it to assume finally, it was ill-chosen for the purpose of experiment, as most of the moving parts being inside they were difficult of access; in fact, they could only be reached by raising the machine from the floor. It was then discovered that the frame was too small, not much, it is true, but in this case "a miss was as good as a mile," for the frame being cast in one piece it was impossible to enlarge it. The fact was that the inventor had been endeavouring to secure compactness at the wrong time, and instead of accepting the situation, and having another frame made either larger or else better suited to the purpose of experiment, he fell into another error and tried to crowd the working parts into a place really too small for them, and after rendering most of them useless through reducing them beyond their proper limits, and wasting an amount of time that would have sufficed to construct another machine, he became disheartened and abandoned the whole affair. Had we had the designing of this machine, we should have made a top-plate, supported by four uprights, or else by open side frames, so that had the machine extended itself unexpectedly in any direction, latitude would have been allowed, and the necessity of discarding the whole frame would have been avoided. But we should certainly not have ventured to construct a boxed-in frame, enclosing the working parts, until we were quite positive about their positions and dimensions.

It has been our experience in these matters that there is what may be called a secondary stage in an invention. For instance, a machine may work after a fashion, but it may not work well enough or fast enough. The general principles on which it is constructed may be sound, but it may fail to come up to a certain standard. The causes of the defects may be trifling, but the inventor shrinks from making the necessary alterations, because in a case like the one we have just quoted, he, being bound down by circumscribed limits, finds it almost impossible to make any alterations, and has to choose between two evils—namely, constructing another machine either entirely or partially, or else carrying his experiments into the secondary stage under a weight of superadded difficulties. An inventor should follow a policy at once bold and yet tentative—bold in design, but allowing the machine to possess tentative qualities—and he should remember the old adage, "Hope for the best, but prepare for the worst."

#### THE SANITARY REGISTRATION OF BUILDINGS BILL.

A SHORT time back we commented upon the Bill introduced into the House of Commons last session by Mr. Lacaita, the Member for Dundee, providing for the compulsory sanitary registration of public, or what may be called semi-public, buildings. Since last session the promoters of the Bill formed a sanitary legislation conference, and the result of four meetings of this conference is embodied in sections from 10 to 19, inclusive, of the amended bill, a copy of which, through the courtesy of Mr. Mark H. Judge, is now before us. In our last notice we took exception to certain clauses or sections of the Bill, and regret to observe that what we consider defects still remain. Thus, in section 10 certain provisions and modes of arrangement of drains, pipes, and flushing services are very minutely specified as essential to the obtaining of a certificate. We pointed out, and now again do so, that this section is too inelastic; it leaves no discretionary power whatever in the hands of the inspecting sanitary officer, by whom, or on whose report, a certificate is to be given or withheld. In this, as in other things where experts in technical and scientific administration are employed, a certain amount of latitude should always be allowed. Trained experts, such as must be employed to administer the provisions of this Bill, must also be placed

on the footing of judges, and not have their functions narrowed down in the way this section operates. Another section is No. 14, dealing with the duration of certificates, and fixing the time at five years; we said that period was too long, and gave reasons for our opinion. We would suggest two instead of five, coupled also with a proviso to the effect that whenever pipes or drains, but especially the former, had undergone overhaul and repair, a notice to that effect should be sent to, or served on, the inspecting sanitary officer of the district. The water pipes in a house are the things at once most perishable, most often out of order—especially in winter—and most concerned in connection with the sanitation of dwellings. Section 17 runs as follows:—"The provisions of this Act, in so far as they apply to penalties, shall not be enforced against a lessee, sub-lessee, or occupier, whose lease or term of occupation shall have less than seven years to run at the passing of the Act." This clause is intended to protect the parties enumerated from sustaining loss on the basis of what might be called "unexhausted improvements;" but this brings into prominence a defect in the Bill, upon which we have already commented, namely, that the incidence of responsibility is not sufficiently defined. Nothing can certainly be known as to who will be the party held responsible for evasion of the Act. Who will be prosecuted for receiving customers into a hotel, for example, which has no sanitary certificate? This point most certainly needs amending, but we do not see any amendment in the draft now before us. In this section, 17, the onus is inferentially thrown on the landlord-in-chief, as soon as the lease granted by him is within seven years of expiration. Who will be responsible, say, a year previous to that? The Act, as it stands, will not, if it be enacted, become law till the 1st of January, 1890, or for, say, two years after passing. To what purpose is this delay? Surely the promoters do not want us to believe that the buildings affected by it are now so bad that a less period will not suffice to put them in a sanitary state? We suggested before, and now do so again, that a section or other suitable drawing should be supplied to each occupier of a dwelling, showing clearly the exact position of each pipe within, and each drain without it. The present neglect to do this often entails immense trouble and expense, and even danger to health. A meeting of the conference was to have been held on the 14th ult., to consider the second reading of the Bill, but we have not received any information or report of its proceedings. Then the concluding paragraph of requirement 5 runs as follows:—"Provided further, in addition to the foregoing, every certificate for a building used, or to be used, as a hospital shall specify the cubic contents of each ward, and set forth in detail the provision made for lighting, warming, and ventilating the ward." *Cui bono?* Either these provisions are sufficient, or they are not. If insufficient, we presume no certificate will be granted; then the possession of a certificate will logically imply that these provisions are satisfactory. We venture to think that the less a Bill of this sort is encumbered with words and clauses—the simpler its phraseology, in fact—the better.

The petition to the House of Commons in support of this Bill consists of eight short paragraphs, and deserves some notice from us. Paragraph 1 simply expresses the opinion of the petitioners that the Bill, if passed, will promote public health. No. 2 states that the petitioners are already aware that a law exists providing for enforcement of house drainage and abatement of nuisances. In No. 3, however, there is much pith. It is as follows:—"Your petitioners are, however, of opinion that to do nothing until a nuisance is created is not a policy which can approve itself to those who realise the fearful consequences that result from sanitary neglect." The four next clauses comprise an expression of the impression of the petitioners that "an examination and approval of the sanitary arrangements of every dwelling by some authority of recognised and efficient standing, before being considered fit for human habitation, is absolutely necessary." These remarks are conjoined to an admission of the difficulties and improprieties, as well as the great expense that would be entailed by any attempt to inspect every dwelling house, and disavowing any desire to see "a central authority with power to stereotype in detail even the best system of sanitation;" but they do desire "to see a law enacted which shall empower the local authorities to demand the certificate of some competent person or corporation that the sanitary arrangements of any building are satisfactory, before it shall be lawful for such building to be occupied, and your petitioners point to the law respecting vaccination as an instance of how a desired object may be secured without the interference of a public official." The concluding paragraph again acknowledges the difficulty of making so great a change in the law apply to all buildings, but likewise reiterates the impression of the promoters that "compulsory sanitary registration ought without delay to be insisted upon in all cases of buildings used for the purposes set forth in the Bill." We fully endorse the opinion of the petitioners, that to do nothing until a nuisance is created, is not a commendable policy; but the word "nuisance" is not quite applicable to the subject-matter of this Bill. It does not exactly convey its true meaning, or precisely define defects with which that Bill is intended to deal. As a rule, nuisances are external to buildings, and are sources of annoyance, and, at times, of disease, to neighbours; but they generally "speak for themselves." A dwelling, large or small, may, on the other hand, be—so far as external signs, or even easily observable internal indications go—apparently in a perfectly healthy state, yet be really not anything of the kind; and therein lies one of the strongest reasons for the introduction of a Bill such as this now under notice. The introduction of the expression nuisance "is also regrettable in another way. The wording of this clause—taken in conjunction with its immediate predecessor, which acknowledges that a law against nuisances already exists—by saying it is inadvisable to do nothing till a nuisance is created," is bad logic. A nuisance must have existence before it can

be dealt with, and we repeat that all the points dealt with in the Bill are distinct from nuisances; it is a preventive enactment. Besides this also, the promoters of the Bill, by allowing so great a space of time to elapse between the issue of a certificate and its renewals, ignore nuisances altogether; a nuisance may be created in a week, and therefore the Bill leaves nuisances untouched, which it need not have done. The Bill could easily have been framed to bring nuisances created by the owners or occupiers of the buildings with which it deals, within its operation, by the addition of a clause providing that "where the local inspector of nuisances made an order for the abatement of one, at any building to which the Act applied, notice should be served on the person served with the order for abatement, to the effect that his sanitary certificate would be suspended after a certain date if the order of the inspector were not carried out." The principle of this Bill has met with approval, but we invite the attention of its promoters to the foregoing comments.

