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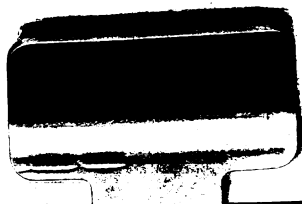
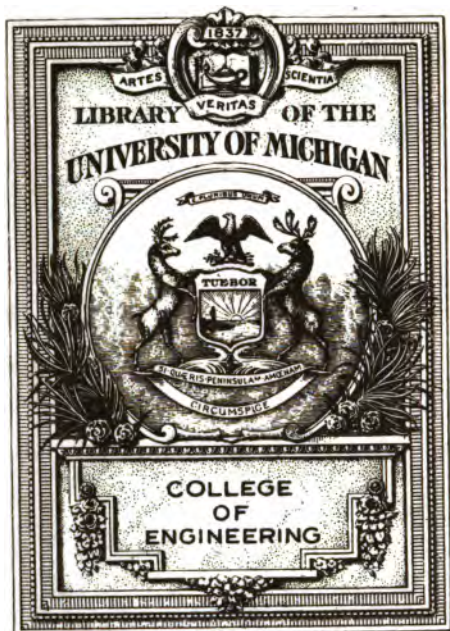
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A Practical Manual

ON

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*EMBRACING INFORMATION ON THE TOOLS, MATERIALS AND  
PROCESSES EMPLOYED IN THEIR CONSTRUCTION.*

BY  
*Paul N. Hasluck*  
PAUL N. HASLUCK,

AUTHOR OF "LATHE WORK," "THE METAL TURNER'S HANDYBOOK,"  
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## P R E F A C E.

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MODEL ENGINEERING is a branch of the mechanical arts that has received but a scanty share of literary treatment. The subject seems, however, to be particularly suited for such discussion, it being so closely associated with experimental work.

The reader of this HANDYBOOK is assumed to have some practical experience in handling tools, and some knowledge of mechanical manipulation, such as can be gleaned from other volumes in this series; turning, filing, fitting, soldering, etc., having been already treated upon.

This HANDYBOOK contains a large number of carefully-engraved Illustrations, accurately reduced from working drawings of model engines that have been made under my own supervision. The value of these accurate illustrations will be appreciated by those who are interested in models of the kind they represent. I may remind readers that their value is not to be estimated by any number of pages of letterpress. A single drawing often shows at a glance what could not be so clearly explained in volumes of type.

Large extracts from some articles written originally by me for the *Boy's Own Paper* are incorporated in this HANDYBOOK. I am indebted to the kindness of Mr. G. A. HUTCHISON, the Editor of that paper, for permission to reproduce them here.

P. N. HASLUCK.

LONDON,

December, 1888.

13065A

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THE  
MODEL ENGINEER'S HANDYBOOK.

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CHAPTER I.

*PRINCIPLES OF THE STEAM-ENGINE.*

**T**HE making of model engines is a mechanical exercise which finds great favour amongst amateurs, and indeed all young beginners at engineering. The work is seldom pursued with any very satisfactory result, as really considerable skill is necessary to construct working models. The tyro who commences his miniature engineering labours finds very little published information which is of use to him.

Model engines, in every stage of manufacture, from the rough castings direct from the foundry to the complete, highly-finished working model, may now be purchased in nearly every town of importance throughout Great Britain. Though this trade is of but recent growth, its continual extension proves that model engines are objects of interest to a large number of the rising generation, and it is felt that information as to their manufacture will prove acceptable to very many readers.

It will be advisable to gain an insight into the principles which govern the action of a steam-engine, and to learn some of the technical peculiarities, before proceeding to



attempt its manufacture. There are numerous text-books on the steam-engine which may be studied with advantage, and which explain the theoretical principles.

The modern engine, which now claims our attention, is the result of numerous successive improvements. The application of steam as a motive power was probably originally made by Hero, who, 150 B.C., constructed, or at least described, an *Æolipile*. This was a hollow sphere, with hollow bent arms attached; water was placed inside the sphere and heated; when steam generated, it issued from the arms and caused the sphere to rotate, by reacting on the air. A model of this, the primogenitor of the modern steam-engine, can be bought at many opticians' shops for about one shilling, and in the streets of London for one penny.

The first known practical application of steam to perform useful work was made by Thomas Savery, in 1698, who arranged what was then called a fire-engine, to raise water to a height of about 19 feet. Savery's engine acted on the principle of the barometer; the water was forced upwards by atmospheric pressure into an empty receiver, and was afterwards carried higher by steam pressure.

The commencement of the eighteenth century began the first steps towards the development of the modern form of engine. Savery and Newcomen made improvements which were perfected by James Watt, who was born at Glasgow in 1737. Amongst other valuable improvements he first contrived to convert the reciprocating motion into a rotary one by means of the crank. In the year 1800, Watt retired from business, leaving the steam-engine in much the same condition as we find it now. The application of steam-power for locomotion, both on land and on water, followed; and now stationary, locomotive, and marine engines, driven by steam, are distributed all over the civilised world.

Thomas Newcomen was the first to arrange the moving parts of the steam-engine in such a way that the steam did not act directly on the water to be raised. He was the first to work out the idea of a piston, which made a distinct advance in the application of steam as a general moving power. Newcomen's engine consisted of three principal parts: the boiler, a vessel in which the steam was generated; the cylinder, in which steam was condensed; and the beam, the movements of which followed the alternate admission and condensation of the steam, and communicated the motion to the pump-rod. The cylinder was placed directly above the boiler, from which the steam passed through a stop-cock into the lower part of the cylinder, and acted against the piston, which then made a stroke upwards, the pump-rod end of the beam being balanced to suit the pressure. When the piston was at the end of its stroke, a cock was opened, which admitted cold water, this condensed the steam in the cylinder. A vacuum being thus obtained, the atmosphere acted above the piston, forcing it down with a pressure of 15 lb. per square inch of surface, the motion of the piston causing the up-stroke of the pump-rods, water, &c. By the successive repetition of these operations, the engine was steadily worked. Newcomen's was a single-acting engine, the steam acting on one side of the piston only, and was called an atmospheric engine, because it depended upon the pressure of the atmosphere to perform the down stroke, which did the useful work.

In the modern steam-engine, which owes its general design to Watt, the dimensions of the cylinder, to an extent, indicate the power; but the pressure of steam must also be considered. The friction in models is very great in proportion to their size, and for this reason very small ones are often barely able to generate sufficient power to keep themselves going. The bore of the cylinder governs the area of the piston, and this mul-

multiplied by the pressure of steam and the length of stroke gives the power of the engine.

