

SHIPPING ECONOMY.

The competition under which commercial transactions are now conducted renders it necessary that greater economy should be exercised in all the departments of production and distribution than was formerly practised. The good old days to which affectionate reference is so frequently made were, in reality, times of monopoly and wastefulness, the cost of which was borne by consumers of the merchandise brought in ships. These were times in which fortunes were quickly made by men who started in the right direction, but they were not times in which the varied productions of the world were most widely and advantageously distributed. The products of foreign climes are cheaper to-day than ever they were, and, consequently, are more largely consumed by all classes of the population. But, while this is so, the inducement to carry these products across the seas is considerably diminished because of the lessened rates of freight which now prevail. Steam navigation and the Suez Canal have together operated in practically shortening the distance which separates continents, and to that extent have been the means of cheapening foreign produce. At the same time other causes have been at work in the same direction. Among these are the employment of iron, and, latterly, of steel in shipbuilding, whereby the cost of ships has been diminished, both as regards building them in the first instance, and afterwards keeping them in repair. But, over and above all, the cheapening of foreign food and other supplies has been brought about by an excess of shipping tonnage over the actual requirements of the world's present over-sea trade. It is not necessary now to analyse the causes which have led to this over-production. It will, perhaps, be sufficient to say that the state of the law which affords an encouragement to single ship limited liability companies, and sanctions the prevailing system of managing ownership is, in the opinion of many, largely responsible for the enormous inflation in our mercantile tonnage which occurred three or four years ago. But be that as it may, there can be no doubt that there are many more ships seeking employment than are being sought by merchants to carry their goods; and the consequence is that the price paid for sea carriage is so small as not to be remunerative except in exceptional cases. The cases here referred to are those in which a ship works upon a low capital and possesses the advantage of carrying a large cargo upon her tonnage, steaming economically, and meeting with good luck. Perhaps the latter condition and good management are really convertible terms. Anyhow, fair profits are still being made by shipowners who work under the favourable conditions just referred to, and, unless there is a much greater improvement in trade than so far appears probable, shipowning in the future will only be a profitable occupation in so far as it is conducted upon a system of careful economy from first to last. The ship must be economically produced, she must do her work upon economical conditions of displacement, tonnage, &c., and she must be steamed upon the minimum of cost for fuel.

It is not our purpose to advocate the production of shoddy ships. A ship may be "cheap" without being "nasty." Indeed, no ship is "cheap," in the true meaning of the word, which is not thoroughly efficient. A cheap ship is one which contains all the elements of efficiency at a minimum cost of production. It is a ship in which there is nothing incorporated that is not essential to her efficiency and safety; but at the same time it is a ship which lacks nothing that man can supply to make her what a ship should be. Now the shipping of an age just passing away did not in the majority of cases exactly fulfil those conditions—nor, indeed, do those of to-day; although the evolutionary processes now in operation are, upon the whole, tending in the desired direction. The ships of yesterday might be roughly classified as the safe and the unsafe. The former were seaworthy, but not in most cases economical ocean carriers; the latter were neither the one nor the other. The unsafe ships have practically disappeared. Restrictive and repressive legislation drove them from the British mercantile marine, and mercantile competition has at length altogether forced them from the seas. The safe ships remain, and when one considers how strongly and honestly many of them were built, it becomes a matter for deep regret that they should be handicapped by reason of their builders' thorough-going and conscientious conceptions of what a ship should be. When freights were high it mattered little if a ship were heavily constructed and of a bad form for carrying purposes; and since to err in giving excess of scantling was to err on the safe side, while the full carrying form was considered to be not so sea-kindly as that afforded by finer lines, it consequently happens that what were the crack and honestly-built ships of a few years ago now fail to give any return for the capital expended upon them, while carefully managed and economically constructed new vessels leave a satisfactory margin of profit. The truth is, that knowledge regarding the possibilities of iron and steel naval construction has been growing very rapidly of late, and it is now found that much material hitherto employed may be wholly dispensed with, while other materials should be differently arranged in order that they may operate to the greatest advantage in strengthening the structure. The substitution of steel for iron during the past eleven years has brought about a very considerable economy in weight of hull, amounting to at least 15 per cent., while more enlightened conceptions regarding the stresses to which the various parts of a ship are subjected have saved during the same period another 5 per cent. We have here a saving of one-fifth in the weight of a ship, and a consequent capability of carrying an equivalent excess of cargo; while, let it be remembered, the material of which the steel ship is built is, with all its superiority of strength and ductility, cheaper even than the iron of which ships were constructed a few years since. When to the lighter and cheaper hull we add the saving in fuel due to the employment of steam at higher pressures than formerly, and expanded in a greater number of cylinders, it will be

seen that the merchant vessel just built enters upon her work with much better prospects of enriching her owners than would be possible if old modes of construction, both of hull and machinery, had been adhered to. The cellular system, with its reduced tonnage measurement, and certain modifications in the forms and types of ships, have been contributory to the same result. But many of these latter are due to conflict with the tonnage laws, and are not the consequence of absolute improvements in naval design. Attention will be given to cases of this kind hereafter. For the present we desire to limit ourselves to a consideration of those economical developments in ship construction, navigation, and control now in progress, which are not antagonistic to true efficiency, but, on the contrary, tend rather in that direction.

"Dirt" has been aptly defined as "matter in the wrong place," and it may fairly be alleged that materials in a ship which do not contribute to the strength and watertightness of her hull are as much dirt as the bilge water collected in her limbers. In both cases the ship has to carry about with her weights which are unremunerative. Now, although the process of scientifically redistributing the materials of a ship has been so long in operation, it will yet appear, if we carefully examine the matter, that very much of the same kind remains to be done before the ideally perfect ship, from an economical point of view, is produced. Take, for instance, the very simple matter of reduction in scantlings towards the ends of a vessel, who will say that we have yet reached a scientific result? Can it be imagined that the reductions usually made in the transverse and longitudinal framework at those parts are proportional to the reduction in the stresses sustained by the structure thereat? Then again, considering that the stress endured by a beam increases with its span, is it reasonable to make the beams of so nearly the same scantlings at the midships, where they are, say, 40ft. long, and at the bow, where they diminish to only a few feet? In the shell plating of a ship there is not much scope for economy of this kind, as local stresses have to be provided for, and the loss of substance through corrosion, both of which considerations render necessary at least a certain thickness of plating at every part of the bottom and sides without regard to the structural stresses which may be encountered thereat. Indeed, there can be little doubt that the safe minimum in the thickness of a ship's plating has been reached, especially when the material is steel. The use of long plates results in a saving of weight in butt straps, and this form of economy is receiving due attention at the hands of our most enterprising builders. The limit in this direction will doubtless be fixed by the facilities available for bending and fairing the plates, and the difficulties experienced in handling them. But when iron or steel decks are covered with wood, it is certainly questionable whether or not a continuous surface of plating is either desirable or necessary. Many years ago Sir Nathaniel Barnaby pointed out that the weight of a ship's deck plating might be considerably diminished without loss of strength by wholly omitting butt fastenings, and leaving an appreciable space between the butts of adjacent plates in the same strakes; for as the longitudinal strength of the deck plating is determined by that of a transverse section along a line of rivet holes in the beams, no advantage was obtained by uniting the butts when the latter are properly shifted. The edge rivetting in that case should be sufficient to properly unite the plating, so that it might develop its maximum longitudinal strength. When no wood deck is laid over the plating other considerations are involved, the chief of which is that of water-tightness, making the case identical with that of the bottom and side plating. In passenger ships, however, and the many other instances in which a wood flat is laid, there certainly seems to be a good reason for saving weight in a way which has been found to yield satisfactory results in the Royal Navy. Some little time ago attention was called in these columns to the disposition evinced by one of our principal steamship companies to increase the spacing of transverse frames in large steamers. To any thoughtful mechanic who has looked upon a steamer of, say, 5000 tons, framed upon the ordinary transverse system, before her plating was put on, it must have appeared an extravagant expenditure of material to erect so many and closely spaced heavy girders to stiffen the plating and resist the comparatively unimportant transverse stresses which are endured by a long and narrow ship. When compared with the longitudinal framework of keelsons and stringers, the weight of material distributed in this way seems utterly disproportionate. The late Mr. Scott Russell saw this thirty years ago, but the force of custom and the desire for cheap and speedy construction have been a barrier to progress in the direction of economical framing which has been broken through only to a partial extent in ships with cellular bottoms. A 24in. or 26in. spacing of transverse frames might be advantageously departed from in vessels of large size, and all the desired transverse structural strength be supplied by a judicious arrangement of web frames and bulkheads. Much weight may be saved in this direction above the floor plates, and below that level the scope for economy of material is still greater. The floors of ships absorb a very large portion of the total weight of their transverse framing; and considering the proved efficiency of the bracket system in supporting the weight of cargo and enduring the stresses encountered at that part of the hull when the ship is in dry dock or otherwise resting evenly upon the ground, it becomes an important question for the naval architect and shipowner to decide whether or not solid floor plates are a necessity. At least 10 or 15 per cent. of the weight of a solid floor plate might be saved by cutting lightening holes in it without diminishing its efficiency. Machinery for punching manholes is now in use at some shipyards, and such machinery might advantageously be employed in puncturing floor plates at different places along their length with holes of various sizes, which would reduce their weight without impairing their value at the part of the structure for which they are intended.

Enough has, perhaps, been said to indicate the direction

in which economy of weight might be effected in the construction of mercantile vessels without detriment to their efficiency, but rather with the result of making them better carriers of cargo, and therefore more profitable to their owners. In the matter of cement, too, there is much room for the exercise of similar precautions. Ever since the first application of Portland cement to the inside plating of ships there has been a disposition in the mercantile marine to employ that material in an extravagant manner. Cement is cheap, and on that account builders have not been sparing in its use, more especially as the sand which is incorporated with the cement is even much cheaper. It is quite true that Portland cement is essential to the preservation of the flat portion of the bottom from corrosion, and is, indeed, the "life" of the ship. But one can have too much of even a good thing, and this has been the case with cementing iron and steel ships. The cement has been heaped into the spaces between the frames to a thickness wholly exceeding that which is necessary for the due preservation of the plating and frames from corrosion. The excessive use of cement is justifiable when a vessel is intended for the West India sugar trade, as the great drainage of molasses in such cases is a source of grave danger to the frames, floors, and plating. But for other trades a thickness of an inch of good Portland cement above the rivets in butts and laps is quite sufficient, provided the ceiling hatches are lifted after every voyage and the spaces below are carefully examined. As remarked in a recent article in this journal, this course should always be taken, and indeed is, in all well managed iron and steel ships. An appreciable advantage in cargo carrying will result from a judicious reduction in the amount of Portland cement used in the bottom of a ship.

So far reference has been made only to the economies which may be advantageously effected in the hulls of ships, but over and above these the steamship owner at the present day must look to the saving in fuel consumption resulting from the use of high pressures of steam expanded in three or more cylinders. Triple and quadruple expansion engines are driving the compound engine of two cylinders out of the running, and existing steamers which fail to make a profit will have to be re-engined up to date if they are to be kept at work. "It is an ill wind which blows nobody good," and this development seems to be the only cheering prospect for marine engineers just at present. For cheapening our food supplies and opening out a field for further mercantile enterprise, the improvement now being made in the marine engine will prove a powerful factor.

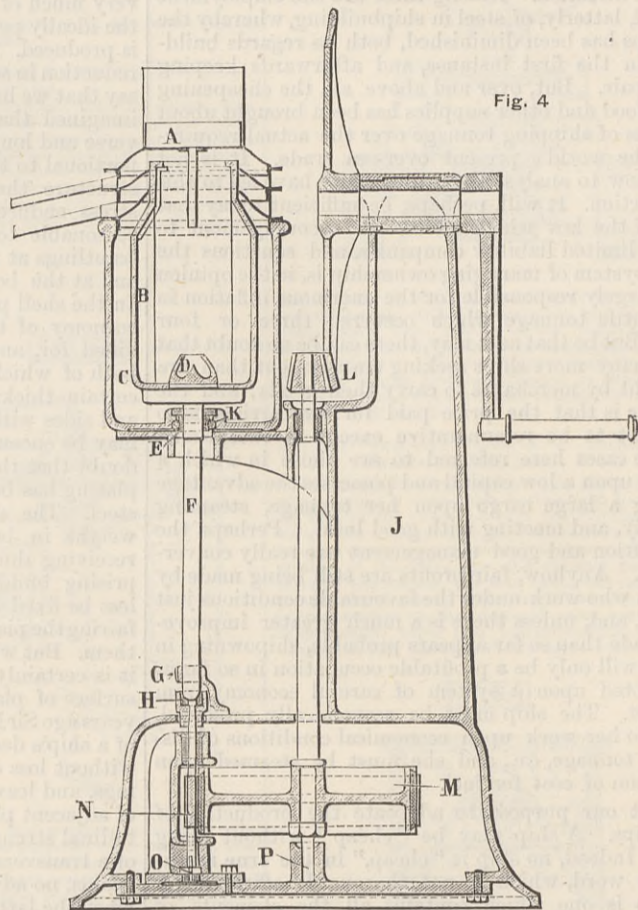
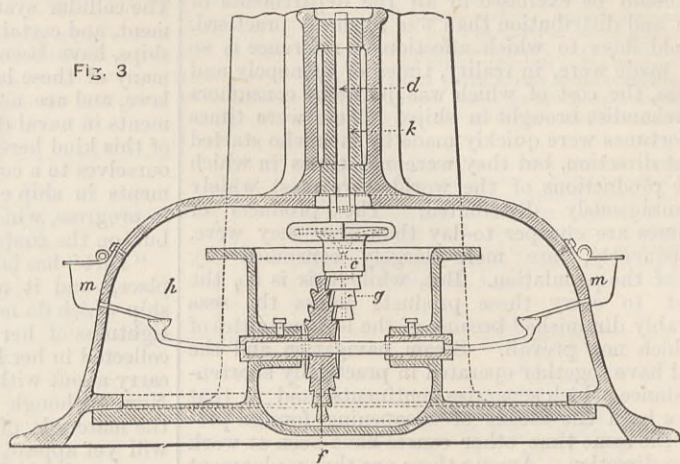
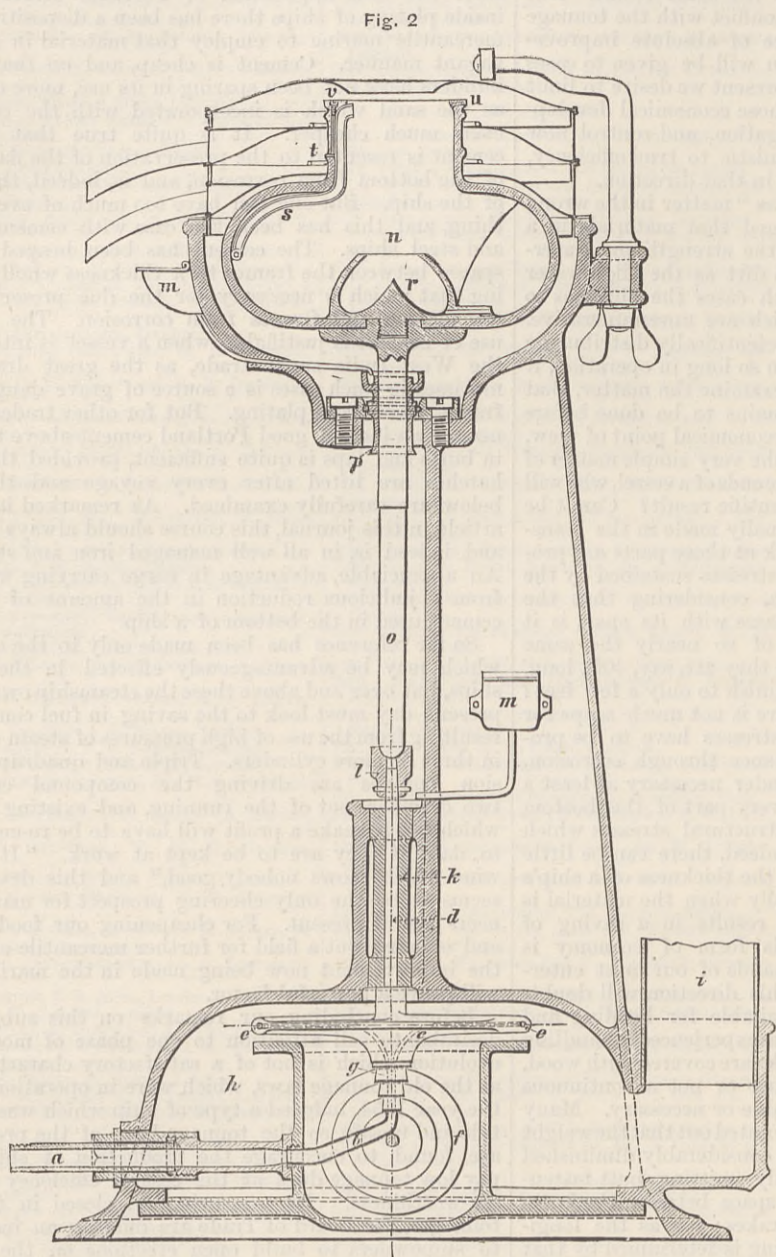
Before concluding our remarks on this subject, it is desirable to call attention to one phase of modern ship evolution which is not of a satisfactory character. Just as the old tonnage laws, which were in operation prior to the year 1854, induced a type of ship which was unscientific and unsafe, so the tonnage laws of the present day are found to encourage the production of ships which pay low tonnage dues at the cost of efficiency and even sea-worthiness. By measuring all closed in spaces for tonnages, the Board of Trade are offering an inducement to shipowners to build open erections on the decks of steamers, which are in effect water traps and probable sources of disaster. A spar deck or an awning deck associated with a proper depth of immersion of the vessel is a distinct advantage, and such erections should be encouraged, subject to the proper limitations of loading as fixed by the tables of the Load Line Committee. But the present tonnage laws discourage these closed-in erections, and tempt shipowners to substitute for them the most ingenious and questionable arrangements for carrying cargo without paying corresponding dues. We find, for instance, a long poop and forecastle, without iron bulkheads at their fronts, extending to within a few feet of the central bridge house, the continuity of the deck to these superstructures being maintained by fitting portable hatches spanning the intervening spaces. Such vessels when loaded and the before-mentioned hatches are in place present the appearance of being spar or awning decked, and are immersed as such; but who will venture to describe them as safe, or at all events, so free from risk as is desirable? Other instances of what modern competition in shipowning, encouraged by defective shipping legislation, leads to, might be cited; but this example alone should be sufficient to show that a duty lies before the Government to remove all restrictions which tend to the production of badly designed ships. In the economical developments of the future it is to be hoped that ships of this kind will not have a place. The means at the hands of both shipbuilders and shipowners for legitimately reducing the cost of ships and increasing their powers of earning profits are sufficiently ample, and much may be expected in this direction before the expiration of the nineteenth century.

MECHANICAL CREAM SEPARATION.

In no department of agriculture has mechanical invention been more usefully applied during the last ten years than in that of dairying. New churns in great variety have been brought out, and if none of them have proved much more effective than the old barrel churn, most of them are a great deal easier to work. Butter workers, cheese presses, milk setting apparatus, railway milk cans, carriages for the conveyance and sale of milk, milk testers, and numerous other contrivances have been exhibited at the dairy shows, and at the meetings of all the great agricultural societies, all more or less conducive to labour saving, accuracy, cleanliness, and general efficiency in the handling of milk and its products.

By far the most important invention affecting dairying, however, is the centrifugal cream separator, which in its most recent development seems likely to cause a revolution in dairy practice. The first of these inventions was Lefeldt's separator, a machine of primitive construction, exhibited at the International Dairy Show held at Hamburg in 1877. Several improvements upon it soon came into notice, and at the Kilburn show of the Royal Agricultural Society, in 1879, De Laval's separator was introduced, and attracted a great deal of attention. Other separators, such as

STEAM AND HAND POWER CREAM SEPARATORS.



Lefeldt's improved machine, and Peterson's, have since been exhibited in England, notably at the Health Exhibition; but the Laval machine, improved from time to time in detail, has held its own against all competitors, and is still the one most commonly used, in this country at any rate. It has been too long before the public to need description in these columns; but a few remarks in proof of its efficiency will not be out of place, as they will apply more or less to all modern centrifugal separators, and will show the importance of the latest adaptations of the principle upon which these contrivances are all based. A prize of £25 is offered by the Royal Agricultural Society for the best one-man power machine to be tested at Newcastle.

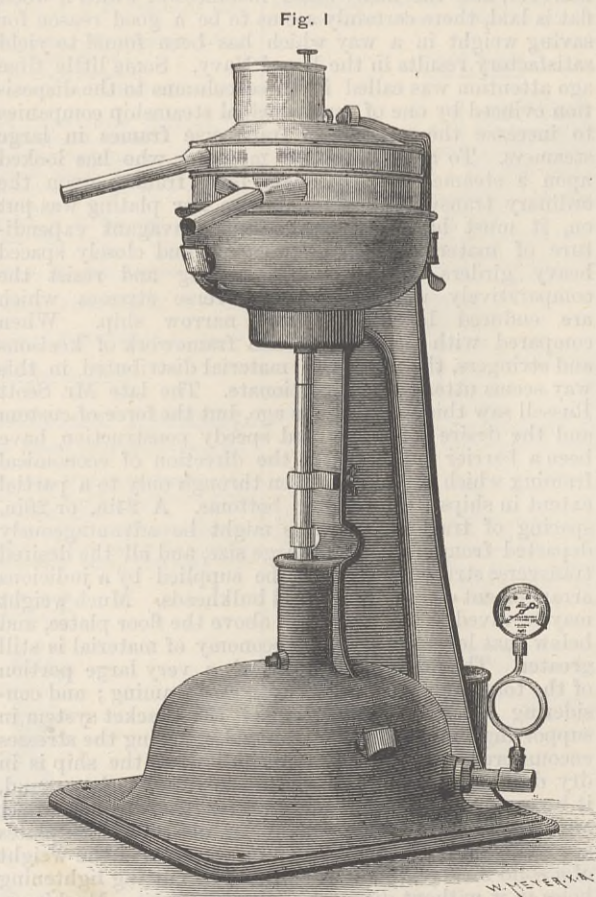
At the Kilburn Show the late Dr. Voelcker tested the Laval machine on behalf of the Royal Agricultural Society, and in his report he stated that by its use 93 per cent. of the butter fat of the milk had been obtained in the cream, as compared with 78½ per cent., the average result of the common system of skimming; or, in other words, that only 7 per cent. of butter fat had been left in the separated milk, against 21½ per cent. in the skimmed milk. A later test, carried out at the London Dairy Show, gave results still more strikingly in favour of the separator, nearly four times as much butter fat being found in skimmed as in separated milk. Peterson's, more commonly known as the Danish separator (Laval's being the Swedish), has given quite as good results, the most exhaustive test of all having been made, we believe, with this machine. We refer to 600 experiments carried out by Professors Fjord and Storch, of Copenhagen, extending over a whole year. The results, first published in 1882, are recorded in Long's "British Dairy Farming." When the separator was used, the quantity of milk required to make one pound of butter was 24·4 lb.; when milk was churned, 26·7 lb.; when cream raised upon the ice system in thirty-four hours, 27·5 lb.; under the same system in ten hours, 29·5 lb.; by the cold-water system in thirty-four hours, 32·4 lb. It is to be observed that this victory for the centrifugal separator was all the more triumphant because the ice and cold-water systems are improvements upon the old shallow-pan method, which was not tried at Copenhagen. It was the Danish machine too, that was used in some experiments carried out at the Munster Dairy School in 1885, from January to July. The average results of forty-three experiments were to this effect:—Taking the butter from separated cream as 100 lb., the butter from an equal quantity of milk set in open pans, skimmed after twenty-four hours, was 59 lb.; after thirty-six hours, 66 lb.; after forty-two hours, 73 lb.; and after fifty-four hours, 76 lb. At a single trial made in 1886, a quantity of new milk was divided into four equal portions, one being set for twenty-four hours in shallow tin pans, a second in Swartz cans cooled in iced water for twenty-four hours, a third portion in Cooley cans cooled in iced water for eighteen hours, and a fourth put through the separator. On the cream from each lot being separately churned, 16 per cent. more butter was obtained from the separated cream than from that raised under either of the cold-water systems, and 24 per cent. more than from cream raised under the shallow-pan system still in general use throughout the United

Kingdom. The manager of the school informs us that his experience leads him to the conclusion that 24 lb. to 29 lb. of milk, according to season, will produce 1 lb. of butter when the separator is used, while 30 to 35 lb. will be required when the skimming process is followed. It is worthy of notice that two horses, instead of a steam engine, as usual, have recently been used to drive the

separator being used. Winter milk, it is to be observed, gives a higher proportion of butter than summer milk; but Colonel Hayward's proportion has seldom been equalled, and he is of opinion that the separator gives 20 to 25 per cent. more cream than any skimming system. He has found that he gets 1 lb. more butter per cow per week by using the separator than he obtained before using the machine.