#### FOREIGN SHIPS AND BRITISH TRADE.

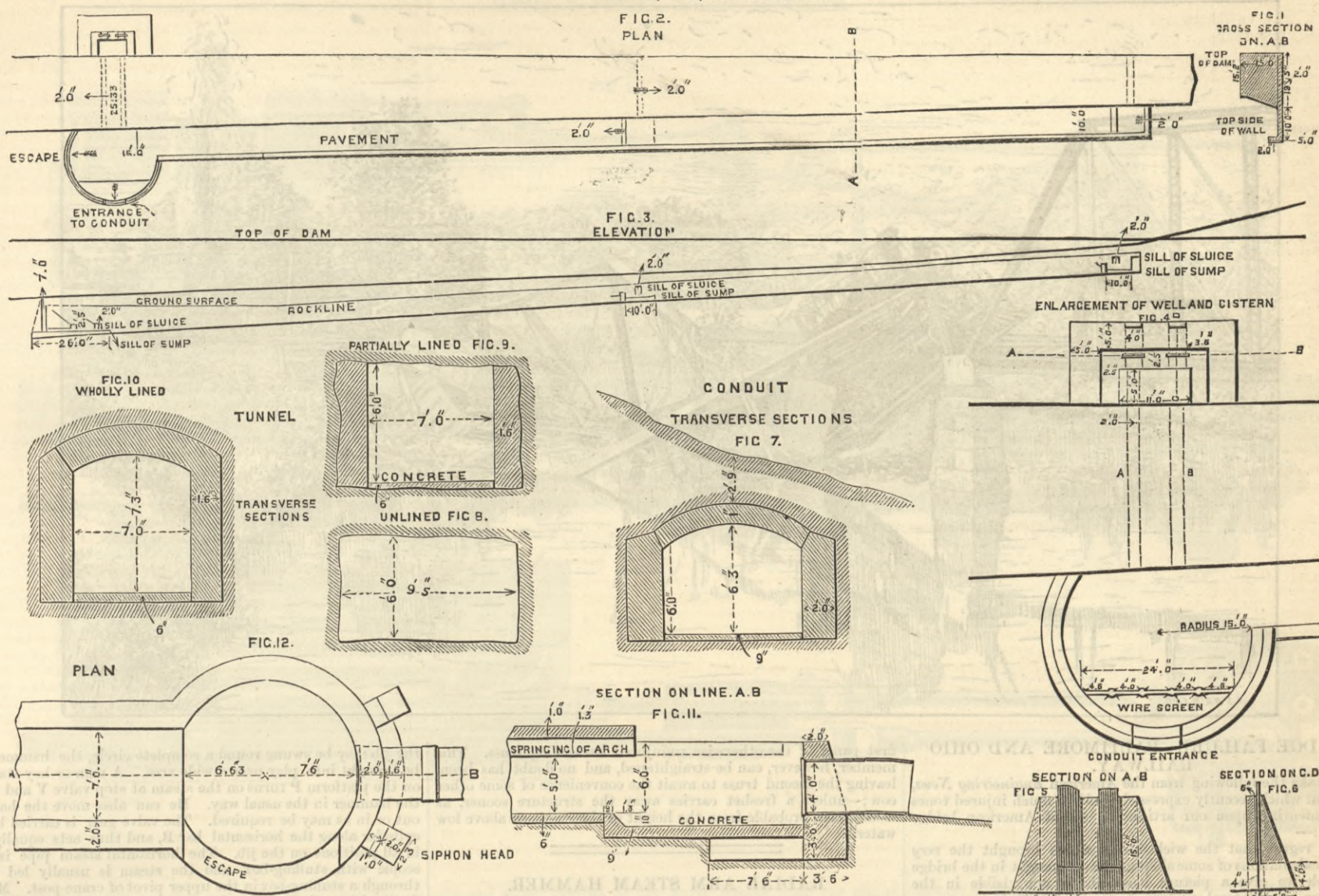
A FEATURE in the shipping trade to which we have previously alluded in THE ENGINEER is the large proportion of foreign vessels which carry coal from our ports. Last month there were 46 foreign vessels which took coal cargoes for export from Borrowstoness, and only 15 British vessels so loaded; from Blyth 63 foreign and 37 British vessels loaded coal; from Alloa 134 foreign and 15 British loaded coal; from Grimsby 66 foreign and 30 British; and from West Hartlepool 90 foreign and 24 British vessels were engaged in the export coal trade. These are, perhaps, exceptionally heavy instances; but at some of the larger ports we find that there were large numbers of foreign vessels engaged. At Hull, the numbers were 77 foreign and 114 British; at Cardiff, 114 foreign and 331 British; at Sunderland, 72 foreign and 86 British; at Newcastle, 223 foreign and 295 British; and so on through a large number of ports. When we command the sea-carrying trade of the world, it is a somewhat significant fact that so much of our coal is carried from our coal-shipping ports in foreign vessels; and as it is an employment which seems to be growing, it is a question whether there should not be some attempt to ascertain the reason. It has been suggested that one chief cause is the fact that the coal thus sent out is sent in small cargoes, and that the British vessels of small sizes are now fewer than they were, and are also decreasing in number. For instance, from Blyth, the average cargoes carried were only 600 tons each, and many of the individual cargoes were under 200 tons each. From Borrowstoness the average was less, and from Alloa at least eight cargoes were under 100 tons each. Wherever the number of foreign vessels is very large in proportion to that of the British, it is found that the quantity of coal carried on the average is small. The rule is so general that it can scarcely be a mere coincidence. At Cardiff and Newcastle, which are the two greatest shipping ports for coal, it is found that the proportion of British vessels is larger, and that the average tonnage is greater. As we have often shown, the number of small British vessels for overseas use is falling off, and is likely still to fall off, for the tendency is to build steamships in larger sizes, and wooden shipbuilding for over-sea carrying purposes may be said to be an industry almost extinct. As the cargoes needed by some of the ports of the Continent are small, because the nature of the navigation renders large cargoes impracticable, and because some of the customers prefer the small cargo for convenience, it follows that, unless we provide small vessels for carriage, those of other nations will be used. The difficulty might be met if we could devise a cheaply-working small steamship; and it may be that in this direction shipbuilders in the future will find work for some of the idle "berths." It is probable that in the cause named, and in the fact that our British vessels are subject to more stringent laws as to loading than are foreigners in our ports, we have to trace the large and increasing proportion of the latter which is employed in the coal carrying trade.

THE KHYBER RAILWAY.—The departure of General Annenkoff to supervise the construction of the railway from the Oxus to Samarcand and Tashkent, contrasts forcibly with the news from India that the Indian Government is only now beginning to think of surveying the country for twelve miles ahead of Peshawur, in the direction of Cabul. It is a well-known fact in military circles that the plans of the Indian Government for the defence of India against Russia provide, among other things, for the immediate construction of a railway to Cabul the moment Russia attempts the invasion of Afghanistan. On the first intimation of war, troops would at once march to Cabul to help the Ameer, and the Peshawur Railway would follow as swiftly as possible through the Khyber Pass to help them.