Let us compare the power of two small cylinders, one  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. in bore and 1 in. in stroke, the other 1-in. bore and 2-in. stroke. We will suppose the pressure of steam to be the same in both cases, say, 10 lb. to the square inch. Speaking off-hand, many persons are apt to say that one cylinder is twice the size of the other, and, as a natural deduction, twice as powerful. Comparison will at once show the fallacy of the idea.

The area of the  $\frac{1}{2}$ -in. cylinder is nearly  $\frac{1}{16}$  of a square inch, that of the other nearly  $\frac{1}{4}$ . Thus we see that the larger one has four times the area; also the length of stroke is twice as much. According to the rule given above we find the powers thus:  $\frac{1}{16} \times 10 \times 1 = 2$  lb. and  $\frac{1}{4} \times 10 \times 2 = 16$  lb. So that the power of the larger cylinder is precisely eight times that of the small one. In every case it is necessary to allow a certain percentage of the power to overcome friction. The smaller the engine the greater will be the percentage lost in friction. These simple facts will at once show that size is a most important consideration. If the friction in the small engine was 2 lb. the power would not drive it, whereas if it were that much in the large one there would still be 14 lb. of available power.

A cylinder 1  $\frac{1}{8}$ -in. bore and the same length of stroke, viz., 2 in., would give exactly double the power of the 1-in. bore cylinder just mentioned. If the bore was increased to 2 in., the power would be exactly four times that of the 1-in. bore, the length of stroke and pressure of steam remaining the same in each.

The velocity of the piston also forms a factor in calculating the power, which is increased in the same proportion as the velocity. It will be readily understood that when the pressure

of the steam is constant, the speed of the engine will depend on the amount of work it has to do. It must also be remembered that the pressure of steam against the piston is by no means necessarily the same as it is in the boiler. In passing from the boiler to the cylinder the steam pressure is always reduced, and the greater the distance and more exposed or tortuous the steam-pipe, the greater will be the loss of pressure.

Everyone knows that the power of steam-engines is given in "horse-power." This was a term originated by James Watt, and it is now universally adopted. The mechanical equivalent is a lifting power that will raise 33,000 lb. one foot high in one minute. On this estimate the power of an engine is calculated. The rule is this: Multiply the pressure in pounds per square inch on the piston by velocity per minute and divide by 33,000. The velocity of the piston is twice the length of stroke in feet multiplied by the number of revolutions per minute.

Let us calculate the horse-power of the 1 × 2-in. cylinder, already dealt with at a pressure of 10 lb., the speed being 100 revolutions per minute. By the previous calculation we found that the pressure was 16 lb. The velocity is  $\frac{4}{12} \times 100 = 33\frac{1}{3}$  (feet). Multiply these together,  $16 \times 33\frac{1}{3} = 533\frac{1}{3}$ , and divide  $\frac{533\frac{1}{3}}{33000} = .016$ . . . . That is, the engine is  $\frac{1}{60}$  of a horse-power, or capable of raising 528 lb. one foot high in one minute. That is supposing all the power was available for *duty*. In large engines about 20 per cent. is allowed for friction, and in the model we must allow at least 50 per cent. This allowance for friction at once reduces the calculated power to half.

The *power* of an engine is the nominal, and the *duty* is the actual work that it will perform. When the horse-power of an engine is spoken of, it must be taken in a qualified sense.

By urging the furnace greater effect may be obtained, and by keeping the furnace low an effect less than the nominal power is produced. *Duty* is the term used to represent the amount of work absolutely done; it disregards the size of the engine, and simply inquires how much work is done by a given expenditure of fuel. True economy in working will add to the duty of an engine, whilst woeful waste in no way affects the power.

Let us now trace the effect of the steam when admitted to the cylinder. When the governor valve is opened the steam flows along the pipe to the slide valve chest, and if one of the ports is open it reaches the cylinder. In traversing the pipes which conduct it to the cylinder the steam is cooled considerably and its force diminished. In course of time the parts become heated to a certain degree, and then the loss of power is less. When the steam enters the cylinder it at once exerts a certain force on the piston. This has the effect of turning the crank shaft, and in due course the slide valve closes the steam inlet. Now the steam within the cylinder acts expansively, and continues to drive the crank shaft to the end of the stroke. Then the exhaust port is opened, and allows the spent or dead steam to escape. At the same time the inlet at the other end is opened and the live steam rushes in and exerts its full pressure on the piston, causing it to travel in the opposite direction. The opening and shutting of the steam ports is effected by an eccentric on the crank shaft. In treating of the construction of these parts, the relative sizes are given and the correct motion explained.

Boilers, which are the vessels in which water is converted into steam, are usually described by their shape and position. They may be cylindrical, spherical, &c., and horizontal, vertical, &c. The construction also forms a distinguishing characteristic. Tubes are usually inserted in the boiler to convey

the heat from the fire. These tubes—which are more properly called flues, especially in large boilers—vary in number from one of large size to scores of small ones, thus naming the respective boilers single-flue or multiflue. It may be advisable to mention here that *tubular* boilers are those in which the water circulates in the tubes, and the fire impinges on the outer surface. When the fire operates inside the tube it is called a *flue*. A tube carries water; a flue carries flame and the volatile products of combustion.

Boilers, or steam generators, that are used to contain the water which, when converted into steam, drives the engine, require to be sufficiently strong to withstand an internal or bursting pressure. This pressure is very great in high-pressure engines, but in common models it is generally very low, and seldom exceeds 20 lb. to the square inch. The evaporating capacity of the boiler is according to the requirements of the engine it has to supply. The resistance of the piston to the steam shows the pressure at which it should be supplied. Boilers are generally tested, by means of a hydraulic pump, to stand a pressure of at least double that at which they are intended to be used. It is unsafe to generate steam in any vessel that has not been properly tested. This fact cannot be too strongly impressed upon the mind of the reader.

Suppose a double-action cylinder, 1-in. bore and 2-in. stroke, is to make 100 revolutions of the crank per minute, let us see how much steam will be wanted to drive it. The area of the piston is  $\cdot785$  in., and each revolution of the crank will require the cylinder to be filled twice—that is, one stroke in each direction. This will take a column of steam  $\cdot785$  in. in diameter and 4 in. long for each revolution, or 314 cubic inches of steam per minute. If the speed is greater the quantity of steam must be increased proportionately; and when running at the rate of 1,000 revolutions per minute—a

speed often attained—3,140 cubic inches of steam will be wanted to supply the cylinder. That is at the rate of about 100 cubic feet per hour.