Without accumulating further evidence to show the great gain of using a separator, we may state that all experts, so far as we have seen, are agreed in stating that it pays well to use one of these machines in all large dairies. Canon Bagot, a high authority on dairying, is of opinion that it pays to have a separator in a dairy of ten cows if power is already at hand. He recommends a 1½-horse power engine where water power is not available, as the boiler will give sufficient boiling water and steam for cleaning milk vessels, and will warm the dairy in winter; but he does not say how many cows are required to pay interest on cost of machinery, depreciation, and expense of working. It is to be borne in mind, when considering this question, that separated milk, being sweet, is more valuable than skim milk, which is half or quite sour. Still the outlay required to purchase a separator, engine and boiler, and intermediate motion, is more than small dairy farmers are disposed or able to disburse, and the whole form of machine is not likely to come into general use. The knowledge of this fact has stimulated manufacturers to bring out more economical machines.

During the last twelve months two makers have brought out machines which will meet the requirements of medium and small dairy farmers. De Laval has invented a separator to work on the turbine principle, with a boiler, but without engine or intermediate tackle. The cost and the space required for working are thus greatly reduced. With a 2-horse boiler this machine, it is said, will separate 90 gallons of milk per hour, and it is therefore suitable to a dairy of any size, though a less powerful machine suffices for a small dairy. Attempts have been made to make the turbine work by water power, but at present without avail. As it is, the separator is a cheap steam power machine. It appears to work well, though its durability and general efficiency have yet to be tested by lengthened experience. It is to be seen at work on the premises of the Dairy Supply Company, of Museum-street, W.C., the sole agents of the Laval Company in England. We give above external and sectional drawings of this machine.



separator at the Munster Dairy School. The most remarkable results, however, are those obtained by Colonel Curtis Hayward, of Quedgely, Gloucester, who, during a period extending from October, 1885, to February, 1886, obtained from a dairy of forty-two cows, eleven of which were of the Channel Islands breed, an average of 1 lb. of butter to 19½ lb. of milk, the Laval

Fig. 1 in the next column is an elevation, and Figs. 2 and 3 are sectional drawings of the turbine separator, the upper part of which is precisely the same as the ordinary Laval, only in this case the casting is made somewhat higher, and is formed into a small dome at the base in which is encased the whole of the motive power which consists of a small steam turbine. The weight of the vertical spindle is carried by the small steel cone *g*, which rotates on the side of a larger steel wheel or disc carried on a horizontal spindle—see Fig. 3—and lubricated by the oil feeders *m m*. The steam is admitted by the tube *a*—Fig. 2—and is blown up through the centre of the cone *g*, escaping at the ends *e e* of the rotating tubes. These tubes have a very fine and smooth bore and are made slightly curved, so that if looked

at on plan, they somewhat resemble the letter S; thus, as the steam tends to go out in a straight line, the reaction on the tubes gives the spindle its rotary motion. When the steam leaves the points *e e* it is immediately carried off by the exhaust pipe *i*. When the speed—6500 revolutions per minute—has been got up, the milk to be separated is run into the bowl *n*, so that it falls into the small cup *r*, whence it is immediately drawn through the small tube leading therefrom towards the sides of the bowl, which is filled with milk up to a point vertical with the neck piece. The skim milk, being the heavier body, is thrown the furthest outwards, and is to be found at the widest part of the bowl; whereas, the cream, being of a fatty nature, is displaced by the heavier milk, and therefore forms in a layer on the inner surface, or in a vertical line with the neck of the bowl. The skim milk is conducted to the same level as the cream by means of the tube *s*, whence it escapes through a small opening *t* into the lower tin cover, provided with an outlet spout. The cream is thrown off through a small niche in the upper rim of the bowl at *u* into the upper cover also provided with an outlet spout. These spouts can be turned round to deliver in any direction, though shown one above the other in the woodcut, and are kept in position by an adjustable arm. The bowl and spindle *o* are in one piece, simply resting in *l*. The bearing *p* is hung in rubber so as to run smoothly; *m m* being oil feeders.

Messrs. Hedges and Sons, of Littlecotes, Winslow, have a turbine separator in use, and appear to be fairly satisfied with it, though they state that whereas, with 53 lb. pressure on the old form of separator, produced by 60 lb. in the boiler, they could attain a speed of 6500 revolutions per minute, they get only 6100 to 6200 revolutions of the new machine. Probably this is ample, as we believe that anything over 6000 revolutions will suffice for the best results. Messrs. Hedges are able to separate 90 gallons of milk per hour with the turbine separator.

The other new separators to which we have alluded are hand-power machines. At the last London Dairy Show Messrs. Freeth and Pocock, of Wandsworth-road, exhibited a separator worked by two men. The manufacturers are Messrs. Watson and Laidlaw, of Glasgow. Now, the great desideratum is a hand power separator to be worked by one man. The Royal Agricultural Society offer a prize for such a machine, to be exhibited at Newcastle next July, while a gold medal is offered for the same by the Bath and West of England Society. The stipulation in each case is that the machine shall be well within the power of one man; but we notice that in the regulations issued to exhibitors by the "Royal" it is stated that two men will be allowed to work the machine during an hour's trial, though only one at a time. Messrs. Watson and Laidlaw, we understand, have such a separator nearly ready, which is to separate 25 gals. of milk per hour. The machine which was exhibited at the Dairy Show works with a separate windlass and an intermediate motion, an unnecessarily cumbersome arrangement.

Many people are sceptical as to the possibility of any machine being produced with which the speed of 6500 revolutions a minute can be kept up for an hour at a stretch by the power of one man. The Dairy Supply Company exhibit at its warehouse two machines, invented by De Laval, which can be worked for a time with ease by one man, as we can testify from actual experience, only forty revolutions of the crank per minute being necessary for communicating the necessary speed to the cylinder. But it is one thing to turn a machine for ten minutes, and quite another to keep on turning it for an hour without stoppages, which are inconvenient for more reasons than one, as will be presently explained. The smaller of the two machines, of which we give a section in Fig. 4, is vertical in form, and separates 25 gals. of milk per hour.

By turning the handle at the back of the machine, motion is communicated to the cylinder on spindle F through the gear wheels L, and friction gear M, and N. When this handle is turned forty times to the minute the cylinder is made to rotate 6500 times. The speed having been got up, the milk is run from the feeding cistern into the small receiver A fixed on the top cover, which is provided with a loose float to maintain an even level and prevent overflowing. The milk then runs through the straight tube in the bottom of the vessel A and falls into the small cup D fixed in the bottom of the cylinder, whence it escapes through a small tube towards the sides. There it forms into a wall of milk around the sides B, the centre of the vessel being always empty, as the centrifugal force keeps the liquid against the sides. The skim milk, being heavier gravity than cream, is driven furthest outwards, and is therefore to be found nearest the sides B; and the cream is formed in a layer on the inner surface of the milk, and in a perfectly vertical line with the neck of the revolving cylinder. A small tube is fixed inside the neck of the cylinder and reaches down to the side B, where it terminates, and this end being open, the skim milk is forced up to the same level as the cream, and escapes through a small hole pierced in this tube through the side of the neck into the lower tin tray, whence it escapes by the lower spout. The cream escapes through a small notch in the top of the cylinder into the upper tray, and thence from its spout. These trays can be moved round, so that the spouts deliver in any position. The machine is arranged on the principle of a spinning top, the cylinder and spindle F being in one piece and simply resting in the socket H. The top bearing E has an elastic ring K around it to enable the machine to be run smoothly and without vibration. G is simply a guard, and does not touch the spindle; O and P are footsteps. The whole is mounted on a well-designed casting J.

The Laval horizontal hand-power separator separates 35 gallons of milk per hour. Its working principles are similar to those of the vertical machine; but the cylinder is placed in a horizontal position.

The question whether either or both of these machines can be worked in ordinary practice by one man is of so much importance that we have made inquiries on the point of two dairy-farmers who are using them. One, a lady, who is using the smaller, or vertical machine, says: "One man can work it; but we have two, one to relieve the other, so as not to be obliged to stop the machine." The meaning of this we take to be that one man cannot work the machine for the requisite time without stopping. In spite of this, our correspondent informs us that the saving in labour through using the separator is very great, and that she would be sorry to be without one. In this lady's dairy 20 gallons of milk per hour have been separated by the smaller machine, and the quantity of butter produced is said to be "greatly increased," and the quality improved, by using a separator. From 66 gallons of milk 31 lb. of butter have been produced, which is at the very satisfactory ratio of 1 lb. of butter to 17 pints of milk. The horizontal machine, though the larger of the two, appeared to us on trying it to work more easily than the other, and this impression has been confirmed by information received from a dairy-farmer in Ireland who has tried both. On being asked, however, whether one man could work it, he replied:—"I have in my service the finest and strongest man I know (well over 6ft. high), and he has often tried and failed to keep up a speed of forty revolutions (per minute) for even half-an-hour." Two hands, however,

work the machine easily, the same informant states. Indeed, he says that a man or a strong lad, helped occasionally by a woman, can work the machine. After all, it appears, then, that one man will suffice if the dairymaid be at hand to relieve him for a few minutes occasionally, and the necessity of providing an occasional relief to the workman is as nothing in comparison with the great advantages derived from the use of the machine. Still it would be better if the machine could be so far improved upon that one man could manage it without help. In other respects this gentleman finds his hand-power separator entirely satisfactory. In a month's trial he found that he obtained 12 per cent. more butter than under the Cooley system without ice. With respect to the need of keeping on without stopping, we may explain why that is of importance for more reasons than one. In the first place, the milk has to be separated at the temperature at which it came from the cow, and consequently has to be worked off as fast as it is supplied by the milkers, if heating is to be avoided. Then the Laval separator has to be emptied after each stoppage before starting it again, and that is rather a tedious operation. De Laval is a very ingenious inventor, and his first hand-power machines are highly creditable. They do their work admirably, it appears from the testimony of those who have had experience in the use of them; quite as well, they believe, as the large steam machines. Possibly the separators may be made to work with less expenditure of power. This seems all the more likely, because the larger of the two machines works more easily than the smaller. If by having the separating cylinder in a horizontal position more work can be done with less power than with the vertical machine, it is easily conceivable that some other device may be discovered for diminishing the force required. If not, we should imagine that a small turbine separator will be more economical to work in all but the smallest dairies than a hand-power machine, especially as a dairy must be heated somehow in cold weather, and at all times hot water is required for cleansing operations. In one way or another, there is but little reason to doubt, the great advantages of the mechanical cream separator will be brought within the reach of the smallest, or all but the smallest, dairy farmers, so that, ten years hence, as one writer has well put it, the use of the skimmer will be as uncommon as that of the fail is now.

PRIVATE BILLS IN PARLIAMENT.

SINCE the appearance of our last notes on the work in the Committee rooms, we find that the London, Hendon, and Harrow Railway—Abandonment—Bill has been passed in the Commons unopposed, and the Bexley Heath Railway Bill has been approved in the Lords after a slight resistance. The Flamborough Head Tramways Bill, for the construction of a tramway of 3ft. gauge from near Flamborough Head Station to North Sea Landing, has also been passed by a Lords' Committee; and the same Committee passed unopposed the Manchester, Middleton, and District Tramways Bill, extending by one year the time for constructing the works authorised in 1885.

In consequence of difficulties having arisen between the promoters of the proposed Harrow, Ealing, and Willesden Railway and the Board of Trade, the Select Committee of the House of Commons, which has been inquiring into the merits of the Bill, decided that they could not proceed further with the consideration of the scheme. The Bill was therefore rejected, and the Committee proceeded with the North-Western and Ealing Railway Bill, which is a competing scheme with the Harrow and Willesden Bill. This was also thrown out.

After a long deliberation the Hybrid Committee upon the Hyde Park Corner (new streets) Bill decided to pass the preamble, but to so amend the Bill as to exempt the Metropolitan Board of Works from any cost whatever, and to throw the cost of maintenance upon the parishes of St. George's, Hanover-square, and St. Martin's-in-the-Fields in the proportion of two-thirds and one-third respectively.

The Hull, Barnsley, and West Riding Railway Bill having been before a Commons Committee as an opposed measure, subsequently became unopposed, and in that form came before Mr. Courtney, the chairman of Committees. Mr. Courtney pointed out that whereas in the original Act the company were granted three years, after the purchase of lands, in which to complete the works, they were now asking for four years. He fixed the time for the completion of works at 1892, instead of 1893, as proposed. Thus altered, the Bill was ordered to be reported to the House.

The Easingwold Railway Bill also came before Mr. Courtney unopposed. The promoters sought for power to incorporate a company to make a line two and a-half miles in length, having a junction with the North-Eastern Company's main line at Alne, and terminating at Easingwold. It was proposed to pay interest at the rate of 4 per cent. out of capital during construction, but Mr. Courtney reduced the amount of interest to 3 per cent. With this alteration the preamble was passed.

The Mersey Railway Bill was likewise dealt with by Mr. Courtney as an unopposed measure. Power was sought by the Bill for extensions of the railway on both sides of the Mersey, forming a connection in Liverpool with the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway and in Birkenhead with the joint railway of the Great Western and the London and North-Western Companies. Another provision of the Bill is that there should be a joint ownership of the Wirral Railway between Park-station and Bidston Junction and Bidston and Upton. Clauses had been inserted in the Bill which had removed the grounds of opposition by the Liverpool Corporation. A clause in the Bill proposing to authorise the payment of interest during the construction of new works, Mr. Courtney declined to decide the point himself, but presented a full report of all the circumstances to the House, and leave the House itself to determine the question. During the consideration of this clause Sir Douglas Fox, engineer to the railway, stated that at present the company could not carry goods traffic, but they would be able to do so by the proposed extensions. The company had not raised any capital under their Act of last year, but they had apart from that issued authorised capital to the extent of £1,085,000, and had practically spent about £2,000,000, the original estimate having been £866,000.

The Wakefield Corporation have promoted a Water Bill, which came before, and was passed by, the Commons Committee to whom measures dealing with police and sanitary matters are referred. Up to 1877 the town was supplied by the Wakefield Waterworks Company, the water being taken from the river Calder, which was not famous for its purity. The Corporation, when proposing to construct works of their own, were compelled to buy these waterworks, which they did in 1877. In 1880 they promoted a scheme for obtaining a supply of water from the moors by the construction of reservoirs. These reservoirs proved more costly than had been anticipated,

owing to their having run into some old coal workings. A puddle trench had consequently to be constructed at a cost of £46,000, which was not provided for in the original estimate. The Corporation now applied for borrowing powers for £97,300 to enable them to complete the works. There was no formal opposition to the Bill, but the Local Government Board was represented for the purpose of securing the insertion of amendments. The only point of difficulty was the term to be allowed for the repayment of the loan. The Corporation asked for sixty years, and in the end the Committee granted fifty years, having regard to the exceptional circumstances of the case, and to the fact that they had in the similar cases of Darwen and Weston-super-Mare allowed thirty years and forty years.

Towards the end of last year the Mersey Docks and Harbour Board took the necessary steps to promote a Bill in Parliament for the purpose of giving them power to extend the time during which they may construct a double line of overhead railway along the line of docks from north to south. They also sought additional powers for the construction of two alternative routes for short distances, namely, between Prince's Dock and Canning-place, where it is proposed to make a detour along Back Goree—four and a-half furlongs—and between Wapping and Brunswick Docks by way of Chaloner-street and Sefton-street for a length of five furlongs. The progress of the Bill through the House of Commons and the House of Lords will now be rapid, inasmuch as the threatened opposition of the Corporations of Liverpool and Bootle, the London and North-Western Railway Company, and the trustees of the Bridgewater Navigation has been withdrawn. The measure has already passed the House of Commons' Committee, and, after being read a third time, will be referred to a Committee of the Upper House, so that the whole matter will be disposed of by the month of August. The Dock Board will then have five more years to consider the question of whether they will go to an expense of £650,000 in constructing the projected line of railway.

A curious contest arose before one of the Commons' Committees over a portion of an Omnibus Bill promoted by the North-Eastern Railway Company. Certain clauses proposed to authorise the construction of a railway 3 furlongs 8 chains and 6 yards long in Hull to connect the company's line with that of the Hull and the Barnsley Company. Mr. Bidden, Q.C., who represented the promoting company, described the matter in this way:—"In 1880, when the Hull and Barnsley Company were promoting their Bills, they promoted a railway which the Committee might take as identical with the railway now introduced to their notice. They promoted that line for the purpose of forming a connection between the North-Eastern system and the Hull and Barnsley system, so that traffic from the North-Eastern might flow over their system and into the Alexandra Dock. That line was sanctioned by Parliament at the same time as the rest of the Hull and Barnsley undertaking. The line was actually constructed, and the rails were laid, so that the line was a complete line with the exception of half-a-dozen rails at one end and the signals. But at the time when it was all but completed the Hull and Barnsley Company, being in financial difficulties, called in the gentleman who had been called the Sir William Gull of the railway world—Mr. Forbes—to give them the benefit of his experience in the working of the line. One of the first things Mr. Forbes said to them was—"Good gracious! Don't you see that instead of this railway being a feeder it will be a sucker? The traffic will go over the North-Eastern line instead of over your line. For heaven's sake don't finish it. Don't put another rail in." Acting upon that advice the company did not finish the line. The North-Eastern pressed them to do so, but they declined. It was not a question of money, because even the impecunious Hull and Barnsley Company could spend all the money necessary to complete the line, but it was the deliberate determination of policy in the interests of the Hull and Barnsley Company. Under the circumstances the North-Eastern had an interest in having the line completed. They were therefore asking Parliament to give them power to acquire and finish this line. Although the matter was put in the technical form of making the line, yet it was really meant compulsorily to acquire and take from the Hull and Barnsley this railway which they had so far made. Nobody would say, on behalf of the Hull and Barnsley, that they could not complete the line. They must admit that the omission to complete the line was intentional and deliberate, and that it was intended that it should not be completed. Under the circumstances the North-Eastern Company wished to say, "If you won't complete it, stand aside and let us complete it." If the Hull and Barnsley Company would say even now that they would complete it, and work and maintain it, he was willing on the part of the North-Eastern to withdraw this part of the Bill. In their petition the Hull and Barnsley Company alleged that the line had not been opened for traffic "owing to the refusal of the North-Eastern Railway Company to agree upon the terms and conditions on which the junction shall be made and worked, or to provide the sort of sidings necessary to enable the junction to be used." That allegation was absolutely untrue. The Hull and Barnsley further alleged that to acquire this line would bring the North-Eastern into unfair competition with them, but when promoting their own line they put it forward as a laudable object that traffic from the North-Eastern should have access to the Alexandra Dock. The learned counsel repeated that if the Hull and Barnsley would complete the line the North-Eastern had no wish to interfere. Evidence having been taken, the chairman of the Committee suggested that the two parties should endeavour to come to terms for allowing the North-Eastern Company to work traffic over the authorised junction between the two railways in Hull, but after a few days' adjournment it was found that no progress had been made. The North-Eastern Company suggested the following agreement:—"The coal traffic to be conveyed from collieries to which the North-Eastern have direct access by their own lines or by lines of which they are joint owners. Traffic other than coal traffic so defined to be carried only under arrangements which may be mutually agreed upon between the two companies." The North-Eastern thought that a reasonable solution of the question, but it did not meet the views of the other side. What the Hull and Barnsley proposed was this:—"The junction line and dock not to be opened (unless by special agreement) for competitive traffic of any kind, i.e., for the traffic of all places on the Hull and Barnsley Railway, or to all places beyond, by and through which means of access over other lines, including the North-Eastern and Hull and Barnsley, would form a reasonable route. This junction line and dock to be opened to the North-Eastern for non-competitive traffic only, i.e., for the traffic of all places on the North-Eastern Railway between which and the Alexandra Dock the North-Eastern forms the only route." To this the North-Eastern Company could not assent, and after much wrangling before the Committee, the promoters withdrew this part of their bill, thus leaving the Hull and Barnsley Company master of the position.

The Mersey Docks and Harbour Board (various powers), the Leeds Suburban Railway, the Hull Dock, the Liverpool, Southport, and Preston Junction Railway Bills have been withdrawn.

EXPLOSION OF HETEROGENEOUS MIXTURES OF COAL GAS AND AIR.