NAVAL ENGINEER APPOINTMENTS.—The following appointments have been made at the Admiralty:—Alexander Kerr, engineer, to the *Immortalité*; John F. Price, engineer, to the *Alecto*; John W. Hayes, staff engineer, to the *Euphrates*; J. T. H. Denny, chief engineer, to the *Orontes*; Charles J. Hay, assistant engineer, to the *Impérieuse*; John A. Richards and Alfred T. H. Stone, acting assistant engineers, lent to the *Agincourt*; William S. Frowd, acting assistant engineer, lent to the *Iron Duke*; Thomas P. Jackson and Harold E. H. Ash, acting assistant engineers, lent to the *Minotaur*; Abraham R. Rolle and Herbert B. T. Cox, acting assistant engineers, lent to the *Monarch*; Henry St. C. Baldwin and Charles Broadbent, acting assistant engineers, lent to the *Sultan*; Frank D. Thompson and Thomas H. Pounds, acting assistant engineers, lent to the *Hercules*; James H. D. Barry and Victor E. Snook, acting assistant engineers, lent to the *Shannon*; William W. Pearce and William C. Morcom, acting assistant engineers, lent to the *Ajax*; Walter J. Kent and Henry J. Allen, acting assistant engineers, lent to the *Rupert*; Walter T. Stearn and Percy D. Mastell, acting assistant engineers, lent to the *Devastation*; William G. Glanville and Philip Hobbs, acting assistant engineers, lent to the *Neptune*; Herbert Cooper, acting assistant engineer, lent to the *Arethusa*; William C. Stevens, acting assistant engineer, lent to the *Mersey*; Cuthbert R. Roger and Charles Langton, acting assistant engineers, lent to the *Collingwood*; Edward Gaudier and Sidney J. Drake, acting assistant engineers, lent to the *Edinburgh*; Robert W. Simmonds, acting assistant engineer, lent to the *Glutton*; Wallace Wright and George Attwood, acting assistant engineers, lent to the *Impérieuse*; John H. A. Burgess and Robert A. Hunter, acting assistant engineers, lent to the *Inflexible*; Joseph H. H. Ireland, acting assistant engineer, lent to the *Mercury*; Charles W. J. Bearblock, acting assistant engineer, lent to the *Amphion*; Charles Bannister and W. R. Parsons, acting assistant engineers, lent to the *Black Prince*; Henry R. Reed, acting assistant engineer, lent to the *Conqueror*; and George H. Morris and James Roye, acting assistant engineers, lent to the *Inconstant*.

THE TANSA WORKS FOR THE WATER SUPPLY OF BOMBAY.

MR. W. CLARKE, C.E., ENGINEER.



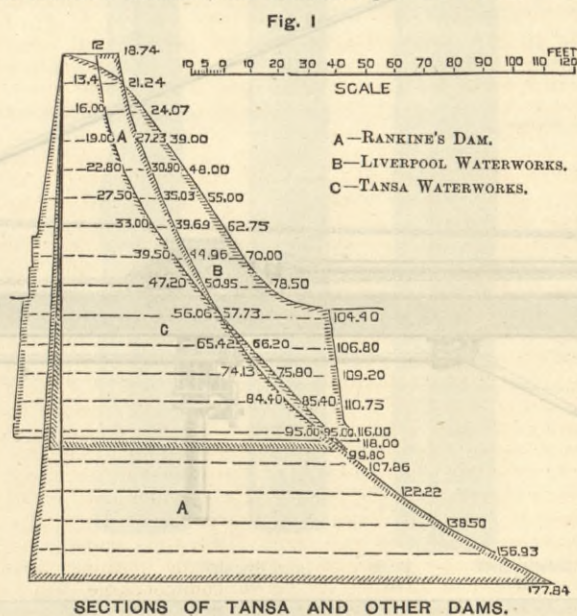
THE TANSA WATER SUPPLY OF BOMBAY.

By KILLINGWORTH HEDGES, M.I.C.E.

IN THE ENGINEER of May 20th I briefly referred to this important scheme, which it is calculated will afford a water supply for the city of Bombay amply abundant for all future requirements, and now propose to give some details of the work, which is in active progress under the superintendence of Mr. W. Clarke, C.E., whose designs are being carried out. From the site of the dam to the boundary of the island of Bombay the distance is 53 1/2 miles; the water will be conducted by gravitation from one point to the other by tunnels 2 1/2 miles long, conduits 26 1/2, and iron pipes for the remaining 24 3/4 miles. The capacity of the tunnel and conduits as designed is sufficient to deliver 33,000,000 million gallons daily, or about forty-five gallons per head—in addition to all the present sources of supply—according to the population of Bombay returned in the last census. It is not intended to utilise these large conduits and tunnels to their full capacity at present, and it has been decided to lay a single line of 48in. iron pipes and raise the dam to a height which will give a supply of 17,000,000 gallons of water daily, without exceeding a fall of 6in. per mile for the conduits and tunnels. The area of the artificial lake at Tansa, which is being formed by impounding the water of the river Tansa and building a dam in the first instance 118ft. high above the river bed, will be 8 square miles; the area from which the rainfall is collected is over 52 square miles, and all sources of impurity, such as villages and houses, are being removed from this district. The rainfall of the Tansa valley is on average about 100in., and Mr. Clarke estimates that the available run-off would be one-third of the rainfall, and states that after making allowances for evaporation and absorption, there will be sufficient storage to provide for a supply of 60,000,000 gallons per day for a whole year. In order to impound this vast quantity of water, a masonry dam of exceptional size has been designed, which will be 8500ft. long, 100ft. wide at base, and 12ft. at top; the greatest height, where it crosses the bed of the Tansa river, is 118ft. The drawing, Fig. 1, shows the section of Mr. Clarke's dam and also the relative cross-sections of the dam projected by the late Professor Rankine, who was consulted when the waterworks scheme was originally proposed, also the dam which is being erected for the Liverpool Waterworks. The sections of each dam can be identified by referring to the lettering A, B, and C.

It will be seen that Mr. Clarke's dam provides for considerable saving in material compared with that of Professor Rankine; special arrangements are also designed for carrying off the surplus water by means of a waste weir 1800ft. long, also for drawing off the supply from the lake. The outlet works are shown in plan and elevation in Figs. 2 and 3. Fig. 4 is an enlarged plan of the outlet, which consists of a pair of sluiceways A and B, each 2ft. 5in. by 2ft., which are cut through the solid rock itself, which rises to this level. These sluices are closed by cast iron gates worked by screw-gearing from top, and they are fixed on the inner side of the dam and discharge into a circular cistern, from which the duct will lead off. These two sluices, with only one foot of head, are sufficient to draw off the greatest quantity of water that will ever be required, and nothing further would be necessary were it not for the desirability of drawing off from different levels, according to the level of the water in the lake. For this purpose it is intended to use a single sluice of the same pattern at two other points where the rock foundations are at a convenient height from the top of the dam. Figs. 2 and 3 show the position of these sluices, which each discharge into a small square cistern connected with the above-mentioned circular cistern by a masonry channel

built along the outer toe of the dam, as shown on Fig. 2. The upper sluice is to be used until the water falls to such a level that the sluice does not discharge sufficient quantity; it will then be supplemented by the middle sluice, and in a similar manner the lower sluice may be worked when the level of the lake falls below that of the middle one. The upper sluice would be exposed every year, and could be examined and kept in perfect order; probably the middle sluice would be also exposed or could be got at, but in order to obtain access to the lower sluices a well is built round them as shown in Fig. 4, which communicates with the lake by two openings, each 4ft. by 4ft. Should it be desired to examine the sluices these openings can be closed by needles or vertical bars of timber 4in. by 4in., let down through grooves left in the well for the purpose, as shown by Figs. 5 and 6, which are sections at A B and C D on Fig. 4. In calculating the strength of the dam Mr. Clarke has used M. Bouvier's methods; the maximum pressure on the down



stream face is 125 lb. per square inch, and according to M. Bouvier's calculations, masonry built of good hydraulic mortar after it is ten years old may be safely subjected to a pressure of 187 lb. per square inch, which gives a good margin of stability even if the dam be raised to its final height of 12ft. above what will be the present elevation. The duct leads off from the circular cistern, which receives the water from the outlet sluices. This duct, for the greater part of the distance, has been laid out as a conduit so as to minimise the amount of tunnelling. The transverse section of the conduit is shown by Fig. 7, and will necessitate about 10ft. of cutting to the floor. The cross section is 7ft. wide with 5ft. depth of water; the fall is 6in. per mile, and its discharging capacity—using Busin's coefficient—is 48 cubic feet per second, which is equivalent to twenty-six million gallons per day. The conduits will be provided with man-holes every 220 yards, and with means of washing out and scouring at convenient places about half a mile apart. Some tunnelling on the line of duct is unavoidable; that is, the length