The pressure of the steam has not yet been taken into account, but it obviously forms a most important factor in the calculation. Water in an open vessel boils at a temperature of 212° Fahr. Provided that the vessel allows the steam to escape freely, all the heat that can be applied will only generate steam at the same pressure, though it will escape faster. As the bubbles of steam ascend to the surface they escape, having only the pressure of the atmosphere to overcome. When water is confined in a closed vessel, like the boiler of a steam-engine, the temperature may be raised to considerably above the usual boiling-point. The heat is always proportionate to the pressure, and steam at a pressure of 120 lb. per square inch is equivalent to the heat represented by 345° Fahr.

Tables are published showing the relation of the heat to the pressure, and a short one is indicated below.

A correct knowledge of the fact that pressure depends on temperature cannot be urged too strongly on the mind of the model engineer. In many model boilers it is quite impossible to raise the heat sufficiently to produce an adequate pressure. Boiling water at 212° Fahr. does not produce any available pressure of steam, it merely counterbalances the weight of the atmosphere, which is 15 lb. to the square inch. By increasing the heat, which can only be done in a closed vessel, available pressure is obtained. Thus 228° = 5 lb., 241° = 10 lb., 251° = 15 lb., and so on. The steam, and the water from which it is generated, and with which it remains in contact, have both the same temperature.

A cubic foot of water weighs 62.5 lb., and it will produce 882 cubic feet of steam, at a pressure of 15 lb. to the square inch above the normal atmospheric pressure; this is equal to

a temperature of 251° Fahr. If the pressure is raised to 150 lb., which requires a temperature of 371°, only 187 cubic feet of steam will be produced. Steam is elastic, and hence the more it is compressed the greater will be its force. If one cubic inch of steam, at a pressure of 30 lb., is admitted into a cylinder, and the supply cut off when half filled, the steam will expand till it has filled the cavity, and in increasing its bulk twofold its force will diminish in inverse ratio. The pressure will therefore diminish to 15 lb. to the square inch. The expansive force of steam is always at work on the piston of the engine, and it varies in accordance with the arrangement of the valves.

In order to supply the requisite quantity of steam, boilers should evaporate at the rate of one cubic foot of water per hour per horse-power; that will produce 1,700 cubic feet of free steam. The capacity of a boiler should be four or five times as much as the water it boils off per hour, and the steam space should be at least 10 times as large as the consumption of steam at each stroke. The heating surface should be from 15 to 20 square feet per horse-power. Many circumstances tend to modify these rules, but they may be taken as fairly trustworthy in ordinary practice.



## CHAPTER II.

### MODEL STEAM-ENGINES.

**T**HIS handybook is intended to supply the information most generally useful to a maker of model engines. It is assumed that some knowledge of mechanical manipulation has been acquired by the reader. He should be able

to use the lathe with tolerable certainty of result; in short, the handybooks which I have already produced in this series all form useful guides for the tyro maker of model engines.

In order to give familiar illustrations of those types of engines commonly forming the stock-in-trade of the usual dealers, the blocks in this chapter have been borrowed from their catalogues. The most inexpensive type of working model is shown at Fig. 1, and is more fully described in a later chapter. A similar engine, but slightly improved in its design, is shown at Fig. 2 on the opposite page.



FIG. 1.  
Most Inexpensive form of  
Engine.

Engines shown in the later chapters, and all the fittings belonging to them, are mostly original, illustrated from model engines that have been made specially, and which are not commonly to be purchased, either complete or in parts, from the usual trade supplies. Those readers who have acquired some manual

dexterity in the use of tools will find little difficulty in making the engines illustrated, if the instructions given are carefully followed. In each case details of each process incidental to our engineering work will be carefully described, so that those even but slightly acquainted with the mechanical arts will be able to comprehend the method of procedure.

One of probably the tiniest working models in the world is in the possession of Messrs. Penn (of Greenwich), the eminent makers of the great engines of which it is the reduced counterpart. It will stand on a silver threepenny-piece; but it really covers less space, for its base-plate measures only  $\frac{3}{8}$  of an inch by about  $\frac{2}{10}$ . The engines are of the trunk form introduced by Penn. They are fitted with reversing gear, and are generally similar in design to the great engines with which ships are equipped. The cylinders measure  $\frac{1}{8}$  of an inch in diameter, and the trunk  $\frac{1}{10}$ . The length of stroke is  $\frac{2}{10}$  of an inch. From the extreme smallness of this model, a few of the most minute details have necessarily been omitted; some of the parts are so small that a powerful magnifying-glass is required to show their form. The bolts which hold the engine together are only  $\frac{1}{16}$  of an inch in diameter, and these are all duly furnished with hexagonal nuts, which can be loosened and tightened by a Lilliputian spanner. The weight of the whole model is less than a threepenny-piece.



FIG. 2.  
Toy Engine with  
Oscillating  
Cylinder.

Another tiny working model is that of the famous *Great Britain* steamship, made to a scale of  $\frac{1}{40}$  of an inch to the foot. The length of the model is about eight inches, and the breadth about  $1\frac{1}{4}$  inch. It is full-rigged, with six masts and their accompanying spars, and has all the hatchways and deck

fittings. The deck of this tiny vessel is lifted off and, by the aid of a powerful magnifier, an accurate model of the original engines with which the *Great Britain* was fitted may be critically examined. This model is so small that it stands

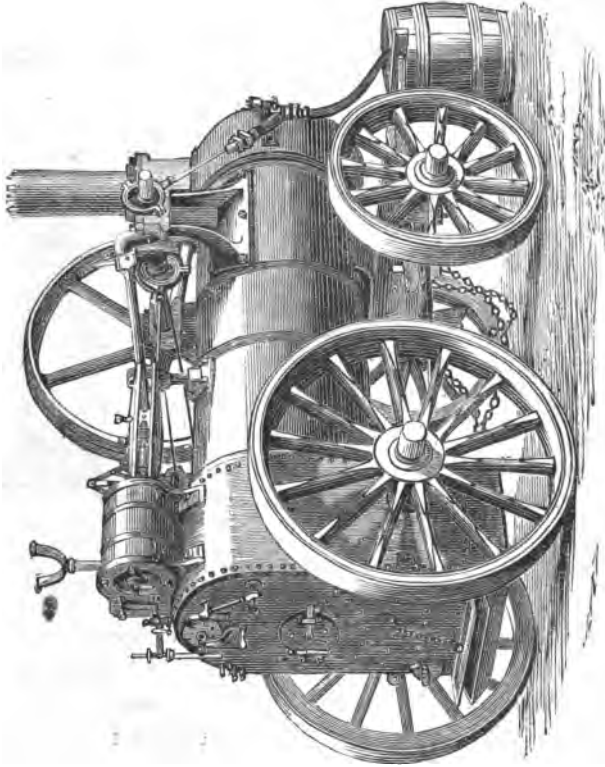


FIG. 3.  
Portable Engine for Agricultural Work.

upon less space than the area of a shilling. The ship may be launched in an annular trough of water, and, when a tap is turned, off goes the tiny ship to circumnavigate its little sea. The total weight of the boat, with deck and rigging, engines, boiler, all complete, is less than an ounce! The weight of

the actual working part of the engines—that is, all excepting the boiler—is just that of a sovereign.