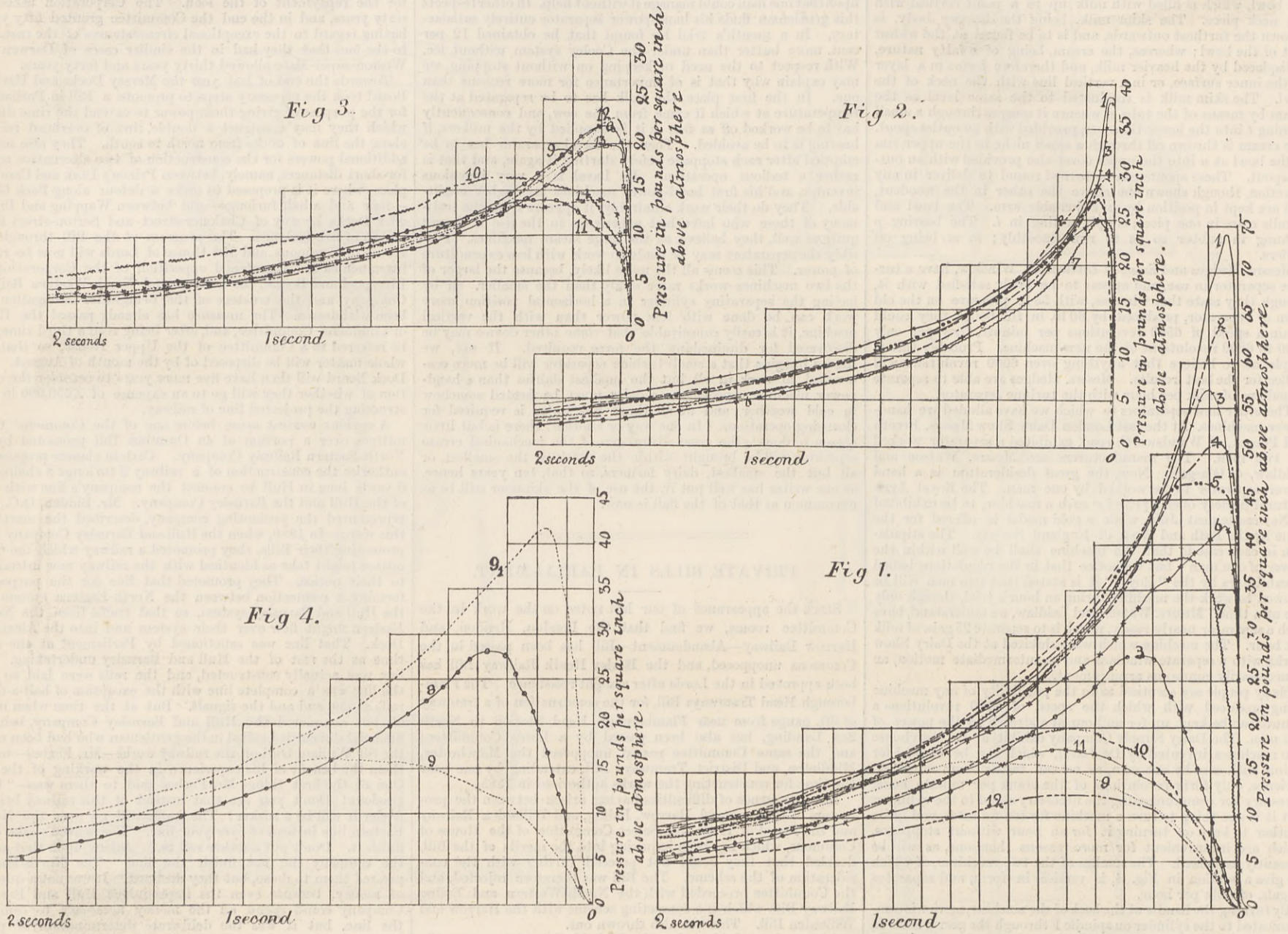
By GEO. C. DOUGLAS.

THE laws regulating the chemical combination of coal gas and air, mixed together in various proportions, have not yet been completely determined, and until we get a better understanding

heat water for no purpose whatever, except to overcome certain mechanical imperfections of design, and which he thinks could be remedied if seriously attacked by some of our scientific engineers, and this the more easily if weaker mixtures, and therefore lower temperatures, be used. The diagrams published below will show that it is possible to get as great, if not greater, maximum temperatures in proportion from a dilute as

The gas used was that employed for the ordinary purposes of lighting in Dundee, and is about 26-candle power, the variation of quality being not more than two candles. The results have been put in a tabulated form beneath each figure, and it only remains for the writer to point out the apparent anomaly in which the pressure of No. 9, Fig. 1, is less than Nos. 10 or 11.

Referring to Fig. 4—the maximum pressure of No. 9 = $\frac{1}{17}$ th



of these the further improvement of the gas motor as a heat engine can at best be only done by empirical experiment. At present among gas engine makers their practice evidently tends towards comparatively rich mixtures of gas and air. To this the writer does not wish to take exception so far as it applies to

from a rich mixture. The method by which these diagrams were obtained is as follows:—In those illustrated in Fig. 1 the gas was introduced to the eudiometer—of 380 cubic inches capacity—in known volumes, and ignited by passing an electric spark through it, care being taken that in the more dilute

ratio is in proportion to the other curves of Fig. 1 rather lower than he would expect, and when he first observed how slowly the pressure rose he thought that the peculiarity observed by Mr. Clerk—the double explosion—had something to do with it, and that the heavier hydrocarbons remained unconsumed.

	No. of diagram.	Volume, gas and air.	Kind of curved line.	Observed maximum pressure in lbs. per sq. inch above atmosphere.	Observed maximum pressure in lbs. per sq. inch absolute.	Calculated maximum pressure in lbs. per sq. inch above atmosphere. Temperature before heat is applied, 9 deg. Cent., and atmospheric pressure.	Calculated maximum pressure in lbs. per sq. inch absolute. Temperature before heat is applied, 9 deg. Cent., and atmospheric pressure.	Maximum temperature of mixture after explosion. Deg. Cent.	Calculated maximum temperature. Deg. Cent.	Range of temperature. Deg. Cent.
Table for Fig. 1.	1	$\frac{1}{10}$	— — — — —	74.6	89.3	149.3	164	1437	2878	1428
	2	$\frac{1}{10}$	— — — — —	65	79.7	135.3	150	1257	2618	1248
	3	$\frac{1}{11}$	- + - + - + -	55.2	69.9	124.8	139.5	1067	2400	1058
	4	$\frac{1}{12}$	— — — — —	50.2	64.9	115.5	130.2	977	2216	968
	5	$\frac{1}{13}$	— . . . —	48.3	63	106.3	121	937	2058	928
	6	$\frac{1}{14}$	- x - x - x -	41	55.7	99.4	114.1	792	1922	783
	7	$\frac{1}{15}$	~ ~ ~ ~ ~	38.2	52.9	94.8	109.5	742	1808	733
	8	$\frac{1}{16}$	- o - o - o -	27.7	42.4	87.8	102.5	541	1697	532
	9	$\frac{1}{17}$	16.1	30.8	83.3	98	318	1603	309
	10	$\frac{1}{18}$	~ ~ ~ ~ ~	22.2	36.9	78.6	93.3	434	1519	425
	11	$\frac{1}{19}$	- x - o - x -	16.5	31.2	74.9	89.6	326	1444	317
	12	$\frac{1}{20}$	— — — — —	11.6	26.3	71.3	86	231	1375	222
Table for Figs. 2 and 3.	1	$\frac{1}{17}$	— — — — —	39.2	53.9	83.3	98	760	1603	751
	2	$\frac{1}{18}$	— — — — —	28.7	43.4	78.6	93.3	559	1519	550
	3	$\frac{1}{19}$	- + - + - + -	37.5	52.2	74.9	89.6	728	1444	719
	4	$\frac{1}{20}$	— — — — —	29.1	43.8	71.3	86	568	1375	559
	5	$\frac{1}{21}$	— . . . —	27.6	42.3	67.7	82.4	538	1313	529
	6	$\frac{1}{22}$	- x - x - x -	25.6	40.3	65	79.7	500	1257	491
	7	$\frac{1}{23}$	~ ~ ~ ~ ~	25.7	40.4	62.4	77.1	502	1204	493
	8	$\frac{1}{24}$	- o - o - o -	22	36.7	59.8	74.5	432	1156	423
	9	$\frac{1}{25}$	19.3	36	57.2	71.9	418	1112	409
	10	$\frac{1}{26}$	~ ~ ~ ~ ~	16.3	31	55.2	69.9	322	1071	313
	11	$\frac{1}{27}$	- x - o - x -	13.6	28.3	53.6	68.3	270	1034	261
	12	$\frac{1}{28}$	— — — — —	22.8	37.5	51.5	66.2	446	998	437
	13	$\frac{1}{29}$	- o - o - o -	20	34.7	49.9	64.6	393	965	384
	14	$\frac{1}{30}$	- x - x - x -	13.9	28.6	48.3	63	276	935	267
Table for Fig. 4.	9	$\frac{1}{17}$	16.1	30.8	83.3	98	318	1603	309*
	9(1)	$\frac{1}{19}$	~ ~ ~ ~ ~	42.4	57.1	87.8	102.5	822	1697	813†
	8	$\frac{1}{16}$	- o - o - o -	27.7	42.4	87.8	102.5	541	1697	532‡
	Proportional to 8	$\frac{1}{17}$	25.2	39.9	83.3	98	493	1603	484§

* Rather low. † Rather high. ‡ Normal. § Proportional to 8.

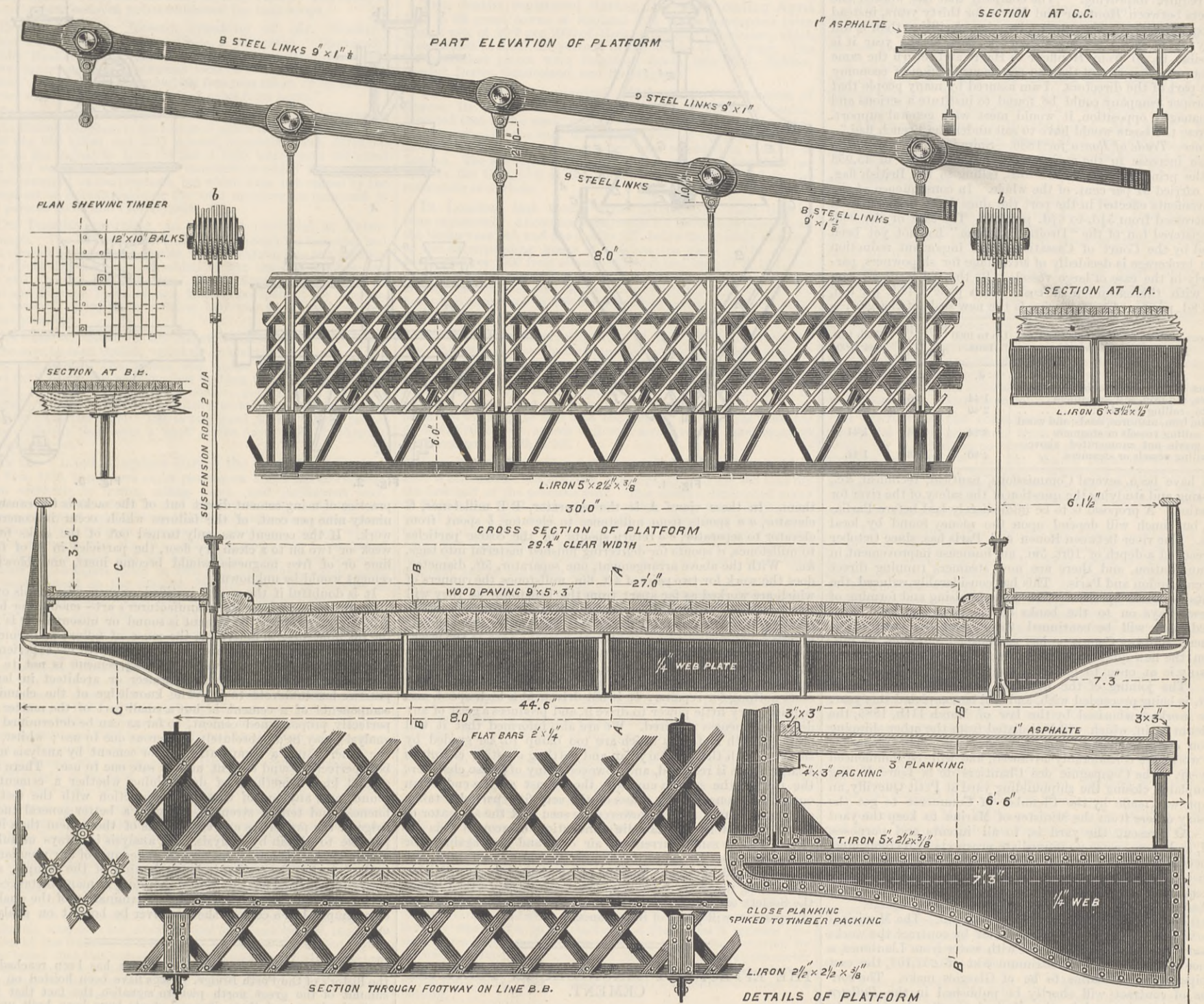
the cold cylinder type of engine, but it appears to him that a limit has now been reached beneath which the consumption of gas cannot be made to fall to any great extent unless some radical improvement be introduced. It seems absurd to think that in a machine intended to use as much heat as possible in a profitable manner, that about 50 per cent. of it should go to

mixtures the richer portion was around the igniting centre. An indicator, whose barrel was moved by clockwork at a uniform speed, gave the diagram of pressures. Figs. 2 and 3 were obtained in a similar manner, with the exception that the eudiometer was divided into two equal parts by a diaphragm of paper, the one portion containing pure air and the other gas and air.

Having this in view, he introduced into the eudiometer another charge in the proportion of one of gas to sixteen of the mixture partially consumed, without clearing out the eudiometer as on ordinary occasions. On passing the electric spark through this new mixture the diagram No. 9₁ was obtained, in which the maximum pressure was in proportion as much, if not more,

THE NEW HAMMERSMITH BRIDGE.

SIR JOSEPH BAZALGETTE AND MR. EDWARD BAZALGETTE, MM. INST. C.E., ENGINEERS.



above its proper pressure than No. 9 was below; this, we think, throws further light upon Mr. Clerk's theory of the double explosion. No. 8 is the normal diagram for $\frac{1}{10}$ th ratio.

Figs. 2 and 3, obtained by using the diaphragm, only calls for the explanation that until the diaphragm was ruptured by the explosion the ratio of gas to air was twice as great as that given, i.e., for mixture $\frac{1}{10}$ there would be one of gas to fifteen of air in the one chamber, and fifteen of air in the other. On comparing No. 2, Fig. 2, with No. 10, Fig. 1—both the same ratio—it will be noticed how much greater the maximum pressure in No. 2 is than in No. 10, the only difference between the two being that in No. 2 the diaphragm kept the gas and air more intimately intermixed. The same remark holds good for all the other curves.

THE NEW HAMMERSMITH BRIDGE.

WITH this impression we publish a two-page supplement illustrative of the new bridge at Hammersmith. We also publish on this page the first of some engravings illustrative of the details of construction. With the exception of some parts of the pier and the abutment masonry, the bridge is a new one. The general appearance of the bridge is well shown by the general elevation on the supplement, which also contains a plan of the bridge, together with several views of the upper part of the pier and abutment masonry and the wrought iron towers, saddles, and ornamental cast iron casing. The engravings above show to a larger scale the suspension chains, part of the floor and parapet, and a transverse section near the centre of the bridge. The bridge is being constructed from the designs of Sir Joseph W. Bazalgette and Mr. Edward Bazalgette, MM. Inst. C.E., to whom we are indebted for the illustrations we now publish, and others which will appear in another issue.

ABSTRACTS OF CONSULAR AND DIPLOMATIC REPORTS.

France—Trade of Bordeaux in 1886.—Shipbuilding at Bordeaux, as in other French ports, is at a standstill, and the French shipping bounties have not had the effect of resuscitating the shipbuilding industry of the country. How far these bounties, together with the navigation bounties, may have prevented the further diminution of the importance of the French carrying trade by assisting shipowners in this country to run vessels of British or other foreign build on foreign voyages is difficult to estimate, but in spite of the high premiums offered, the French mercantile navy experienced during 1886 a diminution of 19,331 tons, while the British mercantile navy during the same period increased 12,721 tons. In August last a circular was sent by the

French Minister of Commerce to the Custom-houses directing them to admit the consignee of the ship to perform the requisite formalities of entry and clearance unassisted by a shipbroker. Owing to the opposition of the French shipbrokers and the influential chambers of commerce, the operation of the circular was suspended after a few weeks' existence that the question might be again laid before the Council of State, and it is probable that the suspension of the circular will be permanent, and that matters will be left where they were twelve months ago. About two-fifths of British imports into Bordeaux consist of coal—a very acceptable freight even at low rates for steamers running between British ports and those of Portugal and Spain, and preferable to ballast. The importations of coal into Bordeaux in 1886 amounted to 435,150 tons, of which 434,909 tons—an increase of 15,000 tons over 1885—came from the United Kingdom. Of this coal 77 per cent. was for consumption in Bordeaux and the neighbouring district. The efforts lately made by French colliery owners towards driving the British out of the Bordeaux market have not been successful, though some large industrial establishments have used French coal on patriotic grounds. Under existing circumstances it is not probable that the French coal pits of the northern departments will be able to compete in price with British coal in spite of the French railway companies having largely reduced their rates of carriage between Bordeaux and the north. A new direct railway from Paris to Bordeaux via Chateau-du-Loire, Saumur, Niort and Saintes was opened last summer, but as the time occupied is longer, and the fare no lower than by the existing line, it is not likely that the new railway will be much used except for short intermediate stages. The works for deepening the river Garonne off the town, and for increasing the current lower down the river, were continued during the year, and, it is hoped, will soon result in providing more harbour room at Bordeaux, and also a better navigable channel between Bordeaux and Pauillac for the larger class of sea-going ships. The construction of more extensive quays at Bordeaux has been further postponed for financial reasons. The project for connecting the Atlantic with the Mediterranean, by means of a canal from Bordeaux to Narbonne, was brought before the Government, and it is stated that a commission to consider the question has been appointed. An international congress of persons interested in commercial, industrial, and technical education, and attended by delegates from various Governments, was held here in September. Among the prominent general results adopted by nearly all present were the opinions, "That the establishment and further development of commercial, industrial, and technical education is urgently necessary for the interests of the commercial and industrial classes, and that countries in which measures have not already been, or are not at once taken towards this end, will find themselves hopelessly distanced in the competitive fields of commerce and industry; that industrial and technical

education should as far as practicable be left to local control and initiation, and not to the central Government; and that the plan upon which these branches of education should be organised should as far as possible consist in restricting such course of studies to a special subject."

France—Trade of Caen for 1886.—General trade has been dull and depressed, especially in the earlier part of the year, but later on importations, which are always more or less dependent upon the markets of other countries—increased in this part. There has been a considerable falling off in the number of British vessels trading to this port, amounting to a difference in number of ninety-three, and in tons of 7369. The falling off was especially apparent in the beginning of the year, but towards the end there was an increase in arrivals, and trade became brisker. Coal continues to hold the first place among imports, and there has been an increase of 1000 tons over 1885. The price of coal receded slightly in November, 1886, and freights have, with little variation, averaged from 5s. to 5s. 6d. per ton. By steadily prosecuting dredging the depth of water in the ports of Caen and Ouistreham and their approaches remains about the same average of from 15 1/2 ft. to 16 1/2 ft. The canal from Caen to Ouistreham, about nine miles in length, appears to be gradually lessening in depth from the accumulation of mud moving from the shelving banks on each side towards the centre; but some time must elapse before the navigation for vessels of large tonnage will be materially impeded, though many take the ground on the soft mud approaching the port of Caen.

Trade of Dieppe in 1886.—The imports of coal, coke, machinery, pig iron, &c., continue to be the same as usual. The amount of coal imported from the United Kingdom was 313,700 tons, and of pig iron 6562 tons. The entrance to the harbour has been considerably deepened, and the advantages of widening the channel were very apparent during the severe gale of the 26th December last. Dredging the inner and outer channel of the port and outer harbour to a depth of 8ft. is being continued, and the new channel through the quarter called "Le Pallet" is being cut, which will give direct access to the new docks, which it is expected will be formally opened shortly. The rebuilding of the quay wall where the Newhaven steam packets leave their cargoes has been completed, and the harbour improvements at Dieppe seem to be advancing more rapidly than those at Newhaven. The works at Dieppe in course of execution include the diversion of the river Arques and the establishment of shipbuilding yards and the erection of hydraulic machinery for the motive power of the harbour works.

Trade of Honfleur for 1886.—The tonnage of shipping entering Honfleur decreased from 223,779 tons for 1885 to 200,327 tons for 1886, a diminution of 11 per cent. This reduced tonnage was entirely owing to the smaller quantity of planks, timber, &c., imported, the merchants having overstocked themselves in 1885. Among the imports for 1886 was a quantity of machinery,

valued at £10,000, for a new saw mill at Honfleur. This appears to be a branch of trade eminently open to British commerce, agricultural implements and machinery of all kinds being in good demand. Although there are two lines of steamers from the United Kingdom to Honfleur, the local steam communications require improving. "The company that has worked the steamers between Honfleur and Havre for thirty years, instead of progressing with the times, gives less facilities than it did twenty years ago. For a considerable part of the year it is impossible to go from Honfleur to Havre and return the same day, for no other reason than an erroneous opinion of economy on the part of the directors. I am assured by many people that if a proper company could be found to institute a serious and well-managed opposition, it would meet with general support. Of course the boats would have to sail under the French flag."

France—Trade of Rouen for 1886.—Shipping and navigation show an increase in the registered tonnage inwards of 45,958 tons, the principal part, 34,679 tons, falling to the British flag, which carried 61 per cent. of the whole. In consequence of the improvements effected in the port the dues have been renewed and increased from 5 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. to 6 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per ton. The case of the 96d. per registered ton of the "Droits d'Attache" has not yet been decided by the Court of Cassation. The important reduction in the brokerage is decidedly of advantage for shipowners, particularly in the case of large vessels. By the old tariff all cargoes, with the exception of coal, which paid 1'44d. per ton, paid 4'8d. per ton. The following is the new scale of charges :—

Cargoes entirely or nine-tenths composed of the following.	Up to 1000 tons.	From 1001 tons to 1500 tons.	Each ton over 1500.
1. China clay, coal, feldspath, iron ore, pig iron, salt—steamers	1'44	1'96	1'48
Ditto—sailing vessels	2'40	1'92	1'96
2. Grain, iron, manures, seeds, and wood—sailing vessels or steamers	3'84	2'88	1'44
3. All goods not enumerated above—sailing vessels or steamers	4'80	2'88	1'44

There have been several Commissions, nautical, technical, &c., discussing and studying the question of the safety of the river for navigation. A proposal is to be immediately laid before Parliament, but much will depend upon the money found by local bodies. The river between Rouen and Paris has, since October last, reached a depth of 10ft. 5in., an immense improvement in the canalisation, and there are now steamers running direct between London and Paris. This has considerably reduced the freights to Paris by river. The macadamising and forming of the new quays on to the banks of the river has been commenced, and will be continued throughout the year. The Northern Railway Company has established four lines of railway on the new quay on the right bank; the Western Railway Company is at once to place lines on the new quay on the left bank. The joining of the new and old quays a length of 1542ft. is being proceeded with, and will be completed this year. Of the works authorised by the law of March 11th, 1885, the petroleum basin, which will be isolated from the other shipping by iron closures, will be completed in 1888. The plans for other works are considerably advanced, and will be commenced this year. The Compagnie des Chantiers de la Loire having contemplated closing the shipbuilding yard at Petit Quevilly, an attempt was made by the Chamber of Commerce to get the necessary orders from the Minister of Marine to keep the yard open. At present the yard is, to all intents and purposes, closed, and there seems no immediate prospect of its reopening. Engineering works continue almost devoid of orders, and, without exception, all are passing through a severe crisis, discharging workmen and reducing the hours of labour. The situation is as bad as possible and no apparent prospect of a change.