of conduit which would be required to avoid it would be so much in excess of the length of tunnelling as to be more costly. The tunnels when lined will have the same width as the conduit, but will be a foot higher. Where lining is unnecessary the cross section will be 9.5ft. wide by 6ft. high; the fall will be 6in. per mile, and the discharging capacity 33,000,000 gallons per day. Cross sections of the tunnel are shown by Figs. 7, 8, 9, and 10. Where the line of duct crosses valleys it will consist of cast iron pipes 48in. diameter, with a fall at the rate of 3.20ft. per mile. The discharging capacity of this pipe, according to Eytelwein's formula, is seventeen million gallons per day. In calculating the rate of discharge Mr. Clarke has used the method of Mr. Fanning, C.E., of Boston, U.S.A., who has studied the question of relative discharge of new and old mains. The amount when clean would, according to this method, be 21,500,000 gallons per day; slightly tuberculated, 20,500,000 gallons; foul, 19,500,000 gallons. So that the discharge from the ordinary formula of 17,000,000 gallons is quite on the safe side. The main is being laid entirely above ground; where an embankment has to be constructed, a width sufficient for two 48in. mains is provided for, allowing for a space between, as it is intended to lay down a tramway to facilitate carrying the pipes, and in the case of a pipe bursting, renewals from the nearest depot of spare materials. At the commencement and head of each line of piping, where it joins the conduits, the junction will be formed by a masonry cistern or siphon head, 15ft. in diameter, as shown by Figs. 11 and 12, from which the pipe will take off at its head and discharge at its tail. A sluice valve has been designed to work inside the siphon head, by which the supply can be cut off in event of the pipe bursting, and each cistern is provided with an overflow or escape for passing off water to the nearest "nalla," or natural watercourse, in the event of the siphon valve being closed. For laying the lines of pipes up and down the steep sides of the hills which are found between the head works at Tansa and Bombay, special precautions are being taken. At short intervals the pipes are built into heavy pillars of masonry, founded on hard ground, so as to prevent sliding or creeping. Scouring valves and air escape valves are provided at the principal depressions and summits along the lines of pipes. The head of water in the different lines of pipes differ considerably, varying from 104ft. to 256ft. Where the maximum head exceeds 190ft., the thickness of the pipes is 1 1/2in.; where less than 190ft., 1 1/4in. thickness is considered sufficient. Of the total length of waterway from the Tansa Lake to the reservoir to be constructed at a terminal point 48 1/2 miles off, 28 3/4 miles will consist of tunnel and conduit, and 19 3/4 miles of siphon pipes. The only engineering work of importance on the line of main is the bridge which will carry the pipe across the Bassein Creek, and this is now being erected. The piers and abutments consist of cast iron cylinders 5ft. in diameter, filled with concrete, and sunk to a foundation in the river bed, which, for some of the cylinders, was not reached until 60ft. below the low-water level. These cylinders support lattice girders, with rolled joists placed across so as to carry one line of pipes now, with ample space for a second to be added. In all there are three bridges across the creek, of respective lengths of 400ft., 1500ft., and 400ft., the height being sufficient to allow of the barges, which use the navigation, passing under. It was originally intended to carry out the erection of the dam departmentally, instead of by contract, but the latter plan has been adopted, the work, however, being directly under the superintendence of the consulting engineer, who has a residential staff, who, besides directing the work, examine the materials employed, and daily test the mortar which is most carefully made to the engineers' specification.

## BROKEN BRIDGE, BALTIMORE AND OHIO RAILWAY.



## BRIDGE FAILURE—BALTIMORE AND OHIO RAILWAY.

We take the following from the *American Engineering News*, a journal which recently expressed itself in much injured tones in commenting upon our articles on recent American bridge failures:—

"We regret that the wicked cow which brought the very careful calculations of some able engineer to naught in the bridge of which we give a picture herewith, is not visible in the engraving as collateral evidence to the fact that it was a cow alone which brought it down and no defect of the structure, which was 'amply strong for all legitimate requirements.' The peculiar locomotives will show that the 'accident' occurred on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. Its scene was Independence, O., and the time about a month since, on April 30th.

"Whether the cow was actually hit by the locomotive and so flung against one of the posts, as the officers of the road alleged, or whether the cow happened to swing its tail against one of the compression members just as it was taking strain from the locomotive, we cannot say, but the internal evidence rather favours the latter theory, for the span was so short that had the break occurred directly under the locomotive, that machine would have been likely to have escaped before it fell, as at the Bussey Bridge, and the cars only have been dropped into the stream beneath. At any rate, it was certainly the cow which did the mischief, for it will be seen that the locomotive did not leave the rail. The bridge itself was strong enough, as it had carried locomotives safely for several years, and its strain-sheet shows that the moments of every wheel were very accurately computed, and the precise sections required determined therefrom according to Wöhler's laws. The moment of the cow was the only thing left out of the calculation, and it had no business on the bridge. Moreover, we are not so sure, on second thoughts, but that the cow was a horse.

"The way in which the whole structure fell to pieces like a pack of cards under the effect of this slight additional impact, whatever it was, tells a story which it is needless to enlarge upon. The span was very small, the structure very high, and the last ounce of material had been saved in it. The day is near at hand, let us hope, when it will ruin a man's professional reputation to have either designed or accepted such a bridge. It cannot come too soon, but the surest and quickest way to bring it about, as respects this particular kind of atrocity, is to forbid by law the erection of pin-connected bridges of such short spans, and to require that all bridges below a certain considerable span shall be heavy enough to carry a buckle-plate floor and coating of ballast, and be provided with it, so that the dead load shall bear some reasonable and rational relation to the live.

"It will be observed that the floor held together pretty well, and its spring was enough to buckle the tension member of the

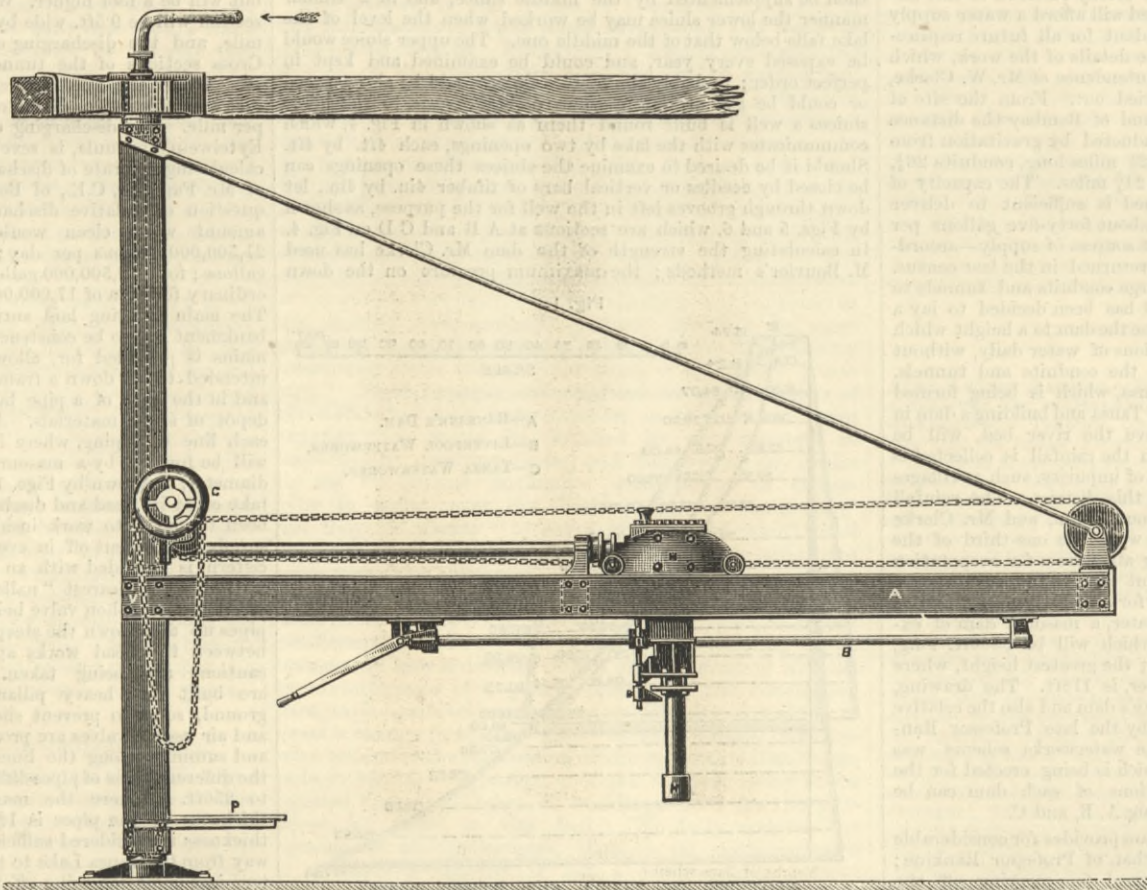
first panel of the otherwise uninjured succeeding truss. This member, however, can be straightened, and no doubt has been, leaving the second truss to await the convenience of some other cow;—unless a freshet carries away the structure sooner, as would seem probable from the height of the structure above low water."