The varieties of model engines are in many cases indicated by their names, but they may be classed into two principal divisions—those in which the cylinder is fixed, and the admission of the steam is regulated by means of a sliding-valve moving parallel with the piston, and actuated by an eccentric on the crank shaft; and those engines which have the cylinder pivoted at right angles to its bore, so that the rotary motion of the crank, coupled direct with the piston-rod, imparts an oscillatory movement to the cylinder. In this class

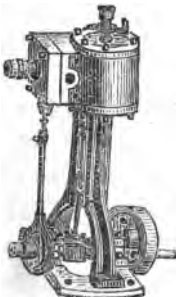


FIG. 4.  
Vertical Launch  
Engine.

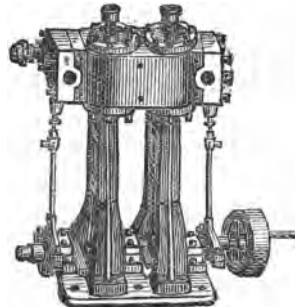


FIG. 5.  
Double Cylinder Vertical  
Engine.

the steam ports of the cylinder are alternately brought immediately over a hole, through which issues the steam from the boiler, and an exhaust hole, through which the steam escapes from the cylinder. The former are called slide-valve engines, and the latter oscillating engines. There are many varieties of each class, but the difference pointed out is so obviously discernable that it affords a ready means of distinction.

Stationary engines are intended to be fixed, as are those used for driving machinery. Portable engines are self-con-

tained, so that they may be moved from place to place, and put to temporary work. They are often used for agricultural purposes, such as for driving steam ploughs, thrashing machines, &c. The illustration, Fig. 3, on page 12, shows an engine of this type. It is mounted on wheels, so that it may be drawn by horses along the highway roads.

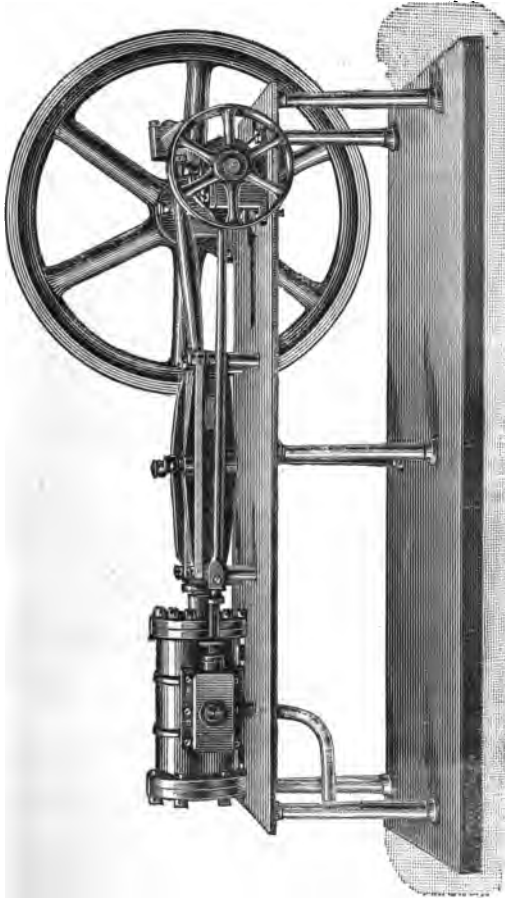
Locomotives are those which are intended to travel by steam, and are self-moving. Marine engines are those used to propel ships. Figs. 4 and 5 are types. Of these classes we shall, for the present, exclude locomotives, which are much more complicated in their construction and consequently are more difficult to make.

Horizontal engines are those having the cylinder lying with its axis in a horizontal position.

There are many modifications in the designs, but the essential characteristic is that the cylinder be placed with its bore lying horizontally. The illustration on the next page, Fig. 6, shows a horizontal engine of a usual type. The bed-plate is sheet metal, mounted on six pillars, and cut away to allow the crank-arm and cross-head to pass. The six pillars often have their lower ends screwed into a wooden board slightly larger than the metal bed-plate. The crank-shaft carries the fly-wheel at one end, and the belt pulley at the other.

Vertical engines have the cylinder upright; sometimes they are designated by the latter adjective. Beam engines have an oscillating beam, as shown at Fig. 10, p. 19; one end is connected to the piston, and the other to a rod which drives the crank. Cylinders are single-acting when the steam is admitted only at one end, and consequently with these the crank is propelled only during half of its rotation. Double-acting cylinders are provided with valves which admit the steam at each end of the cylinder alternately. Oscillating cylinders are fitted to

oscillate with the motion of the crank, see Figs. 43 to 46, and the steam-valves are usually contrived to act by this oscillating motion. Slide-valve cylinders have a sliding valve



**FIG. 6.**  
**Horizontal Engine.**

worked by a rod connected to an eccentric on the crank-shaft, which opens the steam ports to alternately admit live

steam and exhaust at both ends of the cylinder. Slide-valve cylinders are invariably double-acting.

A semi-portable engine, with oscillating cylinder, is shown at Fig. 7. This is self-contained, and may be moved about, but is not mounted on wheels. A slide-valve cylinder engine of similar design is shown at Fig. 8.

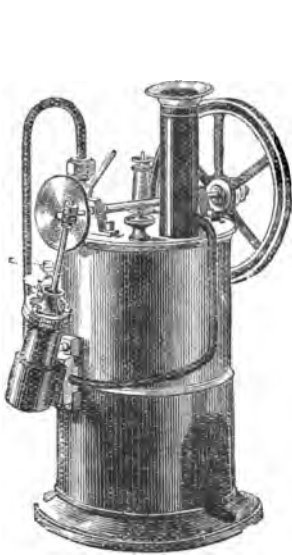


FIG. 7.  
Semi-portable Oscillating  
Engine.