Spain—Construction of Waterworks at Gijon.—The Municipal authorities at Gijon have decided to let by contract the works necessary for supplying that town with water from Llantones, a distance of 4'35 miles, at a maximum cost of £31,103, the cast iron pipes and necessities to be of Glasgow make. The conditions of contract will shortly be published in the *Bulletin Official of Asturias*, and in the *Madrid Gazette*, about twenty days previous to date for opening tenders. Conditions, plans, and specifications may be inspected at the Town Clerk's office, Gijon Asturias, North Spain. Gijon is a seaport on the Bay of Biscay, nineteen miles north north-east of Oviedo, with a population of about 6000.

MUMFORD AND MOODIE'S SEPARATOR.

THE accompanying engravings illustrate a new form of separator, for use in flour and other mills, made by Messrs. Askham Brothers and Wilson, Sheffield. The separator is shown in section in Fig. 1, in which A is an outer casing of sheet iron, circular and conical in form, into which the fine dust is thrown, and terminating in a spout at the bottom for delivering into bags, casks, or to creepers, as may be desired. B is an inner casing, into which the coarse particles fall, and can be delivered to the right or left through the branch pipes *a a* by moving the valve *c*. *C* is a movable band encircling the top of the case B, which acts as a damper for closing the opening between the cases A and B, and is worked by the lever *f* and the rods *h h*; *D* is a hood against which the material is thrown; *E E*, blades of a fan connected by arms to the disc *E¹*, rotating on the fan spindle *E²*; *F* is a standard for carrying the spindle and driving gear; *G*, feed cone into which the material is fed. The material to be treated is fed into the cone *G*, and falling on the rotating disc *E¹*, is thrown in a thin stream all round towards the fixed hood *D*. The current induced by the fan passes upwards, and carries with it the fine particles, which are thrown into the outer case A; the current of air, escaping from the fine particles separated by centrifugal force, returns through the opening *O* in the direction of the arrows, the same air being used over and over again. The coarser particles which are too heavy to be lifted by the current of air fall into the casing B, from whence they return by the branch pipes *a a* to the grinding machine to be further reduced. The degree of fineness of the finished material can be regulated by the speed of the fan, also by the partial closing of the aperture *O* by means of the damper *C*, which intercepts the current of air. Different forms of hood *D* also alter the quality of finished material. Every user of pulverising or grinding machinery has experienced difficulties in separating the fine from the coarse particles of the substance he wishes to reduce. A miller may be sometimes producing a grist to suit all requirements, but from various causes, the millstones getting blunt, or the material to be ground is extra tough and hard, and bad work and separation result, as well as a very small output when fine work has to be done. In Figs. 2 and 3 are shown the arrangement of the separator in conjunction with millstones, an arrangement which has been found in continued practical operation to increase the output from 4ft. 6in. millstones from, we are told, 60 to 70 per cent., without any increase in wear and tear or power taken to drive

MUMFORD AND MOODIE'S BLAST AND EXHAUST SEPARATOR.

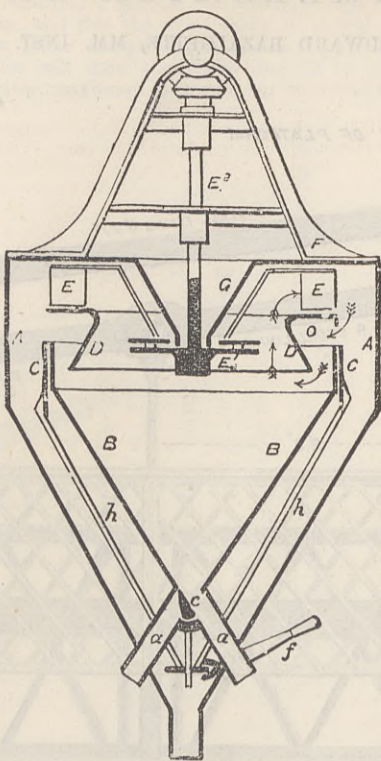


Fig. 1.

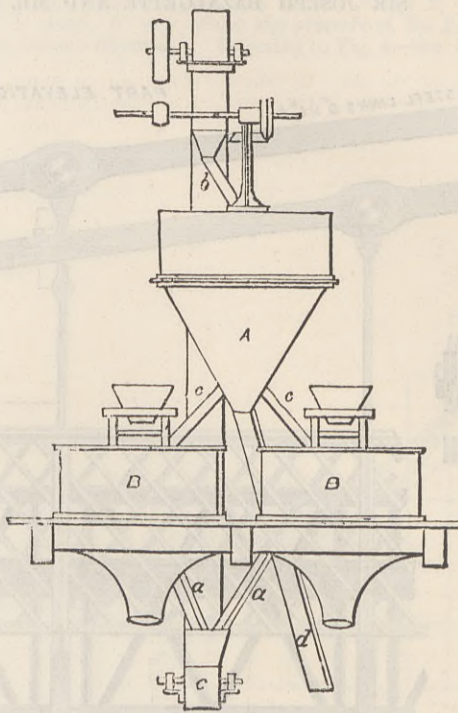


Fig. 2.

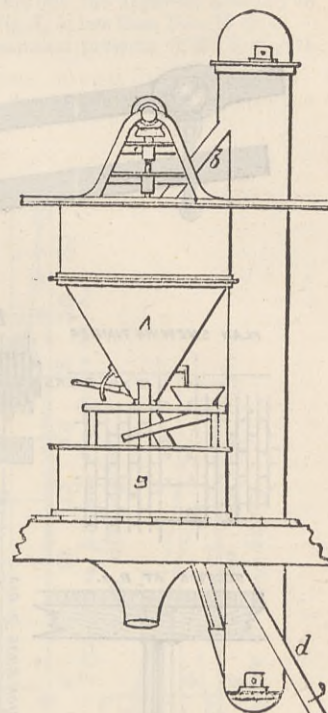


Fig. 3.

them. In these views A is the separator, B B millstones, C elevator, *a a* spouts from millstones to elevator, *b* spout from elevator to separator, *c c* return spouts for the coarse particles to millstones, *d* spouts for delivering finished material into bags, &c. With the above arrangement, one separator, 5ft. diameter, does the work for two pairs of 4ft. 6in. millstones, the runners of which are worked as far apart from the bedstones as they will run consistent with not riding on the top of the material without grinding it. The separator renders its users quite independent of occasional carelessness or inattention on the part of the workpeople. It has no working parts which can come in contact with the material operated upon, and is exceedingly simple in operation, and does not require skilled labour to work it, and costs nothing for repairs. It is not driven at a high speed, and requires very little power to drive it, and produces a grist of any degree of fineness required. We are also informed that it will also deal with materials which are too damp to be graded by sieves. With the ordinary fan and settling or stove chambers a large space is required, and however many of these chambers the user of the system employs, there must at the end be an outlet, and consequently a loss of the very fine particles taken over by the fan. It will, however, be seen that the separator of Messrs. Mumford and Moodie's invention overcomes this by employing the same current of air over and over again. For mining purposes at out-of-the-way places where sieves are now employed, and in cement manufactories where very fine division is becoming necessary (vide Professor Unwin's paper, read before the Society of Chemical Industry, April, 1886), this simple form of separator will prove of importance.

THE EFFECTS OF MAGNESIA IN PORTLAND CEMENT.

By HENRY FAJFA, M.I.C.E.

THE attention of engineers and users of cement has lately been drawn to the effects produced in cement by the presence of magnesia. Many have spoken and written about it until magnesia has become the *bête noir* of all users of cement. Some engineers specify that the cement they use shall contain no magnesia, though some are courageous enough to admit 1 per cent. It is curious that only a few years ago the greater excellence of the German cement over the English was thought to be due to the presence therein of a larger percentage of magnesia, and many German cements give an analysis of as much as 3 per cent. Now, of course, it is not admitted that the German cements are better than the English, and the magnesia instead of being the one thing of all others which made the cement, is tabooed altogether. It is to be presumed, therefore, that there is a fashion in the components of a cement as there is in a lady's dress, and that which is *en vogue* to-day is *gauche* to-morrow.

No doubt if magnesia enters largely into the composition of a cement it produces one that is dangerous to use, but so does an excess of lime, or even a properly limed cement not having that lime wholly, or nearly wholly, in the form of a silicate is equally unsound; but the difference between one, two, or three per cent. of magnesia, or of one, two, or three per cent. of unsilicated lime, is as nothing compared to many other matters of composition and manufacture which tend to produce a good or a bad cement. While, therefore, a small percentage of magnesia is not harmful to a cement, to make a cement from a dolomite or magnesian limestone would be courting failure, and nobody with any knowledge of the manufacture would attempt it. These limestones produce some of the strongest building limes, but as an item in cement manufacture they are useless.

Magnesia is dangerous in a cement for the same reason that lime is, viz., that when in its free state, it, on the addition of water, expands, and of necessity if there is a large quantity present it will destroy the work of which it forms a part, and magnesia in a cement must be more or less in a free state, because carbonate of lime and carbonate of magnesia on calcination lose their carbonic acid and amalgamate with the silicas and aluminas with which they are mixed in the formation of a cement at different temperatures and after different intervals.

There is an old proverb which reminds one that it is impossible to make a silk purse out of a sow's ear; neither is it possible to manufacture magnesia in a cement kiln—it must be in the raw materials of which the cement is made; and but few, if any, of the cements made in England are made from raw materials which contain any appreciable or abnormal quantity of magnesia. Most English cements will be found to contain from one to two per cent. of magnesia, and there is no doubt that that amount is well within the margin of safety. The mistakes made with cement are not in its manufacture so much as in its use; the

practice of using cement direct out of the sacks is the cause of ninety-nine per cent. of the failures which occur in concrete work. If the cement was only turned out of the sacks for a week or two on to a clean dry floor, the particles in it of free lime or of free magnesia would become inert, and blowing cement would be unknown.

It is doubtful if the user is justified, or even wise in his own interests, to enter into the manufacturer's art—enough for him if he knows whether the cement is sound or unsound—it is for the manufacturer to determine the cause of failure and remedy and amend his manufacture in accordance with his experience. The art and science of manufacturing cement is not to be learned in the time which an engineer or architect in large practice has to devote to it. The knowledge of the chemical components of a cement is but a small part of the matter; a perfectly proportioned cement, so far as can be determined by analysis, may be an absolutely dangerous one to use; whilst, on the other hand, a comparatively poor cement by analysis may be a perfectly sound cement and a safe one to use. There are several known methods of determining whether a cement is sound, and any one of these in conjunction with the test of fineness and tensile strength, will give a better general knowledge of the properties and capabilities of the cement than it is possible to obtain by analysis. An analysis is always useful as a corroborative test, as it may explain the cause of any peculiarity noticed during the mechanical examination of the sample, and a carefully carried out analysis is therefore in many instances of very great value in assisting in the determination of the quality of a sample, but a cement should never be bought on analysis only.

THE FORTH BRIDGE.—An important stage has been reached in the history of the Forth Bridge. Flags have been hoisted on the summit of the great north pier to signalise the fact that the vertical columns and their diagonal struts have been built up to their full height of about 350ft. above the mean sea-level between high and low-water. Above this there remains only to be placed the "upper member" of lattice-work to raise the structure to its extreme height of 363ft. The south pier wants only some feet of its final height, and though the Inchgarvie, or central pier, is, by comparison, a long way behind those on the Fife and the Linlithgow sides of the Forth it is also making rapid progress. The great tubes of the main piers rise like towering clusters of masts in the middle of the Firth. What is mainly wanting now is the great cantilever spans, whose cobwebs of steel tubes and lattice bracings are to carry the railway at a height of 168ft. above high-water over two clear spaces of 1710ft. of sea and other two spaces of 690ft. This work also has begun to make visible progress, the "lower members" already projecting for a distance of from 120ft. to 150ft. from the bases of the piers.

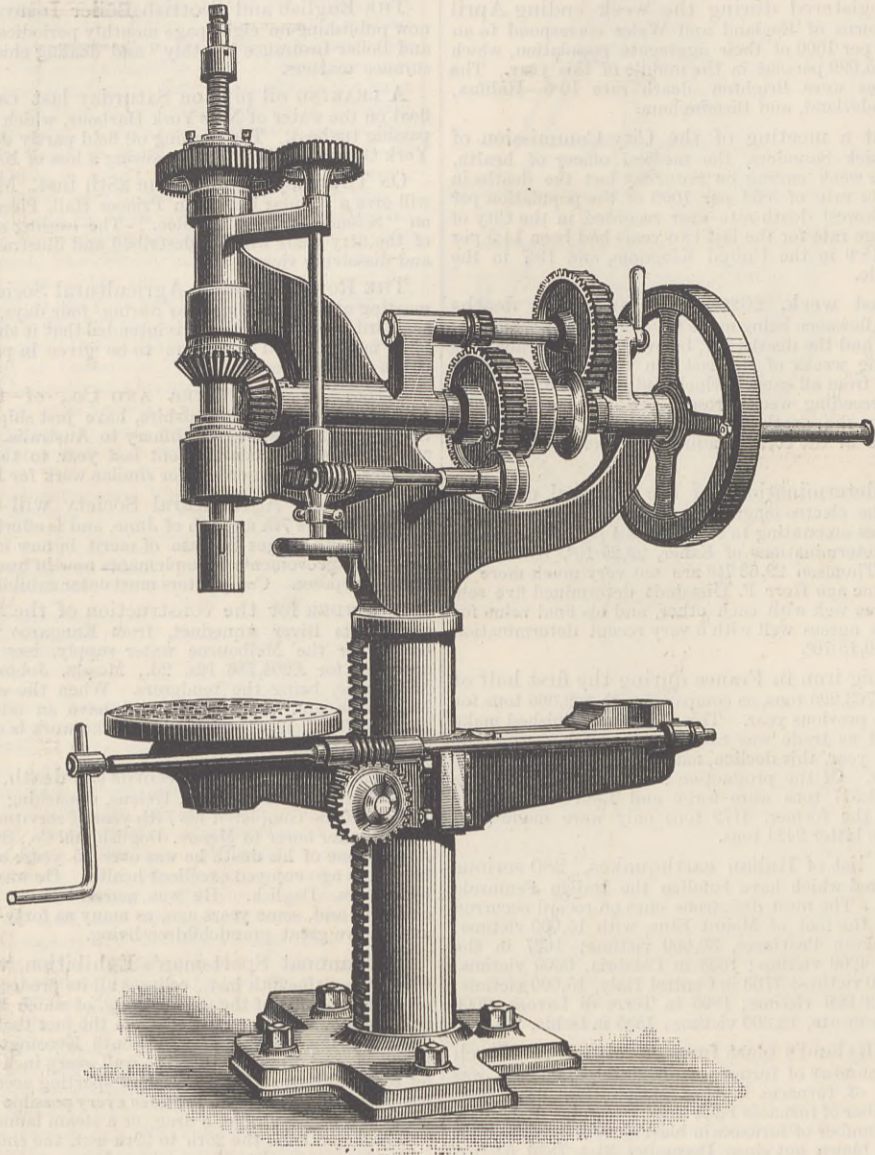
THE UNITED STATES NAVY.—Yesterday, April 1st, was an interesting day, says the *Army and Navy Register*, in the office of the Secretary of the Navy. It was the occasion of the opening of the plans for the armoured battle ship and armoured cruiser, for which a prize of 15,000 dols. was offered by the department last year. Nearly all the heads of staff departments were present, and a number of naval officers, including Commander Chadwick, Lieutenant R. P. Rodgers and Lieutenant Schroeder. The foreign plans that were received showed very fine workmanship. The following is a list of the names of those who submitted plans:—The Thames Iron Shipbuilding Company, London, England; the Barrow Shipbuilding Company, Barrow-in-Furness, England; Mr. Watt, of Birkenhead, England; A. H. Grandjean, marine engineer, St. Nazaire, France; Captain M. S. Clayton, Auckland, New Zealand; Lieutenant W. I. Chambers, U.S. Navy; Chief Constructor T. D. Wilson, U.S. Navy; Constructor S. H. Pook, U.S. Navy; N. L. Tomns, New York City; F. L. Norton, of Washington. Two fine models in half-sections were received from the Thames Ironworks and Shipbuilding Company, of Blackwall, England. The general description of these vessels were as follows:—

<i>Armoured Cruiser.</i>	
Length, 350ft.	4 10in. 26 $\frac{1}{2}$ -ton guns.
Breadth, 58ft.	6 6in. 6-ton guns.
Depth, 38ft.	4 6-pds. Hotchkiss guns.
Draft (mean), 21ft. 6in.	4 3-pds. Hotchkiss guns.
Displacement, in tons, 6000	2 1-pd. Hotchkiss guns.
Horse-power, 12,750	4 47mm. Hotchkiss guns.
Speed, 20 knots	4 37mm. Hotchkiss guns.
	4 Gatling guns.
<i>Armoured Battle Ship.</i>	
Length, 300ft.	2 12in. 46-ton guns.
Breadth, 60ft.	6 6in. 5-ton guns.
Depth, 42ft.	4 6-pds. Hotchkiss guns.
Draft (mean), 22ft. 6in.	6 3-pds. Hotchkiss guns.
Displacement, 6300 tons	2 1-pd. Hotchkiss guns.
Horse-power, 10,000	4 47mm. Hotchkiss guns.
Speed, 18 knots	4 37mm. Hotchkiss guns.
	4 Gatling guns.

We are unable to give this week a description of the plans in detail. Chief Constructor Wilson submitted a model of an armoured cruiser of the Riachuelo type with two turrets, each containing two 12in. guns so arranged as to have a clean sweep forward and aft, as well as a full broadside range.

DRILLING MACHINE, B. B. AND C. I. RAILWAY.

MESSRS. G. BOOTH AND CO., HALIFAX, ENGINEERS.

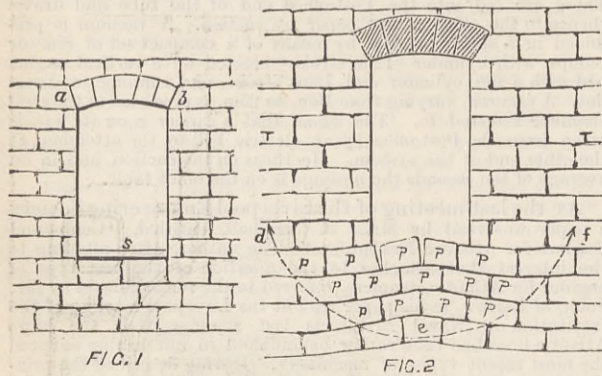


BOOTH'S DRILLING MACHINE.

THE annexed illustration shows a novel and compact drilling machine, which has been designed and constructed by Messrs. George Booth and Co., Halifax, for the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway Company. The machine has a steel spindle 1½ in. diameter, which is carried in a long cast iron socket with a conical neck running in gun-metal bearings, the adjustment being secured by lock nuts placed beneath the mitre wheels. The spindle is driven by mitre and double-purchase gearing, with a three-speed cone for power, and fly-wheel and handle for working by hand when required. The feed is of ordinary construction and made to give a traverse of one inch in ninety revolutions of spindle; the feed nut is of gun metal, with an adjustable gun-metal nut for taking up the wear of the feed nut and to prevent backlash. The machine is fitted with an arm which has a vertical adjustment by hand by rack and pinion, worm gearing, and handle. Upon one end of the arm is carried a circular table, with bolt holes for securing work, and on the other end is a vice with a swivelling jaw for receiving various shapes of work. The machine is capable of drilling holes from ½ in. to 1-7/8 in. diameter, and is executed in the usual manner.

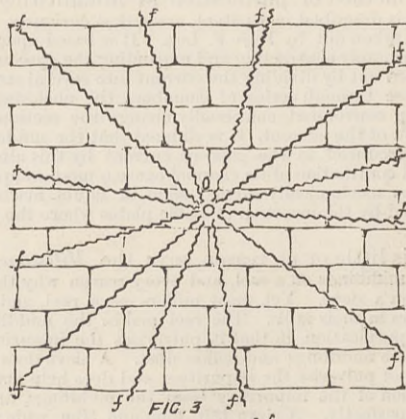
STABILITY OF WALLS AT OPENINGS.