## RADIAL ARM STEAM HAMMER.

We illustrate a novel steam hammer, carried by a radial arm or jib similar to that of a foundry crane. This hammer is specially designed for welding up such forgings as stern-frames,

the jib may be swung round a complete circle, the hammer can be brought into play over a wide area. A man or boy standing on the platform P turns on the steam at stop valve V and works the hammer in the usual way. He can also move the hammer out or in as may be required. The valve gear is carried by the cylinder along the horizontal bar B, and thus acts equally well in all positions on the jib. The horizontal steam pipe is telescopic with stuffing-box, and the steam is usually led down through a stuffing-box in the upper pivot of crane-post. Messrs. A. Stephen and Sons, Linthouse, were the first to have one of these radial steam hammers at work in the forge. It was found at once to be a decided improvement over the old system of welding, and there is a great saving effected in labour. The

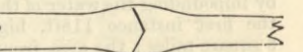
engraving shows it as made for the Parkhead Forge, Glasgow. These hammers can be mounted on a travelling bogie on rails with steam boiler attached, and in this way the hammer can be brought into action along a smithy of any length. The welding-up process as described is in accordance with the practice as it exists in Scotland generally; but there is another mode of welding which prevails in the North of England. It is by "scarf" joints. The meeting parts of these joints are sometimes planed before welding, so as to bring them



RADIAL ARM STEAM HAMMER

rudder-frames, and such work as cannot be brought under an ordinary fixed steam hammer. A stern frame is usually forged in several separate parts, and these parts when made are brought together into the required position and united at the ends by wedge-shaped pieces welded in between these ends. Hitherto, and to a great extent even now, this welding has been done entirely by hand hammers made as heavy as men can wield. But difficulty has always been experienced, especially in heavy forgings, to get a sound weld by hand hammers. The impact is too light, and too frequently it welds only the surface of the mass. Observation of this defective mode of uniting the component parts of a stern frame led Messrs. James Bennie and Co. to design a steam hammer that could be applied effectively to such work. The steam hammer H is mounted on a radial arm, preferably of wrought iron, and by the racking gear G it can be moved out or in on the jib over a considerable extent; and as

for the Laubardemont flour mill, in the Department of the Gironde, one of the largest roller mills in France, where 80 tons of wheat per twenty-four hours can be worked up. The engine works only when the tide partly drowns the turbines. The high-pressure cylinder is 400 mm. diameter; the low-pressure cylinder is 630 mm. diameter; stroke, 1 m.; speed, 65 revolutions per minute. The power is transmitted to the mill shafting by ropes, as indicated on the plan. Both cylinders are fitted with cut-off gear—Correy's patent—the late Mr. Correy having been manager at Messrs. Powell's works. Mr. Powell applied this year with perfect satisfaction to the different types of engines that he has made. There are separate steam valves and exhaust valves to each end of the cylinders—two steam and two exhaust valves to each cylinder. The steam valve spindles are of a diameter sufficiently large that the steam pressure acting on their ends closes the steam valve directly



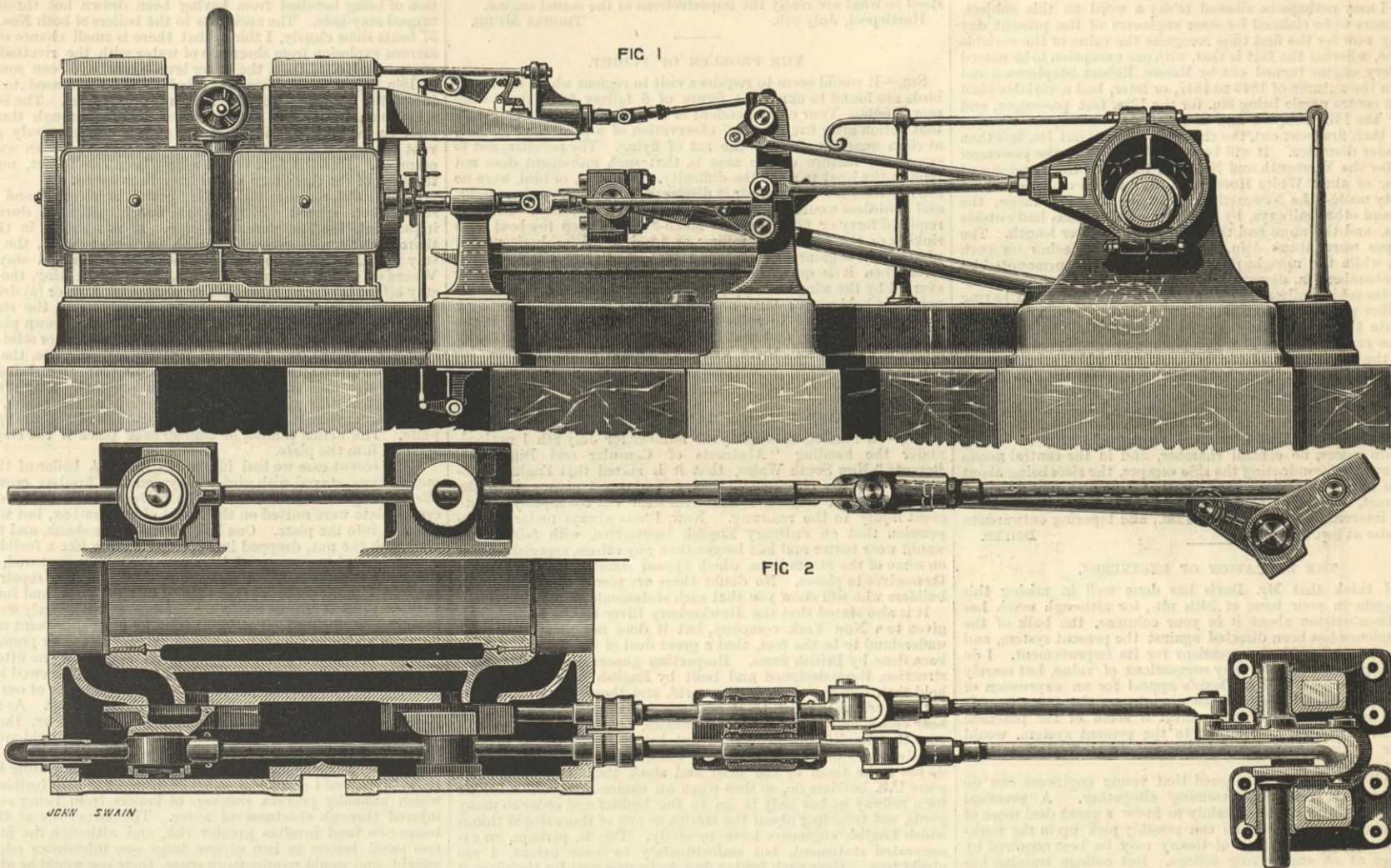
into close contact, and the joint is thus heated and welded, and kept together in proper relation by screws. This mode of welding renders a steam hammer all the more useful; and it is obvious that the hammer requires to be somewhat heavier than is needed for the Scotch method of welding.