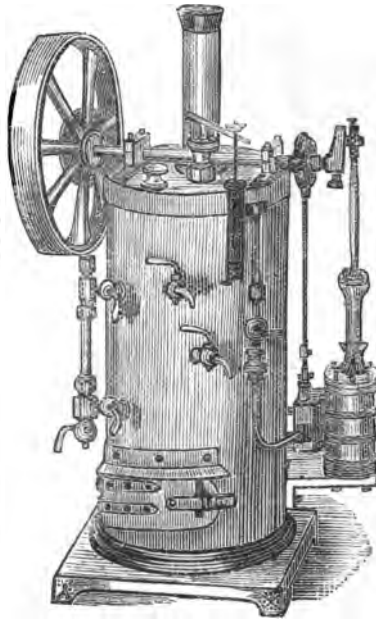


FIG. 8.  
Semi-portable Slide-Valve Engine.

Small model engines are composed mainly of brass castings, and of steel which requires no special forging for the purpose. The screws or bolts used to unite the parts are usually purchased in a finished state. Makers of these employ machinery, which acts almost automatically, and the screws are sold at a very cheap rate. Large models require special forgings for

the crank-shaft, and the castings employed are of iron, which is considerably cheaper than brass.

The castings are made from patterns which are counterparts of the object required. These are imbedded in sand, and leave a matrix, into which molten metal is poured, producing, on solidifying, a facsimile of the pattern. The operation is always carried out in a foundry where the necessary furnaces and moulding appliances are at hand. The founders charge for the rough castings by weight, and the price is reckoned to cover the cost of labour over the value of the metal. It is, however, necessary to supply the requisite patterns before a founder can proceed to do his part of the work.

THE PATTERN MAKER'S HANDYBOOK may be consulted in this connection with advantage.

All vendors of castings have patterns from which their castings are moulded, and of course they charge, in addition to the cost of labour and a profit on the cost of the metal, something for the use of the patterns. The patterns for a founder's use require certain modifications, which it is unnecessary to explain in detail. Some are made in two or more parts, with pins to hold them together. Some have projections affixed to them; these make prints in the mould to receive cores, which form holes in the casting. Those patterns which enter deeply into the moulding sand are made tapering, to draw out easily. In all cases they must be made sufficiently large to allow for shrinkage in the metal. Ordinary iron castings shrink about one-eighth of an inch to the foot; brass about half as much again. Pattern-makers use a "contraction-rule" to work by; this is made longer than the standard measurement and patterns made according to it are the correct size to allow for shrinkage. All these details are fully explained in the Handy-book above mentioned.

Models are often made with the boilers and engines forming



but one machine. Fig. 9 shows an ordinary type of this kind. It is very like the horizontal engine shown on page 15, Fig. 6, but has an oscillating cylinder. A plain cylindrical boiler placed horizontally is let partially through the bed-plate, and the heat is applied by a spirit lamp beneath.

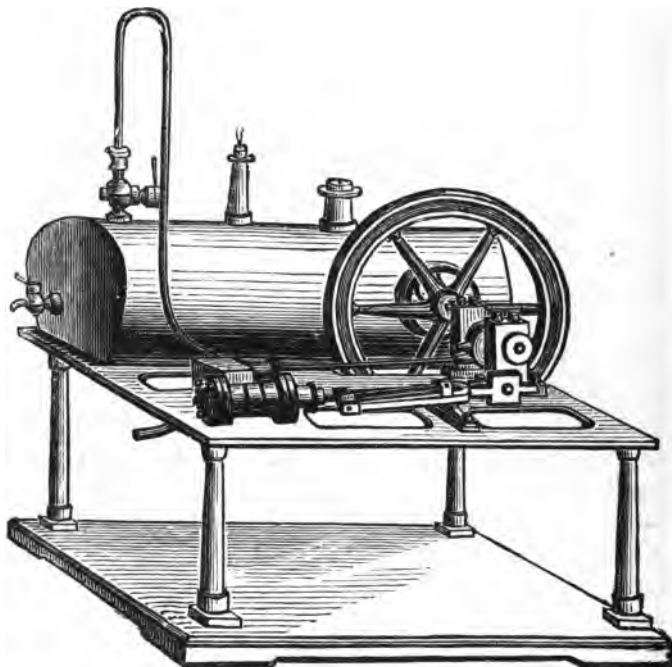


FIG. 9.  
Horizontal Engine with Boiler.

A complete beam engine is shown at Fig. 10, and needs no special description. The boiler of this engine is placed vertically.

From what has been said it will be readily understood that vendors of castings charge various prices for their goods. Not in every case is the quality in accordance with the price,

and it is difficult to give even approximate sums that should be paid for good castings. Speaking generally, the price is regulated by the weight, and the rate per pound is decided by the seller. In the catalogues issued by various firms will be

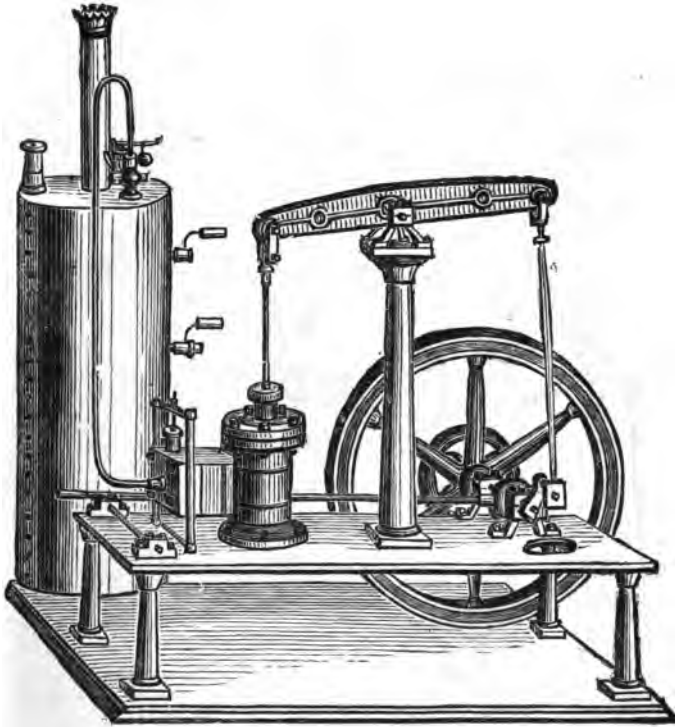


FIG. 10.

Beam Engine with Vertical Boiler.

found the prices charged. As an example of the difference, a certain size of bolts made by one wholesale firm, are retailed by shopkeepers at rates varying from 33 to 200 per cent. profit; the same rule probably holds good in all other items.

Another form of engine, differing from those previously

illustrated, is shown at Fig. 11. This type is well suited for model work. The engraving illustrates a semi-portable Robey engine; the smoke-stack is jointed and lowered for travelling.