THE following article has been written by M. Emile Trélat, architect-in-chief for the Department of the Seine, director of the especial School of Architecture, and has appeared in *Le Genie Civil*. It contains matter of some interest, although some of the defects of which the writer complains do not



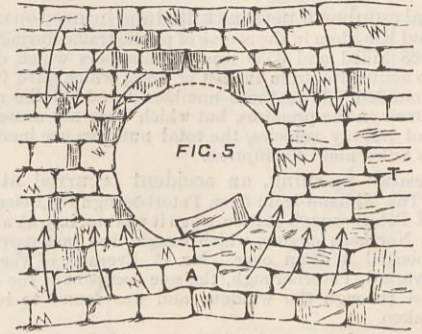
obtain with English work, as English methods are not always those to which objection is taken. Fig. 1 shows the manner in which openings in the walls are generally constructed. It will be seen that the courses are simply discontinued at the place where the opening is required, except at the top, where an especial support is added, capable of sustaining the weight which surmounts the bay. This has been the method always pursued, and it is singular that its imperfections have not been recognised. On looking at a nearly finished new building, it may be observed that the stones of the masonry below the bays are displaced and raised up. This deformation gradually develops as the work proceeds. When the edifice is built of hewn stone, the displacement is scarcely perceptible, especially if the blocks are large; but if smaller materials are used, it becomes very considerable. Beyond a

certain point the disorder ceases to progress, because under the upheaved layers—Fig. 2—the stones press against each other in one direction, *d e f*, forming an inverted arch, and the foundations from whence at first arose the dislocation of the stones *p p p* bring a resisting force to bear upon the piers T T. It is on account of these disorders, limited though not avoided, that the following rule is to be found in all treatises:—“The supports and sills of the bays should never be fastened into the masonry of the jambs, and should not be placed until the sinkings have ceased.” Economy requires that the sills, Fig. 1, should be reduced in thickness, which if they were fixed at their extremities would render them liable to break when what is shown at Fig. 2 occurs. Experience shows therefore that it is

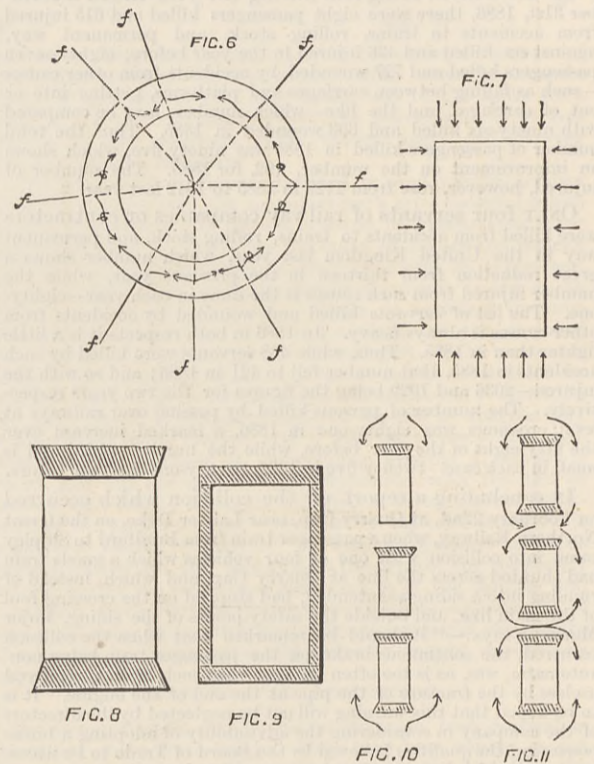


best simply to place the supports and sills between the jambs. Why should not these displacements be avoided by some appliance fixed under the bays? The question is better understood when treated mechanically. Fig. 3 shows a well-made wall composed of resistant materials. It is stable and solid, because round any point *o* all the forces *fff* are equal and opposite, balanced in *o*. If the field of resistance immediately round were partially removed, the displacement of materials would follow until the forces were again balanced by new conditions set up under a new form. For instance, in Fig. 4, the forces *fff*, or those derived from them, would continue to act on the remaining part of the wall, but the material road by which they joined the meeting point being removed, their direct reactions would be interrupted. Two results may then follow—the materials which border the hole, not being fitted to maintain the place from which the forces *fff* tend to remove them are dislocated, compressed on one side, separated on the other side as in Fig. 5, so that the material path of the direct reaction of the forces becomes in a way reconstituted; but the work is then ruined, as

seen by Fig. 5, by the sinking of the piers T T, which causes the lower stones to rise and the upper ones to sink towards the aperture. The arrows show the direction taken by the derivative forces to accommodate and balance themselves in the new arrangement of the materials unless the opening is bordered by a frame of a material sufficiently resistant to preserve its form and to set up an opposition to the course of the forces *fff*, &c., as in Fig. 6. If instead of a circular hole, the bay be rectangular, as is generally the case in edifices Fig. 7, it will be remarked that the forces *fff* are all vertical and horizontal, and that the actions and reactions of those that are horizontal are so slight



and accidental that it is scarcely necessary to provide against them, while those which act vertically are considerable. Under such circumstances, strength should be exclusively given at the top and at the bottom of the bay, Figs. 8 and 9. In summing up these remarks the author insists that every bay should be well protected at the bottom as well as at the top, enabling the jambs to sustain and distribute the vertical changes in pressure and its line of action. He concludes by pointing out the greater



advantages of iron frames for stability and capacity to maintaining the form of the bay. In many storied edifices where the bays are above one another, it may be thought sufficient to strongly cill the bottom of the lowest bay only, as in Fig. 10. But it is far better to do so to the upper and lower parts of every bay, as all materials can thus be better adjusted, and the regularity of the lines maintained.

A HIGH SPEED TORPEDO BOAT.

A TORPEDO BOAT for the Imperial Chinese Navy, by Messrs. Yarrow and Co., had her official trial on March 31st, and attained the remarkable speed of nearly 24 knots per hour, as a mean of six runs over the measured mile in the Lower Hope, three with and three against tide. To be exact, the speed was 23.882 knots; and a subsequent run of two hours' duration gave a mean speed of 22.94 knots, with the engines running easy. She had on board her torpedo armament complete and ballast to represent four torpedoes, also a fair quantity of coal and twenty-four persons. This boat is 128ft. long, and constructed on Messrs. Yarrow and Co.'s rapid-steering principle, which enabled her afterwards to make circles to both sides, having diameters of about 230ft.

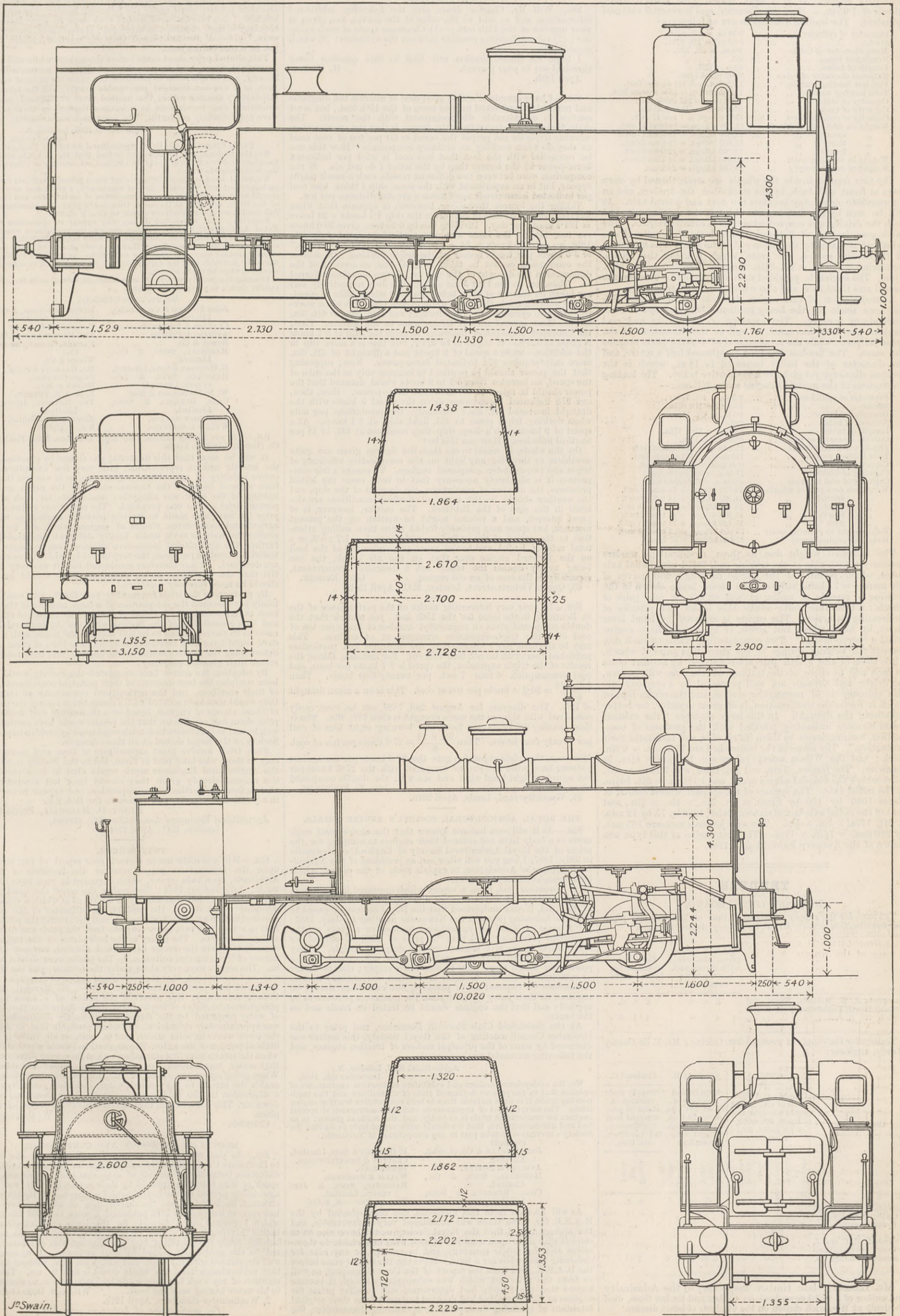
The Chinese Government possess in this vessel a torpedo boat which, for her size, is decidedly the fastest in the world at the present time, and, moreover, has manœuvring powers almost unique, probably only equalled by the celebrated No. 79, of the British Navy, constructed last year by the same firm.

The engines are on the triple expansion principle. The Chinese Government were represented on board by Admiral Lang, I.C.N., accompanied by Messrs. J. Birch and Co., of Liverpool, who were the direct contractors with the Chinese Government for this vessel; and the English Admiralty by Mr. Shapcott, all of whom were much pleased with the results obtained.

THE FORTH BRIDGE.—At a meeting of the Civil and Mechanical Engineers' Society on April 13th, a paper was read by Mr. R. E. Middleton, M.I.C.E., on the foundation of the Forth Bridge, in which the writer gave a description of the general site of the bridge, the nature of the foundation, the dimensions and form of construction of the piers, the arrangement of the wrought iron caissons 70ft. in diameter, and in the case of the largest, 74ft. high, which, when filled with concrete, support the main piers, and the means used for excavating the hard clay and rock which forms the foundation for the piers and caissons. In describing the caissons the writer explained their construction, both in the ways *in situ* and the arrangements of the air tubes and locks for the removal of the material excavated, and the ingress and egress of the workmen, and gave an account of the sinking of the North-West Queensferry caisson at its moorings, and the means employed successfully to raise it and replace it in its proper position. The paper was illustrated by a diagram showing the general arrangement of the bridge.

TYPES OF BELGIAN STATE RAILWAY LOCOMOTIVES.

(For description see page 314.)



FOREIGN AGENTS FOR THE SALE OF THE ENGINEER.

PARIS.—Madame BOYVEAU, Rue de la Banque.
BERLIN.—ASHER and Co., 5, Unter den Linden.
VIENNA.—MESSRS. GEROLD and Co., Booksellers.
LEIPSIK.—A. TWIETMEYER, Bookseller.
NEW YORK.—THE WILLMER and ROGERS NEWS COMPANY, 31 Beekman-street.

PUBLISHER'S NOTICE.

With this week's number is issued as a Supplement a Two-page Engraving of the New Hammersmith Bridge. Every copy as issued by the Publisher contains this Supplement, and subscribers are requested to notify the fact should they not receive it.

CONTENTS.

Table with columns for article titles and page numbers. Includes sections like SHIPPING ECONOMY, MECHANICAL CREAM SEPARATION, PRIVATE BILLS IN PARLIAMENT, etc.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

Registered Telegraphic Address "ENGINEER NEWSPAPER, LONDON."
All letters intended for insertion in THE ENGINEER, or containing questions, must be accompanied by the name and address of the writer, not necessarily for publication, but as a proof of good faith.
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.

RAIL TOPS OR SPEAR HEADS.

SIR,—Would any of your readers kindly give us the address of a foreign maker of rail tops or spear heads? M. I. S. C. Manchester, March 31st.

MACHINES FOR DRILLING BICYCLE HUBS AND TRUEING WHEELS.

SIR,—Kindly allow me to inquire through the medium of your columns the name of the makers of machines for trueing wheels and drilling hubs of bicycles. Italy, April 17th. A. S.

STEEL RUST.

SIR,—In reply to "Anti-Corrosion," let him get the rust scraped and well rubbed off; give a coat of "turps," before coat is dry give a coat of best sand and finest Portland cement, mixed with lime water—not white-wash, but lime in solution, in which is mixed a teaspoonful of chloride of lime to a bucket of the wash. When set, water may be boiled in vessel. Of course, the first quantity may have the effects of the "turps," &c. The portion of the vessel not exposed to the fire may get other coats of the wash without the use of the "turps." The wash must be applied as quickly as possible, so as not to be setting before completion. Cork, April 20th. R. HARTLAND.

SUBSCRIPTIONS.

THE ENGINEER can be had, by order, from any newsagent in town or country at the various railway stations; or it can, if preferred, be supplied direct from the office on the following terms (paid in advance):—
Half-yearly (including double numbers) .. £0 14s. 6d.
Yearly (including two double numbers) .. £1 9s. 0d.
If credit order, an extra charge of two shillings and sixpence per annum will be made. THE ENGINEER is registered for transmission abroad. A complete set of THE ENGINEER can be had on application.
Foreign Subscriptions for Thin Paper Copies will, until further notice, be received at the rates given below:—Foreign Subscribers paying in advance at the published rates will receive THE ENGINEER weekly and post-free. Subscriptions sent by Post-office order must be accompanied by letter of advice to the Publisher. Thick Paper Copies may be had, if preferred, at increased rates.
Remittance by Post-office order.—Australia, Belgium, Brazil, British Columbia, British Guiana, Canada, Cape of Good Hope, Denmark, Hawaiian Islands, Egypt, France, Germany, Gibraltar, Italy, Malta, Natal, Netherlands, Mauritius, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, New South Wales, New Zealand, Portugal, Roumania, Switzerland, Tasmania, Turkey, United States, West Coast of Africa, West Indies, Cyprus, £1 16s. China, Japan, India, £2 0s. 6d.
Remittance by Bill on London.—Austria, Buenos Ayres and Algeria, Greece, Ionian Islands, Norway, Panama, Peru, Russia, Spain, Sweden, Chili, £1 16s. Borneo, Ceylon, Java, and Singapore, £2 0s. 6d. Manila, Sandwich Isles, £2 5s.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

* * The charge for Advertisements of four lines and under is three shillings, for every two lines afterwards one shilling and sixpence; odd lines are charged one shilling. The line averages seven words. When an advertisement measures an inch or more the charge is ten shillings per inch. All single advertisements from the country must be accompanied by a Post-office order in payment. Alternate advertisements will be inserted with all practical regularity, but regularity cannot be guaranteed in any such case. All except weekly advertisements are taken subject to this condition.

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

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.

MEETINGS NEXT WEEK.

THE INSTITUTION OF CIVIL ENGINEERS, 25, Great George-street, Westminster, S.W.—Session 1886-87. Tuesday, April 26th, at 8 p.m.: Ordinary meeting. Paper to be further discussed:—"Water Supply from Wells," in the London Basin, at Bushey (Herts), in Leicestershire, and at Southampton, by Messrs. Grover, Fox, Stooke, and Matthews respectively. Friday, April 29th, at 7.30 p.m.: Students' meeting. Paper to be read:—"Flour Mills and their Machinery," by Alfred Chatterton, B.Sc., Stud. Inst. C.E.

SOCIETY OF ARTS, John-street, Adelphi, London, W.C.—Tuesday, April 26th, at 8 p.m. Applied Art Section: "Ornamental Glass," by J. Hungerford Pollen; Colonel Donnelly, R.E., C.B., vice-president of the Society, will preside. Wednesday, April 27th, at 8 p.m.: Ordinary meeting. "Appliances for Saving Life from Fire," by Arthur W. C. Shean. Friday, April 29th, at 8 p.m. Indian Section: "Village Communities in India," by J. F. Hewitt.

CIVIL AND MECHANICAL ENGINEERS' SOCIETY.—Wednesday, 27th inst., at 7 p.m.: Ordinary meeting. Paper to be read:—"The Use and Care of Chains for Lifting and Hauling," by Henry Adams, M.I.C.E., F.S.I.

THE SOCIETY OF TELEGRAPH ENGINEERS AND ELECTRICIANS.—Thursday, April 28th, at 25, Great George-street, S.W., at 8 p.m.: I. "Measuring the Coefficients of Self and of Mutual Induction;" II. "Driving a Dynamo with a very Short Belt," by Professors W. E. Ayrton, F.R.S., and John Perry, F.R.S., Members.

THE ENGINEER.

APRIL 22, 1887.

HARBOURS OF REFUGE.

It is a favourite doctrine with many persons that there is no evil in existence for which there is not a remedy, and that the remedy is not applied simply because some individual, or party, or government, will not, out of sheer perversity, or stupidity, or ignorance, apply it. The holders of these tenets have no broad or comprehensive grasp of matters. They never realise the truth that, to use an old adage, the remedy may be worse than the disease, or that its application may bring about other evils of still greater importance and moment. We recollect being told at the time of the Plimsoll agitation that it was better that the whole carrying trade of Great Britain should be transferred to France, Germany, and America, than that the life of one British sailor should be lost; and we have no doubt that the proposition was put forward with perfect sincerity and conviction of heart. This may be regarded as an extreme case, but it is only so because the absurdity of it is so glaring. Things quite as absurd occur daily, but they do not attract attention because the absurdity is, to a certain extent, veiled. One of the most recent examples is supplied by the demand made in certain quarters for the construction of harbours of refuge round our coasts. We are told that for lack of such harbours "thousands" of lives are lost, and that the nation in general and the English Government in particular are guilty of something little short of murder because they will not spend some five or six millions of pounds sterling on the construction of such harbours. The demand has at last been heard in Parliament, and the answer to the demand is complete.

On Tuesday evening Mr. Yeo moved:—"That having regard to the recent fearful sacrifice of life in the Bristol Channel, and to the constantly recurring losses of life and property around the coasts of the United Kingdom, it is, in the opinion of this House, urgent that her Majesty's Government should immediately take action to diminish these losses by the construction of suitable harbours of refuge." The debate, or rather the discussion, which followed, served to make certain points clear which have long been obscured. Indeed, it was only necessary to state the case clearly, as it was stated by Mr. Yeo, to render its weakness apparent. The broad contention is very simple. If a ship is caught in a gale of wind, she wants a harbour in which to seek for shelter at once. Failing such a harbour, she will be cast on a lee shore and wrecked. Mr. Yeo said that proposals had been made for the construction of harbours of refuge in all sorts of places, but "it was to the Bristol Channel that he wished to call the attention of the House. The trade of the Bristol Channel had increased enormously in recent years, and this was, no doubt, largely due to the great development of the coal trade of Cardiff and Newport. The Bristol Channel was, no doubt, very dangerous. The coasts were iron bound, and vessels caught in a storm had no harbour to run for. He wished briefly to call attention to recent disasters in this channel. The loss of life was above the average. There had been more than fifty vessels lost in three months, the loss of life being from 350 to 400. It must not be supposed that the vessels lost were old or badly found ships. They were of the highest class, and were well equipped. They were caught in a storm, were unable to weather it, and foundered for want of a harbour of refuge. He did not think they had a right to fold their arms when they knew that this loss of life might be prevented." He then proceeded to state the cost, which he took at £6,000,000, the repayment of which, if spread over ninety-nine years, would be met by a yearly sum of a quarter of a million, which would be sufficient to provide for interest, the repayment of capital, and for maintenance. On the other hand, the sum expected to be received in the way of tolls each year would amount to something like £300,000, leaving an annual balance in favour of the undertaking of £50,000. This reads almost like the prospectus of a new limited company. Mr. Yeo did not say where the harbours in question were to be placed, but we gather that he intended they should be constructed in the Bristol Channel. There is, however, no reason why the Bristol

Channel should be exceptionally favoured, and it is easy to see that if other places round our coast were to be provided with harbours of refuge on the same munificent scale, not six millions, but over one hundred millions of pounds sterling would be needed.

There are two principal answers to Mr. Yeo's proposal; the first is that harbours of refuge would not secure total immunity from shipwrecks; the second is, that the amount of additional security which they could provide would not be worth the expenditure demanded. As regards the first point, some interesting particulars were produced by Baron de Worms. He showed that in one sense harbours were more likely to bring about shipwrecks than to prevent them; and it is not difficult to understand the reason. If a captain knows that a storm is brewing, and that if he is caught on a lee shore there is no harbour to run for, then he will take good care to keep away from land as far as he can. If, on the contrary, he knows there is a harbour to which he may run, he will not take proper precautions, and will chance being able to make the harbour. We have only to look at the reports which appear in the daily press after any heavy gale to learn that by far the greater proportion of ships come ashore at or near some harbour or port, to the shelter of which they were running. Furthermore, the number of lives lost altogether by ships being wrecked on the coast of England is very small. Baron de Worms brought forward very interesting statistics on this subject. He had a return prepared which threw a great deal of light on the question as to how far harbours affected the amount of loss of life at sea. This return was a statement showing the number of sea casualties attending with loss of life during the five years ending June 30th, 1885. It showed the whole of the life lost from British ships in that period, both exclusive and inclusive of collisions. Exclusive of collisions, 14,188 lives were lost, of which only 3751 were lost on or near the coast of the United Kingdom; and deducting from this 1158 lives lost in 210 vessels missing near the coast of the United Kingdom, there were 1993 lives lost on or near the coast from stranding, foundering, and all other causes, except collisions, during five years. Examining the facts as they bore on that portion of the coast referred to by Mr. Yeo, it appears that, taking a wide margin—namely, a line from St. David's Head to the Land's End and half way across St. George's Channel, including, as it does, part of the highway to Liverpool, without including collisions or missing vessels, 289 lives were known to have been lost in that district in five years, or about fifty-eight yearly. For the purposes of comparison he then cited a contiguous district, namely, the quadrilateral bounded on the south by a line from St. David's Head to Carnsore Point, county Wexford, and on the north by a line from Fair Head, county Antrim, to the Mull of Cantire. This would include all the traffic from Holyhead to Dublin, all the traffic in and out of Liverpool, Fleetwood, Barrow, &c., and all the traffic in and out of Belfast, Stranraer, and the ports along the west coast of Scotland, including the Clyde. Excluding lives lost by collisions and missing vessels in this vast area, with its capacious ports on both sides of the Channel, with their great facilities for refuge, 390 lives were lost in five years. From this it appears to be tolerably plain that an abundance of harbours of refuge would really do very little for the reasons we have stated, to prevent wrecks. Indeed, it is well known that some of the most disastrous wrecks which have taken place on the coast of Great Britain could not have been prevented by harbours. Take, for example, the loss of the Royal Charter, on the north coast of Anglesea. It certainly was not the want of a harbour which wrought her destruction. She had just passed one—Holyhead—and was making for another—Liverpool. That there are instances in which the presence of a harbour might have saved life we do not for a moment dispute, but the proportion which such cases bear to those in which safety could be equally secured by keeping away from a lee shore are very small. That the full value of a harbour of refuge may be realised, it will be necessary for each ship to carry one with her, say, as part of her cargo.