## COMPOUND ENGINES

The compound engine which we illustrate on pages 50 and 55 was exhibited in the Rouen Exhibition of 1884, where it was bought by M. G. B. Premez for the Laubardemont flour mill, in the Department of the Gironde, one of the largest roller mills in France, where 80 tons of wheat per twenty-four hours can be worked up. The engine works only when the tide partly drowns the turbines. The high-pressure cylinder is 400 mm. diameter; the low-pressure cylinder is 630 mm. diameter; stroke, 1 m.; speed, 65 revolutions per minute. The power is transmitted to the mill shafting by ropes, as indicated on the plan. Both cylinders are fitted with cut-off gear—Correy's patent—the late Mr. Correy having been manager at Messrs. Powell's works. Mr. Powell applied this year with perfect satisfaction to the different types of engines that he has made. There are separate steam valves and exhaust valves to each end of the cylinders—two steam and two exhaust valves to each cylinder. The steam valve spindles are of a diameter sufficiently large that the steam pressure acting on their ends closes the steam valve directly

COMPOUND ENGINE—LAUBARDEMONT FLOUR MILL

MESSRS. T. POWELL, ROUEN, ENGINEERS.



they are freed by the tripping gear; and an air dash-pot, as shown on the elevation, regulates the speed of closing and prevents any shock. The catch piece of the tripping gear is kept in gear with the shoulder of valve spindle by a coil spring; but when the trigger encounters, as it moves forward with the valve spindle, the triangular cam, the catch is pressed out of gear, and the valve spindle being free, is driven outwards by the steam pressure, and closes the valve. The governor has simply to shift the triangular cams, and as they are balanced, and the shaft carrying the cams works in roller bearings, the governor has little to do, and consequently, with a sensitive governor, the engine becomes a very steady one. The resistance of the tripping gear is taken by the shaft carrying the cams, and not thrown on the governor.

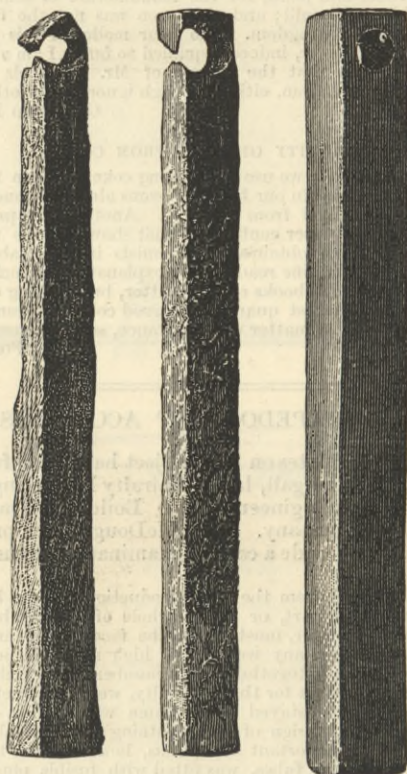
The governor acts on the high-pressure cylinder only. Mr. Powell informs us that he has only made two compound engines with cut-off tripping gear on the low-pressure cylinder, for he does not consider the gain equal to the extra cost. He places a Meyer cut-off on the low-pressure cylinders. He has adopted the plan of driving the governor by a double strap, as being the simplest and best way of preventing an accident from the engine running away from the governor not acting through a strap or its driving gear becoming deranged. Both cylinders are steam jacketed, the liners being of hard, close-grained cast iron, and fitted in. The crank shaft bearings are of phosphor bronze—long bearings—and made to adjust horizontally and vertically. The exhaust valves are driven by one eccentric for each engine, and rod through a double lever and separate valve spindles, which, it will be clearly seen, gives a very rapid opening and closing to the valves with a small horizontal motion. It is a movement similar to that of the Corliss engine applied to a flat valve. The exhaust valves commence to open 3 mm. before the end of the stroke, are 30 mm. open at the commencement of the back stroke, and fully open—65 mm.—when the piston has reached 50 mm. out of its stroke of 1000 mm. The exhaust valves are self-balancing; steam is admitted to the back of them until the pressure is reached necessary, and only necessary, to keep them to their faces, and should the pressure fall a leakage takes place past the valve until the necessary pressure is reached, which itself then stops the leakage. They act perfectly. The steam passes from one cylinder to the other through a superheater made of wrought iron, and from the low-pressure cylinder to the condenser fitted with a double air-pump. The double air-pump has the advantage over the single air-pump of keeping a steadier vacuum; the needle of the gauge hardly moves. The injection cock—an arrangement of Mr. Powell's—is of a simple and very efficient form. It is an ordinary cock, but by a second handle, under the turning handle, you lift the plug before turning it round, and lower it when in position, and so it is easily moved. This insures a tight joint by a slight jam, and there is no wear and tear due to the opening and closing movement.

The steam for these engines is furnished by a Belleville boiler, working at about 150 lb. per square inch. The steam passes direct at this pressure to the jackets, but through a reducing valve to the engine at about 100 lb. pressure. We shall publish a plan next week. No regular test has been made of the engine's consumption of steam per indicated horse-power, but the coal consumption indicates a very economical engine.

CORROSION OF METALS IN MINE WATERS.

The Bonifacius Coal Mining Company in Westphalia having much trouble from the acid waters quickly corroding the iron and steel of their underground machinery, made a series of experiments with a view to finding the relative corrosion of metals of suitable strength. Brass and gun-metal are not strong enough, and trials were made of steel, iron, and Delta metal. Rolled bars of each of these were immersed during a period of

six and a-half months in the water issuing from the pits at Kray, and then carefully reweighed and photographed. The bars were of 7.5 in. long, and had a sectional area of 0.62 square inch. The foregoing were the weights of the three kinds of bars before and after the trial. The condition after the tests is shown by the accompanying engravings. In consequence of the rapid corrosion of iron and steel, Delta metal is now used instead for underground machinery in this and other mines.



	Wrought iron. lb.	Steel. lb.	Delta metal. lb.
Weight of bars when put in	1.1805	1.2125	1.2787
After 6½ months	0.6393	0.6614	1.2633
Loss	46.3%	45.45%	1.2%

WATER POWER FOR MILLS.

The following is a description, with results of a test, of the water-wheel erected by Messrs. Bodley Brothers, Exeter, for Mr. W. R. Mallet, Exwick Mills, Exeter. The plant is on Simon's system:—The wheel is 11ft. 8in. diameter by 16ft. broad; built of steel, hereinafter described in detail; the maximum fall of water is 4ft. 8in.; the minimum fall of water is 4ft.; the mean fall may be taken to vary from 4ft. 2in. to 4ft. 6in., depending greatly upon tail water; in this paper 4ft. 6in. is assumed throughout. The wheel when first started, March 26th, 1887, had the fender raised 1in. by gauge, the quantity of water then flowing in a vein, through the orifice under the fender, of about 22.50 cubic feet per second. The theoretical horse-power of this water equals 11.50; the gross effective horse-power, taken as .666, equals 7.66. The wheel, with this quantity of water, was impelled at the proper

number of revolutions and had the first motion gear, pulley, and the belts upon the three shafts of the mill at work. By calculation made in September last it was found that the water-wheel would consume in friction, revolving upon its bearings at 14.50 revolutions per minute, equals 3.57-horse power; the first motion shaft, gear, and pulley at 52 revolutions per minute, equals 1.84-horse power; total, 5.41-horse power. The power absorbed by friction of the three shafts within the mill for driving the rollers and other machinery may be fairly assumed as the balance of 7.66—5.41, equals 2.25-horse power. Therefore the power absorbed by friction of the water-wheel, first motion gear, and shafting in the mill may be properly taken as 7.66-horse power as "friction of motion."

In the middle of May last the mill had fairly got to work. The fender was raised 5in. to impel the water-wheel and machinery. The quantity of water (maximum) was 113 cubic feet per second. The theoretical horse-power of the water equals 57.60; the gross effective horse-power of the water-wheel, .666, equals 38.40; the net effective horse-power, minus friction of motion, equals 30.74. The output of the mill was then about fifty sacks of 280 lb. each in twelve working hours, equal 4.166 sacks per hour, with 30.74 net effective horse-power, or equal 7.3776 net effective horse-power per sack of flour per hour.