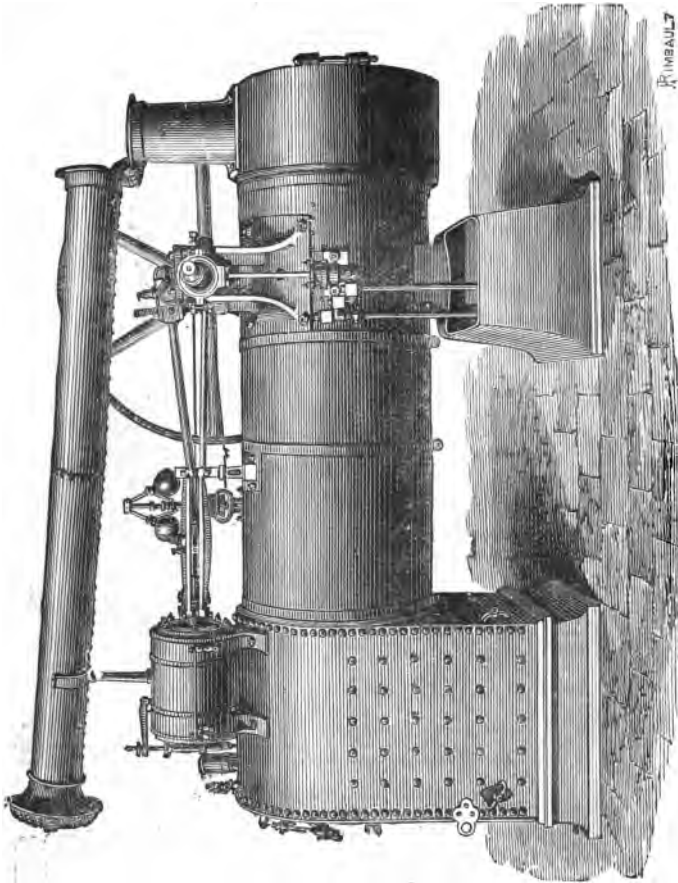


FIG. 11. Semi-portable Engine and Boiler.

The boiler forms the foundation on which are fixed the cylinder, the crank-shaft bearings, and other parts of the engine.

Those readers who are not possessed of a lathe will not have the means of finishing the cylinders and some other parts which have to be turned. These can, however, be bought in various stages of completion, and the beginner, armed with only a screw-driver, may now purchase the component parts, and, having screwed his engine together, he may claim some merit for his share in the erecting department.

Sets of castings quite finished and ready to be screwed together are now sold. These are generally of the cheaper class, and, tacked on cards, may be seen in the windows of opticians. The prices for the complete engine, with boiler, lamp and all other parts, range from about five shillings upwards.

A few words on the better type of partially finished parts. These castings are more expensive than those quite rough, but they afford an opportunity of displaying considerable skill and judgment in completing them.

Boring the cylinders is the operation most likely to baffle the tyro. This is done by vendors of castings for various prices, according to size, and this charge usually includes turning the flanges ready to receive the covers, and also boring the steam-ways and cutting the port-holes. When all this has been done it will be necessary to use a lathe to turn the covers for the cylinder, and also for making the piston.

The cylinder may be purchased complete with the covers screwed on and the slide-valve fitted. Similarly every piece of an engine may be bought separately in a finished state, so that they only require putting together, and when the young engineer has not the tools required for doing the work, his best plan will be to purchase the finished parts.

An examination of a finished engine will show that nearly every part of it has been fashioned on a lathe. This machine is indispensable for all kinds of engineering work, but, being

somewhat costly, tyros are frequently compelled to forego its ownership, and in this case get the necessary turning executed by a professional latheman. Those who are happily possessed of this king of machines—the father of mechanism as it has been aptly called—will have the advantage of being themselves able to execute the work throughout. For want of space we cannot discuss the lathe best suited for the work treated upon in this handbook. There are now many useful lathes manufactured in large numbers, and which may be purchased at a moderate cost. The fitting up of a lathe oneself is not an altogether impossible task, though there is some really very high-class work necessary to produce a good lathe suited for model engine making.

The young beginner should not choose a very small lathe ; it is a mistake to suppose that better or finer work can be done on miniature lathes. Three inch centres—that is, a lathe which swings six inches—is the smallest useful size, though one about four and a-half inch centres would be better adapted for model engine making, and a larger lathe is necessary for some of this work. A slide-rest is an almost indispensable adjunct to a lathe required for turning parallel cylinders in metal. By means of a slide-rest, steam cylinders of any diameter of bore, within the capacity of the lathe, can be bored true, but without it a special boring bar is necessary for each size.

*THE METAL TURNER'S HANDYBOOK*, which is a companion volume to this, contains illustrations and descriptions of many lathes and their appurtenances suited for model engine making. Various chucks and tools employed in this and similar work are also shown in that book.

A few particulars of the different kinds of engines which a beginner may make will assist him in deciding as to the form and size best suited to his requirements. An idea of the

general forms and peculiarities of engines may be gleaned from the illustrations already given and from what has been said in this chapter. It is entirely at the discretion of the maker whether he will build a vertical or a horizontal engine—whether it shall have oscillating or slide-valve cylinders, and whether it shall be of microscopic dimensions or a powerful model. All these points are for the consideration of the constructor, though some hints will be of service to and assist him in arriving at the desired result—that is the production of a working model.

## CHAPTER III.

### *SINGLE-ACTING TOY-ENGINE.*

**T**HE most simple form of toy-engine is that illustrated below, and fully described in detail in this chapter. It consists of a tin boiler, a single-action oscillating cylinder,

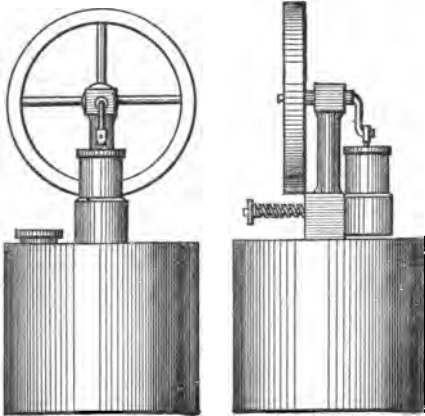


FIG. 12.

FIG. 13.

Two Views of Toy Oscillating Engine.

and a fly-wheel. These parts are sold, ready for putting together, at a very low price, and a complete engine may be bought for a couple of shillings, though one usually described as "superior make" at twice that sum is by far a preferable investment.

The drawings represent the most simple way of constructing a steam-engine, and, if the workmanship is fairly good, a working model will be produced. First is the boiler; a tin box  $1\frac{3}{4}$  in. deep and 2 in. in diameter will serve for this. The joint at the side should be made by folding the edges of metal one over the other, and then soldering. The top and bottom are both soldered steam-tight on their respective places. The top of the boiler must be provided with small bosses of metal,

soldered on the inner side, into which the pillar (Fig. 14) and the safety-valve (Fig. 18) are screwed.