The second objection to the construction of harbours of refuge is their cost. It was pointed out by Baron de Worms that as seventeen British harbours had cost £23,000,000, it was not improbable that £6,000,000 was far too low an estimate. It was, however, pointed out that this outlay included the sum spent on the construction of docks, &c. That, in short, the seventeen harbours were commercial harbours, not harbours of refuge pure and simple. But there is no difficulty in seeing that a harbour without docks, &c., would be very little used. It is just as likely that a pecuniary profit could be made out of a lifeboat station as out of a harbour of refuge. Consequently, Mr. Yeo is in this dilemma, that if his harbours are to cost but £6,000,000, they cannot have docks and warehouses, and therefore will earn no money; while if they have these things they will no longer be harbours of refuge pure and simple, but commercial harbours, which must cost a great deal more than £6,000,000, and which would without doubt prove very bad investments.

There is something very taking and benevolent in the idea of constructing refuge harbours round our coasts, but hard facts tell heavily against the scheme, which was further weighted by the circumstance that Mr. Yeo had no definite scheme to suggest. After all his was little more than an abstract resolution. It is very easy to think and to say that it would be a good thing to have plenty of harbours all round our coasts. It does not compromise anyone to utter this benevolent wish, and we are not surprised to find that about eighty members of Parliament voted with Mr. Yeo, while eighty-six voted against him. If he wishes to have the subject fully handled, his proper course is to prepare a definite detailed scheme for the construction of a harbour of refuge in some special place, and then ask the House to grant money for its construction. The scheme can then be discussed on its merits, and we venture to think that the majority against such a proposal will be very large. We need scarcely say

that the whole question has been discussed over and over again, with results unfavourable to the construction of such harbours. Thus, for example, it has been shown that an expenditure of a million sterling on Fife would perhaps have saved fifteen lives in a considerable period. The facts always come out the same way. The value of harbours of refuge as a means of saving life is very much exaggerated. Their powers of earning money would be of the very smallest, and if it could be shown that they would earn money, private enterprise and capital would at once provide them. The benefits they would confer on the nation would not be nearly worth the sum which they would cost, and which, if available at all, might be spent to far greater advantage on other national objects.

THE SANITARY REGISTRATION OF BUILDINGS.

THE extent to which Government ought to interfere with private action, where such action affects the well-being of any section of the public, partly or wholly unable to protect itself is and probably must remain, a debatable question. Control by the State in supercession of individual management under such conditions, has both its advocates and its opponents, and weighty arguments can be and often are adduced on both sides. In a free country what is commonly designated as paternal government is usually deprecated; but instances have arisen in the past history of this country wherein compulsion by law has had to be applied to remove domestic evils and check abuses. What may be called sanitary legislation is of necessity to some extent an assumption by the State of duties that properly belong to individuals. The house-owner who lets out a house, or a block of houses as tenements, ought presumably in one sense to be the best judge of how to manage his property. The law, however, calls on him to comply with certain sanitary rules, not only for the sake of his tenants' health, but also, inferentially, for the protection of the health of the community at large; and that this legislation has done good is shown by the Registrar-General's statistics of death rates. State intervention in matters of this sort has two grounds of justification; one of these is that a proper knowledge of sanitary work can only be acquired by a special study of the subject, involving time and labour, such as the general body of householders cannot be expected to devote to it; and secondly, that sanitation to be of use must be systematically carried out, and therefore cannot be entrusted to mere individual action.

A Bill was introduced into the House of Commons during its last session, and was read a first time, which marks an advance on all existing sanitary legislation. Its title is, the Sanitary Registration of Buildings Bill. It was introduced by Mr. Lacaita, the member for Dundee, and supported by Sir Henry Roscoe, Sir Guyer Hunter, and Dr. Farquharson. It provides for the compulsory sanitary registration and inspection of every building intended to be used as an asylum, college, hospital, hotel, or lodging-house, and also to give opportunities for voluntary registration and inspection in the case of all other buildings whatever. At its first reading the Bill provided that the administrative staff should include sanitary registration authorities generally, identical with existing local sanitary authorities, and also of a new body of "licentiates in sanitary practice." The first were to receive and register the reports of the second, who were to perform the duties of inspection and to issue the certificates which in the case of the specified buildings are, after the passing of the Act, to be compulsory. As at first drawn the Bill excluded Members of the Institution of Civil Engineers, of the Institute of British Architects, and of the Royal Institute of Architects in Ireland. So obvious a defect had of course to be amended; and all members of these bodies who shall have passed an examination conducted by their own governing bodies; civil engineers and architects of three years' standing, who shall prove to the satisfaction of the Local Government Board that their work has been *bonâ fide*, and has included sanitary construction; medical practitioners, registered as qualified in sanitary science, medical officers of health, and persons otherwise qualified, as the Local Government Board shall direct are now included. From one or another of the foregoing classes the owners of the buildings in question must get their sanitary certificates, and these cannot be given till the buildings satisfy the tests laid down and stipulated for in the Bill, and recognised as elementary by every sanitary authority. Penalties can be inflicted for the occupation of uncertified buildings, and for the issue of false certificates. The 1st of January, 1888, is proposed as the date after which it shall be unlawful to occupy an uncertified hotel, school, &c., and after every five years the building must be re-examined and a fresh certificate issued. Such is the essence of Mr. Lacaita's Bill.

It was fortunate for the promoters of this Bill that it never reached the second reading last session. Its introduction seemed to have been characterised by undue haste; its provisions had not apparently been laid before the great legalised urban or other duly authorised sanitary authorities, as, for example, the Association of Municipal and Sanitary Engineers and Surveyors, which issued a circular calling attention to the prominent defect referred to above, and directing attention to the evils attending on spasmodic attempts on the part of private societies and individuals to vary the Public Health Act without consulting the legally constituted authorities. We have received a copy of the Bill as now being promoted, and also a report of a meeting of a Sanitary Registration Conference held recently at Argyll-place, Regent-street. The principle of the proposed Bill was approved by the conference, which then adjourned, on the understanding that at a subsequent meeting the details of the Bill will be discussed. We are glad that before again introducing a Bill of so advanced a legislative nature, opportunity is being afforded to those best fitted and most competent to aid in its formation to discuss its provisions. The Bill as at present draughted seems moderate, and not likely to prove vexatious in its administration; and if it appears to interfere too much with freedom of private action, such interference is more apparent than real, and

is not inconsistent with powers already vested in governing bodies for the protection of public health and safety of public life and limb. As we have only the Bill before us as a first draught, it is perhaps premature to criticise it closely. We may, however, suggest that a clause might be introduced bringing buildings about to be erected within its operation, somewhat on the basis of Lloyd's registration of ships built under their supervision, with the difference, of course, that sanitary provisions alone would come under its operation. We would also suggest the omission of Clause 10, which is, in fact, a specification, and therefore too inelastic to constitute practical legislation. Circumstances alter cases in architecture as well as in other matters. It is also a discourteous reflection upon the competence of the professional experts who will have to administer the Bill should it become law. The principle of the Bill has our approval, but as a matter of course, before its principle can be made law the Bill itself must be thoroughly discussed and its provisions scrutinised. It is a very paternal legislative proposal indeed, and is open to the same objections that are common to all laws empowering the State to interfere with private action; and we question whether sanitary engineers will be especially eager to support it. The primary objection is the removal, to a considerable extent, of that responsibility which of right should be borne by the individual, and undertaken by the State. The granting of certificates for a term of five years is too long a period. To be at all effective the certificate should rather take the form of a license, or else be put on the basis of, say, a pilot's or ship captain's certificate, and the building in question ought to be inspected at least once a year; and where such inspection detected defects, the owner should be notified thereof, and if they were not made good, then the certificate ought to be suspended until they were. It by no means follows that because a building is in a sanitary state to-day that it will continue so for any specific time. Frost often bursts water-pipes; floods burst sewers; careless servants choke drains and sink pipes; foreign matter finds entrance into water-tanks, decays there, and poisons water supply. Of course, it is impossible effectually to guard against these things, but yearly or half-yearly inspection will do much more service than that at quinquennial periods.

Another defect in the Bill as now draughted is that it does not fix responsibility with sufficient accuracy. It says,—"Any owner, lessee, sub-lessee, or occupier" shall be liable if the building is not certified. It does not, however, state which of these four parties is to be prosecuted in the first instance. This will have to be amended. It almost seems a piece of irony to include hospitals in an Act of this kind; but the law has not, or ought not to have, any terrors for the innocent, and the hospital authorities therefore need not fear, though at the same time the discoveries made concerning the foundations of a certain hospital at a not very remote date point to the possibility that even temples of healing are not necessarily or invariably what they might be well presumed to be. There does not seem any very apparent reason either why the actual operation of the Act should, if it become law, be postponed for three years as in Clause 11. Does it imply that all the buildings now existent which it will affect are so bad that not less than three years' notice is required to set them in order? A power of appeal is included in the Bill. We foresee one good likely to accrue from the Act if it become law, and that is that probably it will have the effect of strengthening the hands of sanitary engineers in their dealings with jerry builders, and among other powers compel them to so arrange their pipes and drains as to facilitate inspection. Builders sadly need a little of the training that mechanical engineers have to get before they are fit to design machines—namely, to make the various parts as accessible as possible. Engineers are more humble-minded than builders; they recognise that the best laid of their plans "gang agee" at times, and must be put right, and the means of doing so are provided for as much as circumstances will admit. The builder appears to think that his work will outlive the Pyramids, and pays no thought to possible repairs. Hence, in most cases the fracture of a pipe, the repair, however trivial, of a drain, almost always involves an amount of incidental work in searching out, first, the pipe or drain, then the place where it is damaged; and a subsequent replacement of bricks, plaster, earth, wood, paper, and paint wholly out of proportion to the actual damage needing repair. It is one thing to find the basement of a house flooded with sewage or other water; how to find the source of damage is in most cases quite another, and as difficult as the discovery of the North-West passage. There is no reason why this should be so, and if sanitary engineers had adequate powers matters would not remain in so objectionable a condition. If Mr. Lacaita can contrive to introduce a clause into his Bill to provide means to compel an accessible method of fitting pipes and tanks within houses generally, and also to compel builders to supply the owners of every house built by them with a proper drawing, showing clearly the exact position of every drain and pipe pertaining to, but outside it, such clause will, we venture to believe, receive the hearty support of every engineer and householder.

SIR J. BAZALGETTE AND MR. BAILEY-DENTON.

In another column we publish a letter from Lieutenant-Colonel Jones referring to a passage in our article of last week on "Metropolitan Sewage Disposal." The question at issue has reference to the opinion expressed by Sir Joseph Bazalgette concerning the chemical treatment of sewage, when giving evidence last year before the Select Committee of the House of Commons on the pollution of the river Lea. In his recent lecture at the Parkes Museum of Hygiene, Mr. Bailey-Denton described Sir J. Bazalgette as making certain statements to the Committee indicating a want of faith in the chemical treatment which the Metropolitan Board proposed to adopt at the main drainage outfalls. On the contrary, we made quotations from the evidence showing that Sir Joseph declared him-

self perfectly satisfied with that mode of treatment, so far as concerned the London sewage, in relation to the Thames. But it was another matter when Sir Joseph was questioned as to the discharge of a sewage effluent into the scant and sluggish stream of the river Lea. We pointed out that Mr. Bailey-Denton had failed to distinguish between that part of Sir Joseph's evidence which had reference to the Lea and that which dealt with the Thames. Lieutenant-Colonel Jones now says that we have ourselves misunderstood the evidence given by Sir J. Bazalgette, and have overlooked the fact that Sir Joseph proposed an enlarged dose of chemicals for the treatment of the Lea Valley sewage, even though he designed to discharge it into the Thames about one mile from the Metropolitan outfall at Barking. But the explanation of this is given by Lieutenant-Colonel Jones himself in his quotation from Question 1446, where Sir Joseph is asked, concerning the sewage of the Lea Valley:—"Will it be sufficient to deal with it chemically, in the same way as the sub-committee recommended as to the sewage of London?" Sir Joseph is quoted as saying:—"My opinion is that it will." This alone sufficiently proves our point—namely, that it was wrong to cite Sir Joseph as condemning the precipitation plan of the Metropolitan Board. But why did Sir Joseph propose to apply more chemicals to the Lea Valley sewage, even though it went into the Thames, than he considered necessary for the London sewage? He went on to explain that the chemical treatment he had proposed in the case of the Lea Valley sewage was in deference to the views of other people who might differ from him. He therefore adopted the higher estimate, in view of the possibility that a smaller expenditure would afterwards be found sufficient. What Sir Joseph proposed to do with the Lea Valley sewage is one thing, and what he approved in the case of the London sewage is another thing, for the simple reason that different considerations governed the two questions. In the former instance he was conciliating opposition. In the latter he was forming his own conclusion, which we still contend was favourable to the plan which is being adopted, whereas Mr. Bailey-Denton inadvertently made it appear otherwise. Sir J. Bazalgette objected to any chemically prepared effluent going into the Lea; but with regard to the Thames he declared the results arising out of the treatment of 9,000,000 gallons of London sewage daily by Mr. Dibdin's plan to be "very satisfactory;" and his reply to Question 1446 shows that if left to himself he would be prepared to adopt the same plan for the treatment of the Lea Valley sewage, providing it went into the Thames, and not into the Lea. We acquit Mr. Bailey-Denton of all intentional misrepresentation. It is not always easy to get at the real meaning of evidence recorded in a Blue Book, and the controversy which has arisen may in this instance be of some service in the way of elucidation.

SPEED EXPERIMENTS WITH SHIPS' MODELS.

A PROPOSAL has recently been made by Professor Philip Jenkins, who now occupies the John-Elder Chair of Naval Architecture in Glasgow University, to the effect that the shipbuilders and marine engineers of the Clyde should unite together to construct a tank where the models of vessels proposed to be built by the subscribers might have their curves of resistance and other qualities determined. The proposal has already been publicly made several times—amongst others by Mr. William Pearce, of the Fairfield Works, when delivering the opening lecture of the course in connection with the Naval Exhibition held in Glasgow in 1881; but notwithstanding a pretty wide consensus of opinion as to the desirability of some such tank being established, the matter seems never to have been carried any further. The revival of the subject now by Professor Jenkins will perhaps lead to its being more fully and satisfactorily discussed, if not to practical steps towards a realisation of the scheme. It is unnecessary to refer at any length at this time to the value of model experiments as exemplified in the case of the Admiralty tank established and conducted at Torquay by the late Dr. William Froude, and now under the management of his son, Mr. R. E. Froude. A recent and very sufficient proof of the importance which the Admiralty attach to this work, and the practical uses to which the investigations and results may be applied, is the construction of a new tank and the re-organising of the existing apparatus and staff at Haslar, near Portsmouth. The dimensions of the old tank were 280ft. long, 36ft. wide, and 10ft. deep. The new one is some 400ft. in length, 20ft. in width, and 9ft. deep. Indirectly the merchant service has derived much benefit from the tank worked under the auspices of the Admiralty, but being carried on primarily for investigation with Government vessels, and as the types of merchant vessels differ in so many essential respects from vessels of war, it is obvious that the benefits of such an establishment cannot to any great extent be taken advantage of in the interests of the mercantile marine. A set of conditions obtains in merchant ship design, concerned with changes of loading and draught and economical working, which are almost or altogether foreign to war ships, and renders the determination of the most suitable form and the most efficient propelling machinery for the former class of vessels a matter of greater intricacy, and perhaps of greater consequence, than for the latter class. Much useful information is undoubtedly derived from the system of trying vessels progressively on the measured mile, but to take the full benefit which such trials are calculated to yield, they should be supplemented by experiments with models. By such means the combined efficiency of ship, engines, and propellers, as ascertained by measured mile speed trials, can be dissected and pretty accurately apportioned to the respective elements constituting the total efficiency. One of the first private firms of shipbuilders to recognise the important aid which experiments with models may be made to yield in ship design and in the economical application of motive power was, as is well known, Messrs. Denny, of Dumbarton. The establishment of a tank similar to the one at Torquay in connection with their shipyard was effected in 1882, and the work of experiment has been carried on ever since with results which it is understood are gratifying to Messrs. Denny. It would certainly be a satisfactory state of things, and one from which incalculable benefit would accrue to naval architecture and marine engineering, if every firm of importance were similarly equipped; but on economical grounds this may be considered quite out of the question. The alternative therefore of having a tank supported by the general body of shipbuilders and engineers, of which they might all avail themselves in common, is a project more

likely of realisation. The difficulty, however, of instituting and carrying on a tank which would at once afford general benefit to the subscribers as a body, and secure for individual firms the exclusive advantages due to their own especial experience, skill, and enterprise, is very formidable. Another fruitful source of difficulty would be the adjustment of the administration, &c., so that the interests of competing firms could be equally attended to in times of great hurry with proposed vessels. Until some probable method of satisfactorily reconciling these apparently contradictory conditions can be pointed to we are afraid no substantial progress will be made in the matter.

HYDRAULIC MINING AND THE CALIFORNIAN RIVER BEDS.

The hydraulic system of mining is the cause of a great deal of contradictory statement in the *Mining and Industrial Advocate* of San Francisco and other journals, and a very interesting series of articles on "Mining Débris in Californian Rivers," by Mr. A. J. Bowie, jun., and others, by Mr. P. M. Randall, has been published by the journal mentioned. Some of those who have entered the controversy contend that the water level in the Sacramento, Yuba, and other rivers, for instance, has been materially raised by the mining debris, and beneficially so from the farmers' point of view. Others contend that the change of level is due to natural land washings very little affected by the hydraulic mining operations. From an estimate made by one mining engineer, it appears that the sediment carried into the rivers by deep placer or hydraulic mining is not more than 5 per cent. of the mass of material worked; but as the quantity of hydraulic material washed per year in the Yuba basin, for instance, is 22,326,500 cubic yards, the 5 per cent. represents 1,116,320 cubic yards of sediment carried into the Yuba River. This sort of thing, coupled with the denudation of forest lands, must, if continued, produce effects on the rainfall and floods of the Californian rivers which will some day be disastrous.

LITERATURE.

The Portable Engine: its Construction and Management. By WILLIAM DYSON WANSBOROUGH. London: Crosby Lockwood and Co. 1887.

THERE is an unmistakable vacancy in engineering literature for a good work on the portable engine. At present all we have are a work by H. Weber, "Der Bau der Locomobilen," and an article in "Perel's Handbuch des Landwirthschaftlichen Maschinenwesens." But these, besides being not all that could be desired, are inaccessible to the majority of English readers. The work now before us does but little to meet the existing want, but it must be admitted that this is not its primary object. The author states that it is designed for the use of buyers and users of steam engines generally, as well as for those more directly engaged in the construction and management of the portable engine. As might be expected, the attempt to unite the requirements of buyers and constructors has not been attended with the most satisfactory results, at any rate from the constructor's point of view.

Chapters I., II., III., IV., and VI., give an elementary description of the high-pressure steam engine and the locomotive boiler, units of connection, construction of the engine and boiler, and hints to purchasers. Instructions for the management and maintenance of the engine in working order appear to be well adapted for the service of users, but are not likely to be of very much use to constructors. On the other hand, chapters V. and VI., on the slide valve and the indicator diagram, would probably be of service to the latter class, but appear to be of too high an order of difficulty for the former.

Exception must also be taken to many of the statements made, and to a general want of breadth of view. For instance, we are told with regard to rivet joints that a common proportion in portable engine boilers for 80 lb. pressure and under, is to use for $\frac{3}{8}$ plate $\frac{3}{8}$ rivets at 2in. pitch. Now, as a matter of fact, several eminent firms are using far better designed joints than this. In one case $\frac{3}{8}$ plates have $\frac{3}{4}$ rivets at 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ in. pitch. Again, as to boiler tubes, sizes $\frac{1}{4}$ in. and $\frac{1}{2}$ in. smaller in diameter than those given as a standard are now largely used with the best results. Presumably, in neglecting the weight of the valve, &c., in the calculation for the leverage of a safety valve, the author had in view the object of making the matter as clear as possible to the non-professional reader. It can hardly be that this practice is followed by any leading firm. With regard to the statement that most of the best engines are now constructed with a separate box for the stop, throttle, and safety valves, of course there is room for a diversity of opinion as to whose the best engines are, but certainly this is the practice of very few of the firms who can be considered to lead the trade. The use of the separate box very much simplifies the cylinder casting, and is doubtless in some respects an advantage in working. But, on the other hand, the consequent increase in the number of steam joints and of holes in the boiler are highly objectionable, more especially, of course, with high pressures. While agreeing with the author as to the use of separate liners in cylinders, it should be pointed out that a large number of really good engines are made without. No doubt the saddle construction for crank shaft brackets makes a good stiff job, but it is heavy and cumbersome, and not in our opinion equal to the wrought iron brackets used by Messrs. Marshall and others.

With regard to exhaust pipes inside the boiler, it may be remarked that, in spite of the objections thereto, one firm, Hornsby's, has consistently adhered to this construction, as well as to their steam dome and enclosed cylinders for many years, and with good results. It must of course be borne in mind that comparatively little heat is transmitted through a surface having steam on both sides of it, and the quantity that does in this case pass, and is imparted to the exhaust, is not altogether wasted, as it beyond doubt serves to reduce the back pressure in the cylinder by giving a freer exhaust.

In the brief historical sketch some reference to the labours of Howden of Boston, Dean of Birmingham, and Cambridge of Market Lavington, might, with advantage, have been incorporated. The work is illustrated by

wood-cuts of typical details, and by two plates representing a portable engine in side and end elevation and plan.

Topographical Drawing and Sketching. By LIEUTENANT HENRY A. REED, U.S. Army. 4to., pp. 129. New York: Wiley, 1886. London: Trübner and Co.

THE author, who holds the position of assistant professor of drawing in the United States Military Academy at West Point, has been induced to write this work to supply American students with a complete and fully illustrated treatise of native origin, in rapid methods of hill shading, which shall present the subject of topographical sketching in a form suited to the requirements of a beginner. This he has done by searching every available source, both native and foreign, for new information, and such as the publications of the United States Coast Survey, and the different manuals in use in the military schools of France and England. The result is a very useful volume containing full details of the routine of map making and drawing (apart from surveying) carefully described and illustrated, but which, as might be expected from the nature of the case, contains but few novelties calling for notice here. The author speaks, apparently with some favour, of a labour-saving contrivance, which consists in electrotyping a tasteful arrangement of signs on thin copper, which is then mounted on a roller and when inked is passed over the surface of the plan that it is desired to ornament, when the result is obtained in at most one-tenth part of the time spent in drawing by hand. The typographical execution is exceedingly good, except as regards the plates, which are mostly printed on sheets from $\frac{3}{4}$ in to lin. smaller than the height of the page, giving them a shabby appearance quite out of keeping with the text. All the leading problems in contouring and hill shading by different methods are fully illustrated, but finished maps are restricted to a single example, taken from the French African Survey, which is so overloaded with heavily printed contour lines in colour as to be almost useless for ordinary itinerary purposes. There are some useful hints in the latter part of the volume, as sketching in mountain countries, which are likely to be of value to many besides military students. Oddly enough, the only example given of eye-sketching without instruments is one of a reconnaissance sketch made by an officer on the Duke of Wellington's staff in 1812, before the Battle of Salamanca.