The water wheel, from the manner in which it receives the water, may be designated "undershot;" but it more nearly resembles an inward-flow turbine, set vertically upon a horizontal shaft. The curves of the floats are novel and peculiar, unlike any previously made, as far as the writer knows, being so delineated that the water is received upon the external periphery of the wheel, and absorbs the greater portion of the impulse of the vein of water issuing under the fender with the velocity due to the vertical head; the shaft is octagonal, and of mild steel, 8½in. diameter; five cast iron bosses, each fitted with six wrought iron arms; five rings, 11ft. 8in. diameter, of mild steel, 0.20in. thick, fitted together in six segments; to the segments and rings are rivetted 336 angle steel starts; to the starts are bolted 168 mild sheet steel floats, curved to form. The fender is of ½in. wrought iron plate, stiffened with 4in. by 4in. by ½in. L and T iron, hung upon pins, and guided by radius bars. The wheel is calculated to pass at the maximum 200 cubic feet of water per second, and will then give out in theoretical horse-power equal to 102.00; gross effective horse-power equal to 68.00; net effective horse-power equal to 60.333.

This water-wheel has the great advantage over a turbine as ordinarily made that it will give out approximately the same ratio of effective power to the theoretical power, with varying quantities of water, the friction of motion remaining nearly constant. The *Millers' Gazette* says no opportunity has yet arisen to test the effective horse-power of this wheel by a dynamometer.

SOUTH KENSINGTON MUSEUM.—Visitors during the week ending July 9th, 1887:—On Monday, Tuesday, and Saturday, free, from 10 a.m. to 10 p.m.: Museum, 6892; mercantile marine, Indian section, and other collections, 4396. On Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday, admission 6d., from 10 a.m. to 6 p.m.: Museum, 1012; mercantile marine, Indian section, and other collections, 2660. Total, 14,960. Average of corresponding week in former years, 16,006. Total from the opening of the Museum, 25,721,914.

COLLISIONS AT SEA.—At a recent meeting of the Paris Academy of Sciences, a paper was read on this subject by M. Jurien de la Gravière. In connection with the increasing number of disasters caused by preventable collisions, attention is directed to the practical measures recently proposed at various conferences by M. Riodel. Of these the most important are (1) that all steamers be required to follow one outward and another homeward route, in order to divide the present single stream of traffic into two parallel streams; (2) that a maximum velocity be determined for vessels navigating narrow straits in foggy weather; (3) that the lighting of the high seas be rendered more powerful, and brought more into harmony with present rates of speed; (4) that international maritime tribunals be established in order to adjudicate between vessels of different nationalities. The latter proposition has already been approved by the United States, and several Governments have consented to take part in the future International Conference to which the whole question must be referred.



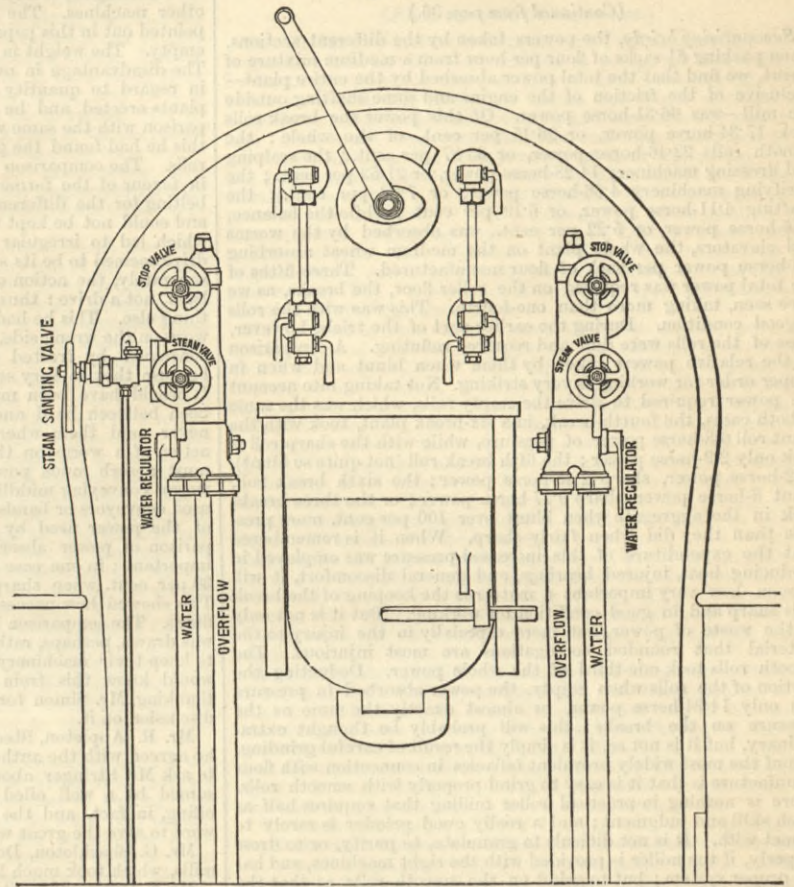
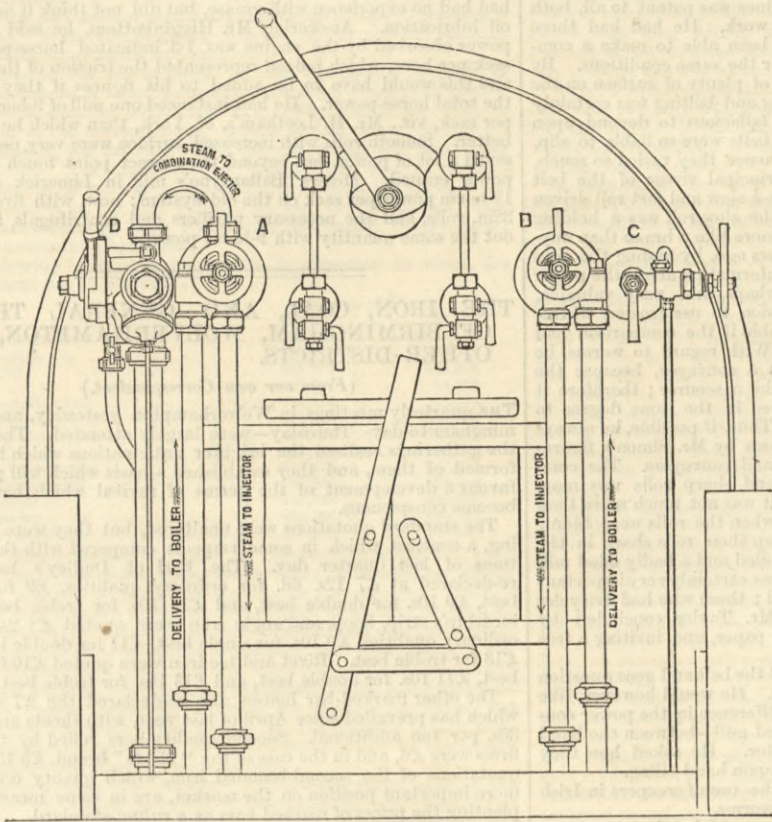


LOCOMOTIVE BOILER FITTINGS, MANCHESTER EXHIBITION.

MESSRS. GRESHAM AND CRAVEN, MANCHESTER, ENGINEERS.

Fig. 2

Fig. 1



LOCOMOTIVE BOILER FITTINGS.

At the Manchester Exhibition, Messrs. Gresham and Craven, of that city, show the back of two locomotive fire-boxes, with their improved fittings attached. The object of these is to reduce the number of valves, &c., required to a minimum, and at the same time to bring all within easy reach and under the eye of the driver. Another object gained is a reduction of the number of holes necessary to be drilled into the boiler plates.

Fig. 1 shows one of these fire-boxes which is fitted with Gresham's patent "combination valves." The valve A consists of a double steam valve combined with a back-pressure valve or clack box. The purpose of this valve is to supply steam for working the injector, which in this case is placed below the foot plate in the usual manner; the steam passes through the pipe on the right of the valve, the delivery from the injector to the boiler being conveyed to the back-pressure valve by passing through the pipe on the left. Besides admitting steam to the injector, this valve is arranged to supply steam also to the combination ejector for working the vacuum automatic brake, so that in this case three valves are brought together into one fixing, requiring only two internal pipes. The steam supply to the ejector may be used for other purposes if desired—for instance, the working of steam brakes or compressed air pumps. To admit steam to the ejector, the driver simply turns the spindle full back, and when he desires to put on the injector this is done by moving the wheel back again for one turn. Valve B is placed on the right-hand side of the fire-box, and is similar in construction to valve A, but is only arranged for working the injector, the steam valve consequently does not require to be double seated. Valve C is another combination, the object of which is to supply and regulate the steam for blowing, and also for sanding the rails with Holt and Gresham's patent sanding apparatus. These fittings can be seen on the engines exhibited by the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway at stand No. 640, and the Manchester, Sheffield, and Lincolnshire Railway at stand No. 641.