The tin plate is not sufficiently thick to afford a hold for the threads on the pillar and on the valve. A disc of brass, say the size of a sixpence, and  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. thick, is soldered on the under side of the lid, and the holes, which are tapped to receive the pillar and valve, are bored and threaded before the lid is fixed. By this means a strong hold is secured for the fittings. The screw plug in Fig. 12 is similarly provided for. When each piece is screwed into its place, a little hemp or cotton, placed between the shoulder of the "fitting" and the surface of the tin plate, will assist to ensure a steam-tight joint.



FIG. 14.  
Cylinder and  
Pillar, showing  
Steam Ports.

The standard, or pillar, is brass, about 2 in. long from end to end. Any form may be given to it, according to fancy, the one shown in Fig. 14 being perhaps as good as any. The lower part is circular,  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. in diameter, and it has a flat face on one side, against which the valve-face of the cylinder works. Fig. 14 shows this. The centre of the pillar is bored up in the middle of the screwed part to meet *one* of the two lower holes, it is immaterial which. The other hole is bored right through the pillar to the opposite side, and forms the exhaust port, the one communicating with the central hole in the pillar being the steam port. For the sake of distinction we will suppose the hole to the left is bored into the central hole, and that to the right is bored through the pillar; then when the pillar is screwed on to the boiler and steam is generated, it issues from the porthole on the left.

The upper end of the pillar is bored through at right angles to the flat at the bottom (see Fig. 13). Through the top a piece of brass tubing about  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. long is fixed, generally by soldering; this is the bearing for the crank-shaft. The crank-



shaft itself is a piece of steel wire bent to the form required. The fly-wheel is fixed to one end, and prevents the shaft coming out of the bearing, the bend of the arm serving the same purpose at the other end.

The cylinder itself is shown at Fig. 14, and also in Figs. 12 and 13. The piston, piston-rod, and piston-head which fits the crank-pin are shown in Fig. 15. It will be evident that the dimensions of this engine are microscopic. The bore of the cylinder is  $\frac{5}{16}$  in., and the barrel itself is often made of triblet-drawn brass tube. The enlarged part at the bottom is a casting with a flat face on one side, as shown in Fig. 14. Some makers use a casting for the entire cylinder, but the tube is perhaps the cheaper method of making. A piece of good tube is sufficiently accurate in the bore for use as bought, so that the trouble of boring the cylinder is dispensed with. The base, for the tube to fit in, is bored to the external diameter, and the tube fixed with solder. The lid or cover is fixed only by being snapped on. Its object is only to guide the piston-rod.

Cylinders may be easily bored by the aid of a slide rest, if such an attachment forms part of the lathe available. Failing that, it is advisable to have the cylinder bored by someone having the requisite tools, or to purchase a cylinder casting already bored. A makeshift way of doing the job is to make a bit of the required size and broach out the cylinder. The bit is made of a flat bar of steel made true on the edges, and properly tempered; a bar  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. thick would do. Pieces of wood are put on both sides of the bar to keep it central and prevent either edge digging in and so spoiling the bore. It is improbable that a satisfactory job would be made by means of this latter arrangement, and one of the methods previously mentioned would be far preferable. Another makeshift would be to solder a piece of triblet-drawn brass tube inside the brass casting.

A reference to Fig. 14 will show the working of the oscillating valve. The face of the pillar is shown on the right. On this, to the left, is the hole from which the live steam issues, and to the right is the exhaust hole through which the dead steam escapes. These holes are technically called ports. The upper hole is bored through the pillar, and takes the trunnion or pin on which the cylinder oscillates. Fig. 13 shows this trunnion pin prolonged and having a nut on the end. A spiral spring around the trunnion, between the nut and the pillar, keeps the valve-face in close contact with the pillar-face. Now, turning to Fig. 14, on the left is the cylinder, with two holes—the upper, into which the trunnion is screwed, and the lower, the steam-way. When the cylinder is in the position shown in Figs. 12 and 13, the port-hole of the cylinder is over the solid metal between the holes in the pillar. On turning the fly-wheel the crank draws the piston-rod out and inclines the cylinder sideways, bringing the port-hole to the left. The live steam from the boiler at once enters and forces the piston upwards, and on the crank reaching the highest point the cylinder is again vertical, and the hole in it is midway between port and exhaust. The momentum of the fly-wheel carries the crank round and brings the hole opposite the exhaust, allowing the steam to escape. The only force that keeps the engine going during this part of the time is the momentum of the fly-wheel. When the cylinder again inclines to the opposite side, the hole comes over the steam-port, and force—in the form of live steam—is again applied under the piston. This series of actions will keep the engine going.

The single-action oscillating cylinder, being supplied with steam at one end only, exerts power only during half the revolution of the crank. The return stroke is dependent entirely on the momentum of the fly-wheel, which also has to drive the dead steam out of the cylinder. Steam acts only

in the lower part of the cylinder, and as there is no power tending to force off the cover it may be snapped on like the lid of a pill-box.

The piston (Fig. 15) has for its head a disc of brass, with a V-shaped groove in its edge. This is packed with hemp or lamp-cotton, to make it fit the cylinder steam-tight. The piston-rod is a steel wire, about  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. diameter. It is fixed in the piston-head by riveting, to save the trouble of screwing. The end of the rod has a small piece of brass fixed on it, which forms the cross-head, and fits on the crank-pin.



FIG. 15. Piston.

The crank is itself all in one piece. A straight length forms the shaft. It is bent at right angles to form the throw, and a piece bent from this parallel to the shaft forms the pin. This is the most simple way of making a crank, and when large quantities are made the wire is bent upon a template.

A better type of crank is made by using a steel rod for the shaft, with a brass arm riveted to it, and a steel pin riveted into that. In Chapter IV., on the construction of the horizontal engine, will be found a more complete description of such a crank, and an illustration of it is shown at Fig. 32.

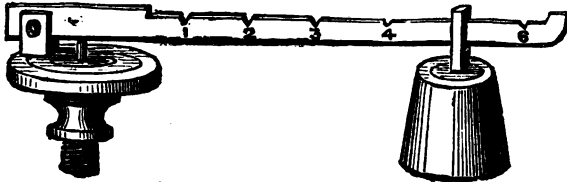
The safety-valve is very important as a safeguard in working. Though sometimes omitted from model engines, yet safety-valves are essential for security. They are intended to allow steam to escape freely from the boiler when the pressure exceeds a certain amount, and thus a dangerous explosion is provided against.