MODERN FLOUR MILL MACHINERY.

IN an article in THE ENGINEER of the 17th December last we described the modern flour mill, and it will be remembered that we stated that an enormous amount of capital had been sunk within the last six years in equipping the British and Irish mills with the roller or gradual reduction system. In this article we propose pointing out how an expenditure of something like £9,000,000, in the very short period of six years, has been distributed among the British, German, and American flour mill engineers.

The importance and extent of our flour mill industry appears to have been very imperfectly realised by the flour mill and general engineers, and the result has been that the recent extensive requirements in flour mill machinery have to a very large extent been met by foreign manufacturers. It is matter for serious thought that while Great Britain has been for over half a century the world's workshop, very few of the new industries that have ripened into such splendid maturity upon our soil have had their birth in this country. The industrial genius of Great Britain is known to be sluggish in the earlier stages of the development of any complete revolution in the method of manufacturing any special product, but when the minds of those interested are at last awake to the importance of the matter, in a few strides our manufactures out-distance those of the country who may have given them the lead. Numerous instances of this description will at once suggest themselves to the reader who possesses a knowledge of the history of industrial progress. There is no more striking case in this connection than the recent development in roller milling. It is true that the use of rollers in doing the work of millstones dates as far back as 1820, when Collier, of Paris, erected a flour mill fitted with rolls instead of stones. A few years later roller mills were erected at Venice and in Switzerland, but all of these mills failed, and reverted to the old millstone system. The first complete successful roller mill plant was the Pesth mill erected in 1867. This was a very large concern, as it was fitted with 210 pairs of rolls. Roller milling from that date spread on the Continent, and from 1870 to 1880 all the high-class brands of flour used in this country were imported from Hungary. This is perhaps as good a place as any to dispel the very general opinion that America gave the British millwrights the lead in roller milling machinery. The Americans by the loudness of their claims to many improvements succeeded for a time in gaining some credit as the pioneers of all useful inventions, and particularly of all inventions in milling machines and mill systems. It is a fact nevertheless that complete roller mill plants were at work in England before they were introduced into America, and British millers and milling engineers are little indebted to their American brethren, as, in addition to our home engineers being before the Americans in roller milling, the gradual reduction system is to be found carried out in a much more elaborate and scientific manner in British than it is in the American mills.

In the early days of roller milling in this country some of the American firms made strenuous efforts to get a large share of the orders for milling machines; but the home millers never took kindly to the machines of American construction. There was no denying that the principle of many of the American machines was good, but the design and construction were not such as to com-

mand the confidence of those accustomed to British-made machines. The German-made machines met with a more extensive patronage from British buyers, as the figures in this article demonstrate.

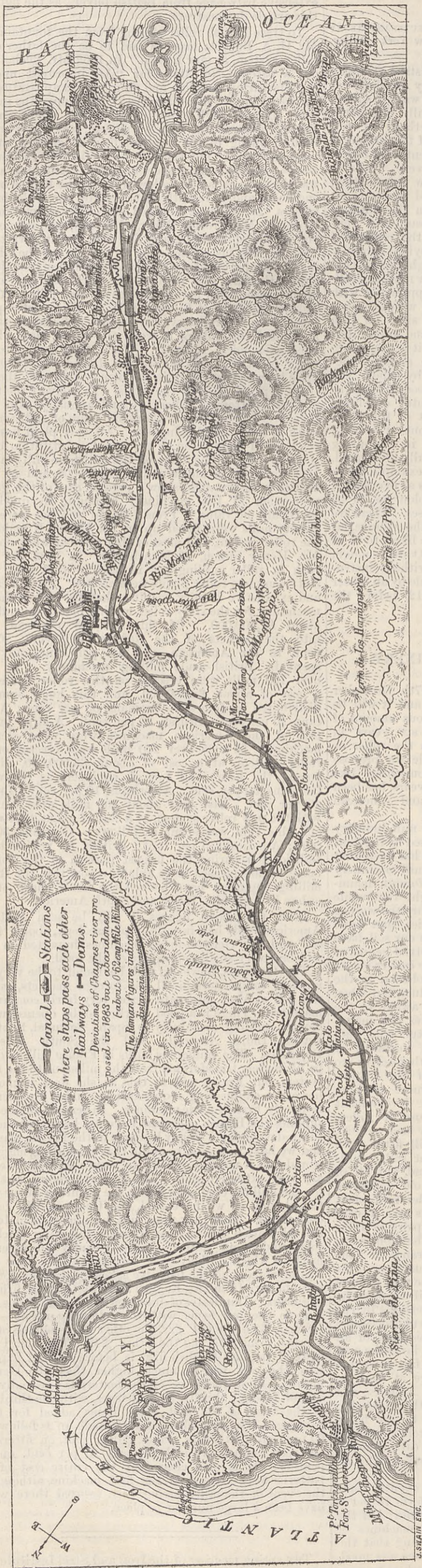
To trace British roller milling from the fountain-head, Mr. G. A. Bucholz may be said to be the father of the roller system, as now known. In 1862 Mr. Bucholz took out a patent—No. 3113—for "An improved mode of manufacturing semolina and flour, and in apparatus to be employed in such manufactures." The apparatus in these early days of high grinding were very crude, and the Bucholz system, like Collier's system, was pretty much a failure, owing to the impossibility of getting suitable machines made; but there is no doubt that the Bucholz *modus operandi* or flow sheet of gradual reduction milling was the same as is now followed by all the British milling engineers, and, as recently remarked by one of the leading millers, "Mr. Bucholz laboured, and others entered into his labour." Mr. Proctor Baker, of Bristol, who is known as one of the ablest millers in England, recently wrote that "Mr. Bucholz just missed a big thing." It may be interesting to state here that a son of Mr. Bucholz designed the first automatic roller mill plant in the world, and carried out his invention with perfect success at the mills of Messrs. Barlow and Sons, of Bilston, in 1879. This great improvement made the roller system popular in Great Britain, as it enabled the millers to work the roller plants in the most economical manner. When this first automatic roller plant was started by Mr. Bucholz in 1879, very little interest was taken in the new system, and the millstone kept its place in the mills. To convert the thirty million quarters of wheat ground annually into flour, there were about twenty thousand pairs of millstones at work in the United Kingdom. All this plant has been rendered of little value by the rapid substitution of the roller system. The value of the millstone mill plants in 1880 could not be much under £6,000,000, and no other British industry could show a parallel case of the greater proportion of the machinery becoming so quickly of practically no value. From 1878 to 1882 not more than twenty mills were fitted up in the United Kingdom on the roller system, and most of that number were done by Mr. Henry Simon, of Manchester. In 1883 the great rush in roller milling set in, and in that year about sixty complete roller plants were erected. From a careful and exhaustive inquiry we find that the cost of the new machinery for the sixty roller milling plants amounted to about £1,000,000. Of this sum, 65 per cent. went into the pockets of the German engineers, 20 per cent. to the American, and 15 per cent. only was spent in British-made milling machinery. In 1884, over 130 mills were erected on the roller system at a cost of about £2,500,000, and this huge sum was distributed as follows:—Germans, 60 per cent.; Americans, 20 per cent.; British, 20 per cent. A large proportion of the American machines were wheat-cleaning machines. In 1885 over 200 mills were erected on the roller system, at a cost of about £3,500,000, divided among the home and foreign engineers as follows:—Germans, 50 per cent.; Americans, 10 per cent.; British, 40 per cent. Last year about 160 mills were equipped with the new roller system, at a cost of about £2,500,000, and this sum was spent as follows:—Germans, 30 per cent.; Americans, 5 per cent.; British, 65 per cent. In addition to securing the largest portion of the work at home, we are pleased to be able to report that the British milling engineers have booked the lion's share of the orders in Australia, India, and South America.

From the above figures it will be seen that the American trade has, in milling phraseology, about "tailed off," and the German-made machines imported in 1887 will be a very small percentage of the total.

The Germans, however, will be found to be very formidable competitors in all the foreign markets, as they can sell at very moderate prices very fairly constructed machines. There is a good market to be opened up for modern milling machinery in Spain, Portugal, Southern Russia, India, Australia, and the South American Republics. The numerous mills in France will no doubt be ultimately transformed from the millstone to the roller system, but France will in this, as she does in most of her other engineering requirements, confine the demand to purely French-made machines. In general engineering supplies the British engineers have not been very successful in developing a steady business in the French markets, and we have no reason to doubt that the milling engineers would find it not less difficult to secure French orders on any very extensive scale. The future therefore, we think, for the milling engineers lies in the countries above mentioned, and, as we have said, the Germans will be the only rivals. That they must not be under-estimated in the calculation will be clear from the following which has come under our notice:—Quite recently an ingenious machine which is likely to be largely used in flour mills was invented, and the patentee asked quotations for the manufacture from two English and two German firms of engineers. Duplicates of drawings and specifications were sent to the four firms with the following result:—One German firm quoted £22, the other £25, and one of the English firms £37, and the other £42. The detail estimate of the first English firm is before us, and explains why the cost was so much higher than the German figures. First, the price of the materials; secondly, the cost of labour; thirdly, shop charges, with one-third part of the total of the first three items added for trade expenses. The shop charges were made up as follows:—60 per cent. on turners' wages, 30 per cent. on fitters', 15 per cent. on pattern-makers', and 20 per cent. on carpenters'. It is also clear that the entire cost of the patterns were charged on the first machine, although in the event of the order having been secured there would have been a large number to place.

The spring meeting of the Iron and Steel Institute will take place on the 26th, 27th, and 28th of May, in London.

MAP OF THE ISTHMUS OF PANAMA AND PANAMA CANAL ROUTE.



NOTES ON THE PANAMA CANAL.

By R. NELSON BOYD, M. INST. C.E.

(Concluded from page 293.)

AFTER Tavernilla comes San Pablo, where the canal crosses the railway and a turning bridge will have to be constructed. A few kilometres beyond this point comes Gamboa, where the proposed reservoir was to be, and then the immense cutting of Culebra across the watershed. This is the most important work to be done on the canal. The length of the cutting is 1800 metres, and the deepest point of the cutting is 140 metres. The average for the total length is 88 metres. The height of 140 metres is not that of the centre line, but the height of the summit of one of the slopes. The latter are 1 to 1, and the width at top of cutting will be from 200 to 300 metres. The quantity of earth to be moved is 20,000,000 cubic metres. At the time of my visit little work was being done, because a new firm of contractors had just taken over the cutting, and were making arrangements to suit their views. The previous contractors worked in steps, and used the small gauge Decauville railway and the steam navy. Of the latter they had seventeen at work. Up to date about one-twentieth of the quantity has been moved, so that about 16,000,000 cubic metres remained to be excavated. This has been the work of six years. Of course much had to be done in preparatory work, such as laying roads for tipping and getting the material together. However, as it now stands, it is estimated that it will require at the very least six years to finish it. The difficulties of this immense cutting are greatly enhanced by the nature of the ground, which is in great part composed of basalt rocks—dolomite—with bands of sand intervening.

Several slips have occurred and occasioned much trouble. This point is the watershed between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and from this on to Panama the canal is cut through comparatively easy ground. The only difficulties are the deviation of the Panama Railroad and of the river Grande.

When the canal was commenced the necessity of locks and gates was suggested owing to the difference of tide between the two oceans. The Atlantic tide at Colon rises 2ft., whereas the Pacific at Panama rises 20ft., and it has been ascertained that at low water the level of the Pacific Ocean is 3.25 metres—10½ft.—below the Atlantic. The last proposal to obviate the ebb and flow of the Pacific tide was to construct a basin near the Pacific end 4000 metres long by 500 metres wide, lined with strong quay walls and gates on the Colon side which would be opened at high water. The cost of this work was estimated at 50,000,000f. This as well as all other projects of a similar kind have been shelved for the time, and the present intention is to construct an open canal from end to end. The

I Read before the Civil and Mechanical Engineers' Society, March 30th, 1887.

canal ends at or near the mouth of the river Grande, and a channel has to be dredged for a distance of 5 kilos. into deep water through a bed of sand. This is proceeding at present, and three powerful dredges are at work. These are of the Gouze model, and able to raise 150 tons per hour. I was informed that it was intended to use Gwynne's Invincible elevator on other parts of the canal, mixing two-thirds water to one-third earth, and forcing to a distance of 80 metres.

The work done on the canal is not in proportion to the time spent. Up to the end of 1886 the total cube extracted, according to the figures of the company, was under 30,000,000 cubic metres. This gives an average of 6,000,000 per year. At present the work is progressing more rapidly, and in the year 1886 the quantity moved was

The rich tropical vegetation had settled on them, and green leaves were growing out of the fire doors and funnels. The waste in material is a matter of common, I may say public comment. Thousands of barrows, wagons of all kinds and sizes, rails, and even locomotives have been tipped over the banks and buried. Lots of new and expensive machinery from Europe has been left lying along the railroad, and may still be seen gradually rusting away into valueless dross. A good deal of this material was found unsuitable when it reached the Isthmus, but it had all to be paid for.

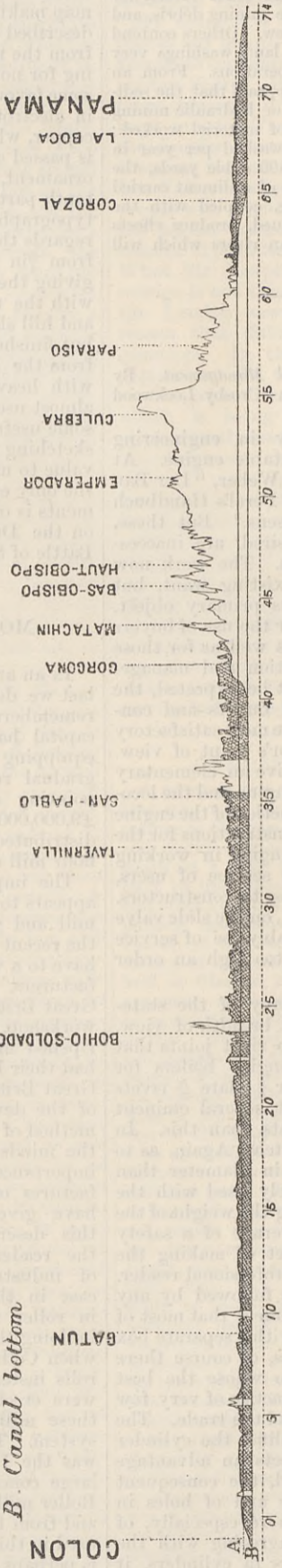
It was soon found that in such an unhealthy climate some provision had to be made for the many cases of sickness. Accordingly two hospitals have been erected, one at Colon and the other at Panama. The former

the management of a director at Panama—invariably a French Government engineer. A large number of clerks are employed at the central office in Panama; the canal is divided into five sections under the control of two chief engineers, and each section has a resident, or *chef de section*, and the necessary complement of technical and office assistants; then come about 10,000 workmen collected from different parts of the world. I have a list of the different nationalities employed in 1885, as follows:—

From Jamaica	9006
Carthage	141
Barbadoes	1344
Saint Lucia	465
Venezuela	272
From New Orleans	275
„ Martinique	542
„	800
12,875	

These proportions are fairly accurate up to the present time. It will be noticed that the great majority of the workpeople come from Jamaica and other English islands. Of course, they are all black men or mulattos. No white men can stand the climate of the Isthmus and work in the cuttings of the canal. The ten or twelve thousand men employed along the forty-five miles of cuttings make a very small show, yet they are moving earth at the rate of a million cubic metres per month.

Now comes the question as to how long it will take to complete the canal at that rate. It will certainly take longer than the three years allotted. The quantities estimated and admitted as correct for the main ship canal are 120,000,000 cubic metres, to this must be added for deviating and other works at least 30,000,000 cubic metres, which gives a total of 150,000,000 cubic metres. The quantity already moved is about 30,000,000, so that 120,000,000 cubic metres remain to be excavated. Taking the present rate, namely, 12,000,000 per annum, it will take ten years to complete the work. During the first few years little excavation was done; not only had the buildings, hospitals, houses, workshops, &c. &c., to be erected, but miles of rails had to be got on the ground and laid for tipping. The latter question, though a minor one, is in many cases a serious difficulty, as the cutting is made at the bottom of a narrow valley, where the only tip-room is a swamp lying above the level of the canal. All this preliminary work is now complete, or at any rate is supposed to be so, and the engineers consider that one-third of the actual work of the canal is accomplished. But if it has taken five years to do this, it will take another ten to complete the remaining two-thirds. The sanguine calculators reckon on a much larger excavation during the next few years, estimating 24,000,000 for this year and 36,000,000 for 1888, and so on. I do not think this will or can be realised. Even assuming the preparatory arrangements to be all that can be desired, an unavoidable delay will occur at the Culebra cutting. This



SECTION ALONG THE LINE OF THE PANAMA CANAL.

has 100 and the latter 500 beds, and this hospital consists of twenty-seven isolated wooden buildings, constructed on brick pillars rising about 10ft. from the ground. In these hospitals the company's employes are gratuitously cared for. Those of the contractors are admitted on payment of 1 dol. per day. In addition to these hospitals, a sanatorium has been erected on the island of Taboga, in the Bay of Panama, about ten miles from the shore.

Again, as there are no towns or villages on the Isthmus, and, in fact, no inhabitants except a few black men, who live in miserable huts, provision had to be made for housing the thousands of workmen employed. By a rough calculation made on the ground I estimate the number of houses and barracks for employes and men at over three thousand. These houses are all of wood, and were imported straight from the United States ready to put up. Lastly, the Panama railroad had to be bought up to secure the means of transport, and nine-tenths of the shares were purchased by the company, who thus have the control of the working. The railroad remains, however, an independent American company, in order to comply with the terms of the concession. All the works are under

11,727,000 cubic metres, or about 1,000,000 a month. During the early years of course much preliminary work had to be done and was done. Three large fitting and repairing shops have been erected, one at Colon, a second at Matachin, about the centre of the canal, and a third at Boca on the Pacific. These shops are amply fitted for repairing locomotives, dredges, engines of all kinds, and, in fact, all the machinery employed on the work. At La Boca iron barges are built as well as repaired. A good idea of the importance of these establishments may be formed from the cost, namely, over 20,000,000f., or nearly £1,000,000 sterling. These shops were intended to repair the immense quantity of machinery accumulated by the company along the railroad and the canal. In this department more waste has occurred than in any other. It is impossible to get at the value of all the machinery imported, but it has been far in excess of the requirements. Numbers of machines of all kinds are to be seen rusting along the line, and the loss is something abominable. The locomotive engines alone have been estimated at something over 57,000-horse power. I have seen a dozen locomotives, apparently in good order, shunted on a siding and left to rust away in the hot, damp climate.

immense and difficult work cannot be accomplished under six years, as estimated by men acquainted with the circumstances and competent to judge.

Then, again, taking the first or present rate of excavation, we are not allowing for the greater difficulties of the work as the depth increases. Up to the present time all earth moved has been close to the surface, and most of it has been moved by level roads. Later it will be necessary to raise the earth 29½ft., and the tips will be further away, so that as time goes on we ought to reckon on a smaller and not a larger rate of excavation. It appears clearly impossible to complete the canal under six years from 1st January, 1887; and judging from all I have seen and heard, I am inclined to think that it will take nearer twelve than six years.

With regard to the cost some figures will be interesting. First as to wages. These vary for labourers from 1½ dols. to 2 dols., say 6s. to 8s.; and for artisans, from 3 dols. to 4 dols., or 12s. to 16s., so that work of any kind is most expensive. The cost of blasting and moving a cubic metre of rock may be fairly taken at 16s., and a cubic metre of earth at 8s. Now, taking the remaining 120,000,000 cubic metres to be excavated at one-third rock and two-thirds earth, the total cost of moving this will come to 1,280,000,000f. To this must be added the office and general expenses of Paris and Panama, the cost of repairs, and the interest on capital during construction, and these cannot be taken at less than 1,000,000,000f. for ten years; so that the money still required, roughly calculated, will amount to about 2,200,000,000f. This estimate, founded on data independently collected, is corroborated by others, and some even put the amount above this.

The money already spent can only be surmised, but it must be very considerable. It is generally believed that more than the original capital has been already spent. Assuming that 1,000,000,000f. have been absorbed by the existing works, interest on capital, &c., the amount of capital eventually required will be over 3,000,000,000f., say £120,000,000 sterling.

Of course it is quite possible that in less time and at less cost a ditch from end to end with water flowing from the Pacific to the Atlantic may be made, but not the canal as designed, 29½ft. deep. The impression made on the mind by a visit to the canal is a sad one. It seems as if the success of Suez was to be tarnished by the failure of Panama, and the brilliant reputation earned in the East lost in the West.

The Suez Canal has been followed too closely for a work constructed under very different circumstances. The engineers at the head of Panama have been those of the Suez Canal. The section is much the same, and a great deal of the early machinery was similar to that used at Suez, though quite useless at Panama. The difficulties were underrated by the early surveyors, and the rate of wages miscalculated. Now there is uncertainty and hesitation about the plans to be adopted, and an eager but tardy straining after economy.

It is quite evident that more capital than had ever been contemplated will be required, and if this is not subscribed by the shareholders, it is very possible that this great work, organised by the master mind of Suez, will be completed by other hands.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR.

(Continued from page 314.)

METROPOLITAN SEWAGE DISPOSAL.

SIR,—In your article on the above, in THE ENGINEER of 15th inst., you make "a very serious point" of what you describe as the result of Mr. Bailey-Denton having overlooked certain parts of Sir Joseph Bazalgette's evidence, which you quote from "Proceedings" of the Select Committee on the Lea; and I therefore lose no time in drawing your attention to a fact which you appear to have overlooked, and upon which my partner's statement was justly based, in order that you may have the opportunity of putting the matter right in your next issue.

It will, I think, be admitted that the question, whether an engineer is "satisfied" or not with a proposed remedy for an admitted evil, can best be determined by his future carefully prepared plans and estimates in a very similar case, because second thoughts would hardly induce him to introduce a much more expensive remedy if he were satisfied—of course, taking the word to mean belief that the remedy would practically suffice—with the cheaper one previously proposed; and Mr. Denton stands on solid ground in drawing his conclusion from such data in preference to regarding the engineer's explanation of his views while undergoing cross-examination as quoted by you. Sir Joseph Bazalgette will hardly thank you for drawing attention to the "singular contradiction," for overlooking which you charge Mr. Denton with a "lack of discrimination in dealing with his evidence."