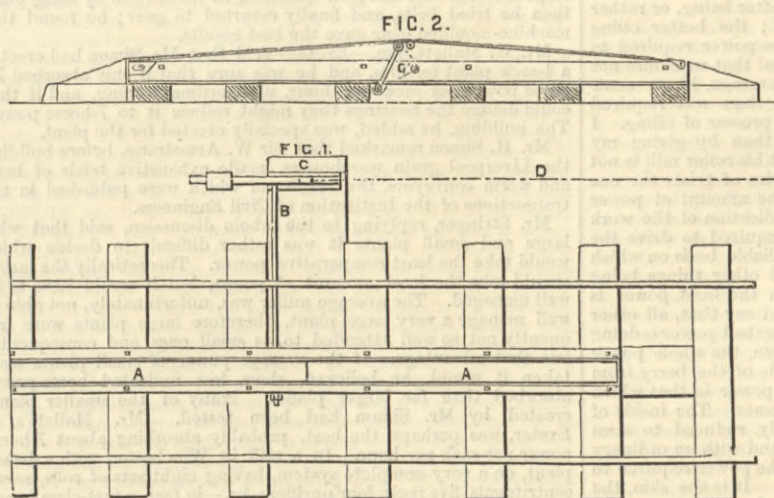
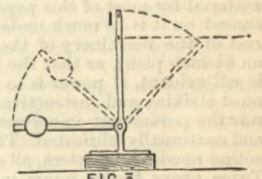
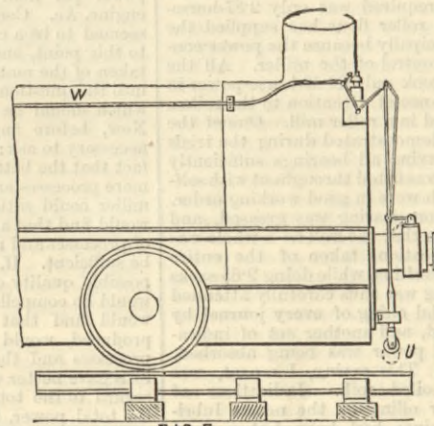
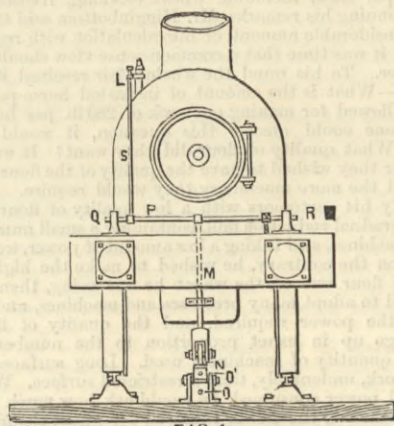
Fig. 2 shows a novel and very neat arrangement of injectors. This is a further development of the valve arrangement already described, advantage having been taken of the self-acting re-starting injector made by the same firm—which may be fixed either above or below the water supply—to combine in one fixing the injector and all the cocks and valves necessary for feeding the boiler, viz., steam valve, feed or back-pressure valve, stop valve, and water-regulating cock. The great advantages claimed for this arrangement of injector are:—(1) There are no pipes outside the boiler exposed to pressure, and therefore there is no danger from burst steam or feed pipes; (2) only one connection with the boiler is required; (3) the cones of the injector can be removed without breaking any pipe joints for cleaning, &c., whilst under pressure.

Messrs. Gresham and Craven also exhibit the vacuum automatic continuous brake and passenger communication for railway trains, the self-acting re-starting injectors, combination vacuum ejectors, water sifters and ejectors, &c., Holt's patent feed-pipe for locomotives, and numerous other specialities.

iron rod, N is the roller wheel, O is the box, O<sup>1</sup> is the lid or cover as raised, P is a horizontal bar revolving in two bearings Q and R, S is a vertical crank rod, and L is a whistle. Fig. 5 is the side elevation of an engine, showing the roller wheel and cranks attached, U is the roller wheel, and W is the horizontal rod passing into the engine driver's cab.

An engine with the vertical rod and roller wheel affixed in passing over the box when the signal is at "line clear" and the lid or cover lying level with the rails produces no sound, but if the signal is at "danger," and the lid or cover raised, the roller wheel strikes the lid or cover and opens the whistle, and forces the horizontal rod towards the engine driver and continues to

area of 4062 hectares, and at almost every point where the ore crops out along the lines of railway it is gotten by means of open work or levels, deep mining being nowhere necessary in Luxemburg. The two beds of the East basin give combined an output of 100,000 to 120,000 t. per hectare. In the immediate vicinity of the blast furnace works of Esch there are, however, as an exception, three beds of ore one above another, which produce collectively 160,000 to 180,000 t. per hectare. The upper bed, consisting of the so-called red minette, has a thickness of 3 to 3½ m.; the middle or grey bed one of 3½ to 4 m.; and the lower or black bed one of 2 to 2½ m. The whole output of average sorts of the ores in 1886 was 2,361,372 t. of which quantity 1,198,000 were exported to Belgium, 212,000 to Germany, and 38,000 t. to France. The residue of 913,372 added



KEMPE AND ROWELL'S FOG AND SAFETY SIGNAL APPARATUS.

KEMPE AND ROWELL'S FOG AND SAFETY SIGNAL APPARATUS FOR RAILWAY PURPOSES.

The invention illustrated may be briefly described. Fig. 1 represents parts of an ordinary railway, A is a box, B is a cylindrical shaft on which is fixed a crank B outside the line of railway, D is the wire attached to the crank, and passes to the signal posts E and F, and is connected to the wire of the ordinary signal at point G. Fig. 2 represents the box with the lid or cover raised, G<sup>1</sup> is a crank under the hinge of the lid or cover. Fig. 3 is the crank with an adjustable weight with the wire attached at point I. When the signalman puts the signal at "danger" the roller crank G<sup>1</sup> is forced up under the lid or cover and raises the same, as shown on Fig. 2. When the signalman puts the signal at "line clear" the crank is pulled over, as shown by dotted lines on Fig. 3, and the lid or cover falls to the level of the rails. Fig. 4 is the front elevation of an engine with a rod, roller wheel and cranks, affixed; M is the vertical

sound until the driver presses the rod back. The indicator and ground apparatus are so constructed that whether the engine or tender be running first they are equally met and come into operation as described. The apparatus has stood the test of the last two winters, and can be seen in work at the Wimbledon station of the London and South-Western Railway.

THE IRON INDUSTRY OF LUXEMBURG.—At the summer general meeting at Treves, on the 26th ult., of the German Ironmasters' Union, M. Léon Metz, of Esch, gave, in a paper read, some interesting information concerning the mining and iron industry of Luxemburg, which, as many readers of THE ENGINEER are aware, is the German equivalent for the Cleveland district in England. It appears from this paper that the iron ore beds extend over an

to 350,000 t., which was imported from Lorraine, were smelted in the works of the Luxemburg district. The price of the ores varies from 1s. 6d. up to a few shillings a ton. There were 3025 miners engaged in getting the ores. Out of 21 blast furnaces 20 were in operation during the same year, which produced 400,644 t. of pig iron, consisting of 148,089 t. of forge, 176,599 of basic, and 75,956 of foundry pig. In seven foundries there were 178 moulders employed, who turned out 448 t. of hollow ware and 2142 t. of machinery castings, columns, &c. The steel works of Dudlingen produced 40,000 t. of basic steel ingots with 250 workmen. Two rolling mills employing 401 workmen produced 40,000 t. of wrought iron of various sections. Of German cokes 300,000 and of Belgian 140,000 t. were consumed. After the reading of this paper M. Sack of Duisburg, read one upon, and exhibited a model of his newly invented universal rolling mill, with which he rolled various sections in lead, to the satisfaction of the assembled industrialists.