Now, the fact which you appear to have overlooked is that Sir Joseph Bazalgette's proposed outfall for effluent of the Lea sewage, after treatment with ten grains of lime and eight grains of sulphate of alumina, and with land treatment to follow, is not into the Lea, as your remarks imply, but into the river Thames, "about one mile from the metropolitan outfall at Barking." The true explanation of the "singular contradiction" is, I think, to be made as follows:—(1) That Sir Joseph's well-known and often expressed opinion is that the discharge of crude sewage into such a river as the Thames, heretofore at Barking, and in future at Thames Haven, is the right and only necessary measure for his own Board to adopt; but that he is in duty bound to uphold as "satisfactory" any palliative form of treatment which may happen to be favoured by his employers until they see fit to change their minds. (2) That in preparing his plans for the Lea Valley Sewage Sir Joseph Bazalgette did not think it likely that an independent body charged with the duty of dealing with sewage at Barking would be satisfied with what must appear to anyone holding his views—the harmless chemical delusion of his colleague, Mr. Dibdin.

Question 1446, however, clears up all doubt, as follows, from "Proceedings" of the Select Committee:—"1446. Will it be sufficient to deal with it chemically in the same way as the sub-committee recommended as to the sewage of London? My opinion is that it will;" [why not? when he, Sir Joseph Bazalgette, has so often stated his opinion that the discharge of crude sewage would suffice] "but as other people may differ from me in that respect, I thought it better, in laying the estimates before the committee, to put before them the most comprehensive and expensive system, so that the cost may not be susceptible of being increased, but possibly of being decreased."

It is true that this great subject of metropolitan sewage disposal has been complicated by many misunderstandings, which must try the patience of any one who wishes to unravel the truth; but when you recognise the fact that Sir Joseph Bazalgette laid formal plans and estimates before different authorities for two distinct systems of treating sewage before discharge of effluent into the Thames at points only about a mile apart, you will surely hasten to remove the stigma of misrepresentation implied against Mr. Denton by your remarks, evidently made under the impression that the Lea sewage was proposed to be discharged after the more costly treatment into the Lea, and not into the river Thames.

ALFRED S. JONES, Assoc. M. Inst. C.E.
Havod-y-Wern Farm, Wrexham, April 16th.

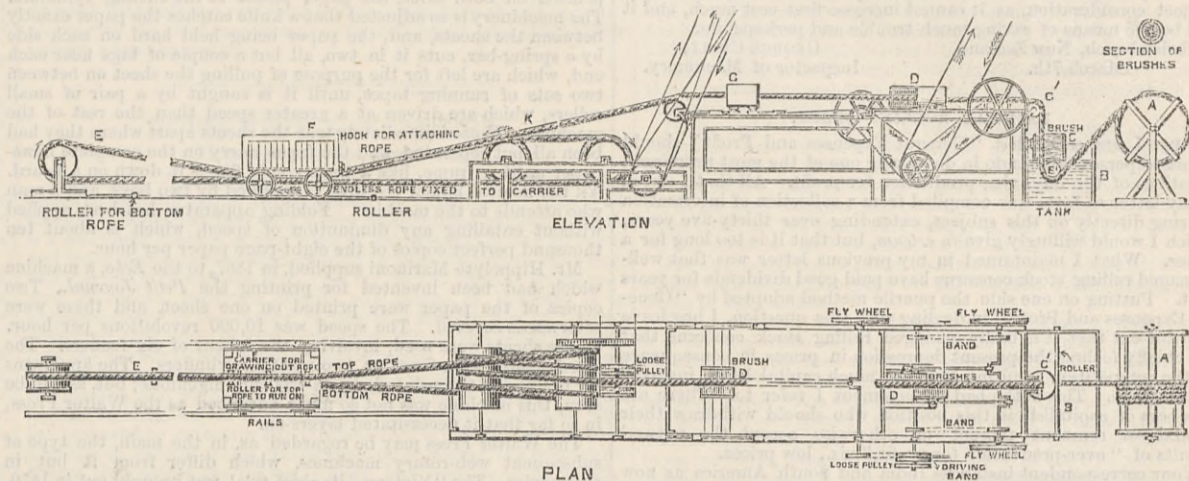
PAINTED AND TARRED ROPES.

SIR,—It is a well known fact amongst ropemakers, though not to the majority of users of ropes, that a rope which is tarred is not so strong as an untarred rope, for the strands in passing through the boiling tar lose at least a third of their strength, whilst a third is added to their weight. Now as tarred ropes are bought by users with the idea that they wear longer than untarred, and keep

out the wet, it occurred to me as a practical ropemaker to try and devise a means of coating ropes with a substance that should be impervious to water, without detracting from the strength of the rope, or adding perceptibly to its weight, and I have invented and patented a machine as per specification and drawing sent you herewith, and which does its work perfectly.

The rope K is first drawn around a coiling wheel A and then down under a roller B situated in a tank B containing the preserving solution; it then passes up through a pair of brushes C over another roller C', thence along through a pair of reciprocating painting brushes D; it then passes along through another pair of brushes G. In such ropes which it is found advantageous to coat whilst in strands, and before being completely made, that part of the machine marked F, and described as a drawing-out frame from the painting machine, may be converted into a rope-making machine as now in general use.

The substance which I use is a preparation of boiled oil and other ingredients, and I maintain that a hemp or manilla rope coated with this and left in water for twelve months would, at the end of that time, be as strong as when first placed there, and would be no heavier. Enclosed is a copy of a certificate received



from Messrs. Lloyd's Proving House Company, giving particulars of a test made there on the 8th inst. The rope tested was of the same quality and make throughout, and the broken pieces can be inspected by anyone interested in the matter. This coating will not wear off, but will last as long as the rope itself, and is inexpensive.

The advantage to large users is obvious—such as shipowners, railway companies, and for ropes used in the fishing trade. As the preservative can be produced in any colour, any one firm or company could have all their ropes made one particular colour. For yachts a perfectly white rope would have a very pretty effect, and when the rope got dirty it would only require wiping with a wet cloth to bring it back to its original colour. I send you also a small sample of white and yellow hemp rope, which has been so coated, and shall be pleased to supply any further particulars if you require them. I may say that the coating always keeps the rope soft and pliable.

Copy of a certificate received from Lloyd's Proving House Company, Limited, Tipton.

Lloyd's Proving House,
Tipton, Staffordshire.
8th April, 1887.

This is to certify that the ropes tested to destruction for Thomas Oliver and Co. as per particulars herewith, were delivered to us in one piece, one end of which was tarred, and the other end coated with paint or similar material. That the piece of rope was cut in our presence and each end tested separately with the following results:—

Painted end broke at 4½ tons
Tarred end „ under 2 tons.
ERASTUS R. ISITT, Supt.

The rope was 3½in. cir. bare, and was made from Russian hemp, and was hand spun. This test was thrice repeated, with exactly the same results, and the bits of rope sent you are pieces cut off that which was tested on the 8th inst. THOMAS W. OLIVER.
West Bromwich, April 9th.

PROFESSORS AND ENGINEERS.

SIR,—It would be easy to reply at considerable length, if you would accord the space, to "J. T. N.'s" letter, but it would not be expedient to adopt such a course. Your correspondent is obviously a young man, and has, I fancy, passed an examination or two with credit to himself. Possibly he is a Whitworth scholar. He is a favourable specimen of a type with which I am quite familiar. At present he knows very little apart from that kind of knowledge necessary to pass examinations—that is to say, he has read very little. If, for example, his reading had been at all extended, he would have known that the proposition that all energy is due to motion did not originate with me, but that it is at least as old as the days of Descartes, and that it is held as an article of faith by some of the ablest and most advanced thinkers of the age; were I to quote their names it would but occupy space, and convey little information to your correspondent. I gather from his letter that he holds that there are sources of energy with which motion has nothing to do. This may be possible, just as there is no inherent impossibility involved in the proposition that somewhere in space, space is curved; but it is certain that we have no evidence of energy apart from motion, and I have explicitly stated that we have no knowledge of anything which we are not, or have not been, told by our senses. It is a very old proposition that motion can be caused only by motion. This has often been stated in your columns by various correspondents, and I think that "J. T. N." will have no difficulty in seeing that, if this be true, energy can have no existence apart from motion. Lest "J. T. N." should once more, through lack of reading, fall into the error that these views are mine alone, I would refer him to Mr. G. T. Romanes' Rede Lecture for 1885, where he will find the following passage:—"The fundamental axiom is that energy can neither be created nor destroyed; that just as motion can produce nothing but motion, so conversely motion can be produced by nothing but motion." I fancy that he will admit that Mr. Romanes is a man who is capable of thinking lucidly and of selecting his subjects of belief.

The proposition I started with is that natural philosophy, using the word in a very extended sense, is not properly taught, and that it is not properly taught because the teachers adopt certain propositions and statements as true in substance and fact, the truth of which sometimes does not admit of demonstration, while in other cases they are manifestly untrue, or simply metaphysical propositions or abstractions. I could name many examples; one must suffice. I do not know whether "J. T. N." has read optics. I take it for granted, however, that he has. Now, the undulatory theory is taught as being true in substance and fact; yet every prism, nay, every drop of water in a rainbow, gives it the lie. In other words, the undulatory theory can on no existing assumption explain the dispersion of light.

It would be waste of space to discuss such questions as these at large, even if you, Sir, placed the whole ENGINEER week after week at the disposal of your correspondents. If, however, "J. T. N." will narrow the discussion to a single point in the teaching of science, I shall be happy to discuss that point with him; he maintaining that the teaching is sound, I maintaining that it is unsound. It may be that he will hit on a subject about which there can be

no discussion. If so, he must try again. It is not for me to suggest.

As I have no doubt he has seen by this time the mistake into which he has fallen concerning "rate of acceleration," I shall say nothing about it. If not, then I would refer him to Professor Tait. Finally, I would observe that the tone of his letter might have been better. Youth, however, excuses much. J.

London, April 19th.

ENGINE DRIVERS' EYESIGHT AND COLOUR BLINDNESS.

SIR,—As this subject is being discussed in your columns, I beg leave to offer a few remarks upon it. Mr. Stretton, in his letter published in your issue of April 15th, speaks of the absurdity of the theoretical test. I think he is somewhat rash in using such an expression, and it looks as though he wrote it without forethought or ignorance. I do not intend to go into the distance tests at any length, but may mention that in Germany a most varied and thorough test is applied, actual semaphores and signal lights being used, and the examination is conducted by day and by night. The point I wish to touch upon is the colour test. Mr. Stretton seems to wish—if I construe his letter rightly—for a more lax test as

regards the examination of locomotive drivers' eyesight. Now I don't think any test, if properly carried out, too severe for colour, when trying a man for such a post, especially in England. Men may pass many tests now applied, and still fail at the critical moment. It is well that, to prevent this, such a test as Prof. Holmgren's wool test, though theoretical, be resorted to. The part of this test where the person being examined must arrange the different shades of the several colours, is sure to bring out the truth as to whether he be colour-blind or not. To a man with abnormal colour vision the different colours or lights appear white or grey, as the case may be, and such a man may, by education and use, call the colours by their right names, and until accident reveals his defeat, is looked upon as one possessing normal vision. It would be quite possible for him to pass the "flag" or "lantern" test satisfactorily. Dr. Keyser mentions a case where a man could name a red light at 3ft. distance but at 30ft. called it green. A colour-blind person may pass all right for a time, and if a driver, may treat his signals in the proper way for years before his defective vision is detected. He sees all lights as white or grey, and only distinguishes them by their intensity. It can be easily understood how a brighter reflector, a clean spectacle, a smoked glass, or sudden change in the atmosphere may, lead to a serious mistake. Dr. Coher, of Breslau, mentions a case of a locomotive driver running for thirty years before being found to be colour-blind.

In 1880 the Minister of Public Works in Belgium ordered a most thorough test for colour-blindness to be made on the State Railways at a cost of 32,000f.—each man had to pass three distinct tests. By the above remarks I hope I have shown that there is more in the question of testing drivers for normal vision than Mr. Stretton seems to think; and though he may have only met one man during twenty years who could not distinguish various coloured flags and railway signals, I fully believe that had he gone more minutely into other cases and used such means as doctors and professors, who have made colour-blindness their life study recommend, he would doubtless have made some discoveries, as the North-Eastern Railway officials have done during the last few weeks.

In 1879 the German Railway Union examined 11,066 drivers and firemen, and found eighty colour-blind, or at the rate of 72 per cent. the total number of men examined was 85,996 of which 62 per cent. were found colour-blind. JOHN PLACE.
London, April 16th.

SIR,—In your impression of the 8th inst. is an interesting letter from "M. Inst. M. E.," relative to the testing of engine drivers' eyesight. It would I think be thankfully received if "M. Inst. M. E." would kindly state the size of the cards containing the black spots ½in. square; also what test he uses for night blindness—hemeralopia—which, as is well-known, occurs very frequently amongst railway officials. H. C.
Riga, Russia, April 13th.

DOMESTIC DRAINAGE.

SIR,—In your leading article of April 15th, on "Recent Advances in Domestic Drainage," I see you mention my "drain plug," which was patented for the purpose set forth, but it was never at the time thought the pressure would be applied from the second or first floor of a house to the drain by charging the rising pipe as well as the drain, as this pressure could never occur in practice, as the water would first come out of the lower outlets, such as gulleys in areas or water-closets in basements; but the usual and full test is to apply the plug and fill to the lowest outlet, and any drain above that outlet tested separately.

I quite endorse the reason for iron and the use of it below a house, but not in every case for long stretches in outer courts, for this reason—the house drain, on account of fatty matter, does not rust, but drains with water only, such as rain water, will quickly rust; and again, I think iron manholes a stretch too far when any contractor will guarantee to build brick to hold the pressure needed. Having an iron drain under this house and seen its action, I make it a point to show it to any one who is interested, and will be happy to afford any information in my power. J. BOTTING.
6, Baker-street, Portman-square, London, W., April 19th.

WHAT IS A FITTER?

SIR,—It appears that the ideas of many of the metropolitan magistrates on trade nomenclature are very vague. We read that John Jones or Michael O'Rourke, of "Sweep's-walk, Chelsea," "an engineer," was brought up as drunk and disorderly or for an assault. The proper trade designation would probably be engineer's labourer, foundry labourer, gasfitter, &c.; in no case engineer. Men employed in erecting engines are "engine fitters" and "erectors," not engineers in the proper sense of the word at all. The recent case brought before Mr. Bennett, of the Hammer-smith Police-court, illustrates this system of brevet rank in a delightful manner. Some labourers employed on the American Exhibition building claimed fitter's wages of the manager, and very nearly got their claim recognised, as the magistrate called for a dictionary, and found that a "fitter" is "one employed to

THE IRON, COAL, AND GENERAL TRADES OF BIRMINGHAM, WOLVERHAMPTON, AND OTHER DISTRICTS.

(From our own Correspondent.)

Few ironworks began the week after the holidays with a large accumulation of orders. Mostly, the mills and forges have been deficient of enough specifications to afford full employment to the hands.

The suspension of buying on account of the United States is the chief feature of current business. Indents are conspicuous by their absence, and speculative offers are at much too low a figure to arrest the attention of makers.

Few commodities have been quicker to respond to the demand for easier rates than certain brands of high-class hematite pigs. These were easy to buy to-day—Thursday—at a good half-crown under the prices confidently asked at the quarterly meeting in Wolverhampton.

As before, so also now, these makers when forced to quote, asked prices that it was known would be rejected. By the time the orders now in hand are worked off, "the Yankee—they intimate in the phrase of the market—will come on again."

There is an active enquiry this week for double-sawn crop ends of steel rails. These are ends of rails freed of their fangs and suitable for reheating and slitting up into numerous oblong sections which the cutlers and the rest in Sheffield and Birmingham display much ingenuity in adapting to requirements before discharged by steel made for the purpose.

This article has lately been selling at 60s. a ton, and the demand has been so considerable that the market is practically bare of it, yet consumers decline to give a price 5s. under that figure.

Though at their meeting in Birmingham last week the galvanisers resolved to make no alteration in prices, there is yet a somewhat severe competition going on, and the makers of the black sheets find it impossible to realise the prices of a fortnight ago.

Medium iron bars are less pressed at the moment by steel bars. These last are somewhat stronger this week, £6 5s. being now firmly demanded. But soft steel bars, on the contrary, are somewhat lower, and are to be occasionally bought at a little over £5, the price of common iron bars, which in their turn are a shade weaker.

The demand for common tin-plates for export is scarcely so brisk in this district as before the termination of the strike in Wales. Inasmuch as 12s. 6d. easy per box is now being accepted free on board in Swansea, Staffordshire, and Worcestershire, tin-plate firms are out of the competition for sheets for the United States required in such services as petroleum cans and meat and fruit tins.

Tinned sheets of the "Cookley K," brand are 26s.; Cookley SS," 24s.; "Cookley," 23s.; black "Dibdale," 8s.; "K.B.C.," 9s.; "Crown," 10s. 10d.; "C.S.S charcoal," 14s. 10d.; "Knight's charcoal," 18s. 10d.—all per box at the works.

The quotations of Messrs. E. P. and W. Baldwin at date are:—Seven singles, £10; Wilden B., £11; BB., £12; singles, £11. Upon doubles an extra 20s. to 30s. per ton is quoted, and upon lattens a further 20s. to 30s. Charcoal sheets are £15; best charcoal £18, and extra qualities £21.

Local iron and steelmasters are encouraged to hope for a better export demand as the year advances by the nature of the Board of Trade returns for March. These manifest that the iron and steel trades still show a steady and improving advance, the total quantity exported for the month being 342,934 tons, against 255,210 tons for the corresponding month of last year, an increase of 87,724 tons, or 34 per cent. The value was £2,115,050, an increase of £320,387, or 15 per cent.; but the prices have not proportionately improved.

Table showing the tonnage of iron shipped: IRON. Month of March. 1886. 1887. Pig and puddled... 141,878... 229,673

The following are the figures showing the tonnage of iron shipped:—

Table showing the tonnage of iron shipped: IRON. Month of March. 1886. 1887. Pig... 65,845... 94,849

The iron main business is at a low ebb, and prices are sadly cut up. Not a little of the quietude is traceable to the indisposition of the Board of Trade to permit free expenditure by the metropolitan water companies at a time when there is every prospect of the several concerns being taken over by the municipalities or by the Government; and pressure has had occasionally to be put upon the Board of Trade.

bought if the water companies had not taken this action, and the Board of Trade had not judiciously yielded.

A large quantity of wrought and cast ironwork is being required by the Huddersfield Corporation in connection with a contemplated wholesale market, which is to cover an area of 2655 square yards.

It is anticipated that next week a general strike in all branches of the Cradley Heath chain trade will be declared.

The Birmingham, Tame, and Rea District Drainage Board are being congratulated upon a new development which is just now occurring of their system. It has long been felt by the Works Committee that when the success of the system of irrigation by the effluent sewage had been demonstrated on the farm of the board, other agriculturists in the neighbourhood would be desirous of sharing in the advantage, and that by that means a wider area would be available for the final filtration of the effluent through the soil.

A meeting of the Walsall Chamber of Commerce was held on Monday, when a communication was announced from the War-office requesting the Chamber to ascertain whether the publication of prices in tenders accepted by them would be of advantage to the contractors themselves and to the community at large.

NOTES FROM LANCASHIRE.

(From our own Correspondent.)

Manchester.—The depression in the iron trade of this district seems to increase rather than decrease, and the second quarter of the year has opened with only a very discouraging outlook. There is a continued absence of new work of any weight coming forward, and makers and users of iron seem to be each waiting to see which will have to give way the first.

The Manchester iron market on Tuesday brought together about an average attendance, but business was extremely slow, and where sales were made lower prices had to be taken. For pig iron there was little or no inquiry of any weight.

Makers of hematites are still holding on to about late rates, but they are being undersold by merchants and dealers to the extent of quite 2s. to 3s. per ton.

In the manufactured iron trade business is still very slow, and makers generally have great difficulty in finding sufficient work to keep their forges going. Quoted prices remain on the basis of £5 per ton for good qualities of bars delivered into the Manchester district, but where there are anything like favourable specifications for prompt delivery to be got makers are not very firm in holding out for their full prices.

From some of the machine tool makers I receive reports of an improvement in trade, and here and there firms are getting decidedly busier, but this is not at all general, and the prevailing reports are still anything but encouraging.

The engineering section of the Manchester Exhibition is now in so forward a state that a very fair opinion can be formed as to how this important branch of industry will be represented, and a brief outline of the general characteristics of the exhibit will be of interest. The superficial area covered by this section of the Exhibition is about 150,000 square feet, independent of the large boiler-house, in which ten 30ft. by 8ft. Galloway boilers have been laid down, whilst the number of exhibitors is about 400.

there will be a number of very fine exhibits, some of them partaking of an educational character, and such as have not been seen in any previous Exhibition. Amongst the most interesting will be a series of exhibits showing the process of iron and steel manufacture from the ore to various descriptions of finished goods, and there will be a magnificent display of six splendid locomotives supplied by the principal makers in the country, showing the most recent progress in this branch of railway engineering, and in contrast to these will be a model of the old Rocket, made by Mr. Webb, of Crewe.

In the coal trade there is a steady business doing, and with the exception that in the better classes of house-fire coal there is a little giving way, prices generally are being well maintained. At the pit mouth, best house-fire coal averages 8s. 6d. to 9s.; seconds, 7s. to 7s. 6d.; common house coal, 5s. 9d. to 6s. 3d.; steam and forge coals, 5s. 3d. to 5s. 6d.; burgy, 4s. 6d. to 4s. 9d.; best slack, 3s. 6d. up to 4s.; and common, 2s. 6d. to 3s. per ton.

For shipments the demand continues fairly good, and delivered at the high level, Liverpool, or the Garston Docks, prices average 7s. to 7s. 3d. per ton.

The question of miners' wages is again coming to the front, and it is not impossible that with the close of the present month some reduction on the rates now being paid may be put in force.

Barrow.—There is again a weaker tone to note in the hematite pig iron trade. The demand has fallen off, especially from American sources, and there is not so much doing on home account, but makers are well placed for orders, and it is probable that activity in an industrial sense will be maintained at the iron works in the district for several months to come, notwithstanding the fact that large stocks are held at makers' works and elsewhere.

THE SHEFFIELD DISTRICT.

(From our own Correspondent.)

Is it generally known that under former patent laws Government claimed the right of adopting anything they chose, of British invention, without acknowledgment or reward? Eleven years ago a Sheffield manufacturer, who has made himself a name in the manipulation of steel, secured a patent for the production of common and shrapnel shell and other similar projectiles, which were cast the shape and thickness required, and were not liable to be over-heated.