The types of safety-valve are shown in the accompanying figures. The weighted lever (Fig. 16) is most simple, and best when there is no chance of it becoming useless through motion. For locomotives and ships a spring safety-valve as

*SAFETY-VALVES.*

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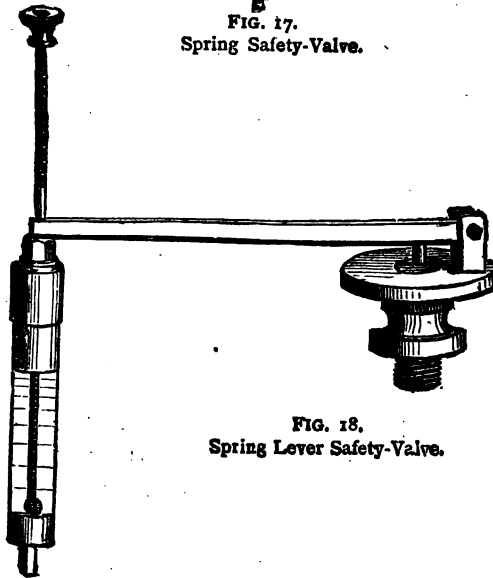
shown at Fig. 18 is used, and for models the small spring-valve (Fig. 17) is used.



**FIG. 16.**  
Weighted Lever Safety-Valve.



**FIG. 17.**  
Spring Safety-Valve.



**FIG. 18.**  
Spring Lever Safety-Valve.

The valve used for the toy-engine now being described is illustrated at Fig. 19. It has a spiral spring to keep the valve on its seat. This is effective when the power of the spring has been definably gauged; but when the valves are put together haphazard, no dependence can be placed upon the pressure at which the valve will blow off.

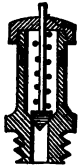


FIG. 19.  
Section of  
Safety-  
Valve.

The body of the valve is shown in section. The valve is fitted on the rod; it rests on the conical seat of the body, and is pressed down by the spiral spring within the barrel. The body is screwed into the top part of the boiler by the thread at the bottom, and steam, coming up the hole, presses the under side of the valve. When the pressure of the steam is sufficient to overcome the pressure of the spiral spring, the valve is lifted, and the steam escapes through the holes shown at the top of the barrel.

The cover is screwed on the body-part, and confines the spring. It has a hole through its centre, to allow the valve-rod to pass. Especial attention should always be given to the safety-valve at the time heat is applied to the boiler. See that the valve is not fixed to its seat, nor in any way confined, as an explosion may follow if these precautions are neglected.

The engine shown by the illustration is usually mounted on a three-legged stand, which raises it from two to three inches. A wire stand may be made according to fancy, or perhaps some contrivance may be improvised to support the boiler at a convenient height for applying heat beneath. A glance at the illustrations on pages 10 and 11 will show this.

A small lamp, burning methylated spirit—that is, spirits of wine—will supply the requisite heat. It should have a clean and dry wick of lamp cotton. The size of the flame may be regulated to a certain extent by the quantity of wick that is drawn out. The lamp must not be quite filled with spirit:

about two-thirds full is ample, and then the spirit will not be liable to overflow when warmed.

When charging the boiler, it is best to use boiling water from a kettle. This will save lots of time that would be lost in heating cold water with the spirit-lamp. The water is poured into the boiler through the water plug-hole (Fig. 12). The boiler should be only about half filled with water. The plug is replaced, and the lighted lamp put under the boiler, when steam will be generated in due course; and if the fly-wheel is turned in the right direction by hand for a few turns, the engine will presently work of its own accord.

It is scarcely necessary to repeat that the engine just described is of the most simple description, and every detail not strictly necessary is omitted.

## CHAPTER IV.

### *HORIZONTAL ENGINES.*

**E**NGINES of the horizontal type are usually employed to furnish the power required to drive fixed machinery in factories. The construction is simple, and the form is adapted for fixing readily wherever a tolerably level foundation is to be found.

The two illustrations (pages 34 and 35) show both sides of a newly-designed small power engine, by Messrs. Lucas and Davies. This design possesses several characteristic features. The main casting is modelled from the I-sectioned girder; this gives strength without unnecessary weight. The cylinder is bolted to the main casting; the guide for the piston-head being solid with the latter. By this plan much of the usual work of fitting is obviated. Some special tools are necessary to bore the guide-ways true, and to face the end against which the cylinder abuts, but when this is done the completion of the work is very easy, as but few parts have to be fitted. The illustrations show the engine fitted with governors and pump. Four outline drawings which show all principal dimensions are given on page 33. The Figs. 20, 21, 22 and 23, are reduced to  $\frac{1}{2}$  scale from the drawings of an engine having the cylinder 2-in. bore and 4-in. stroke. The diameter of fly-wheel is 12 in. Complete sets of castings for engines this size and also for one smaller size and two larger sizes are supplied by the designers.

The several illustrations given next, show another simple

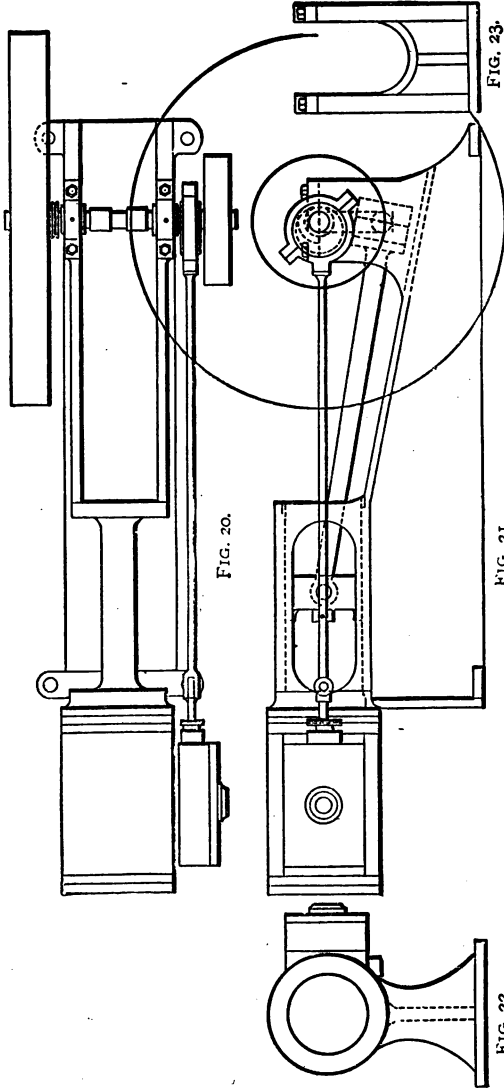


FIG. 20.

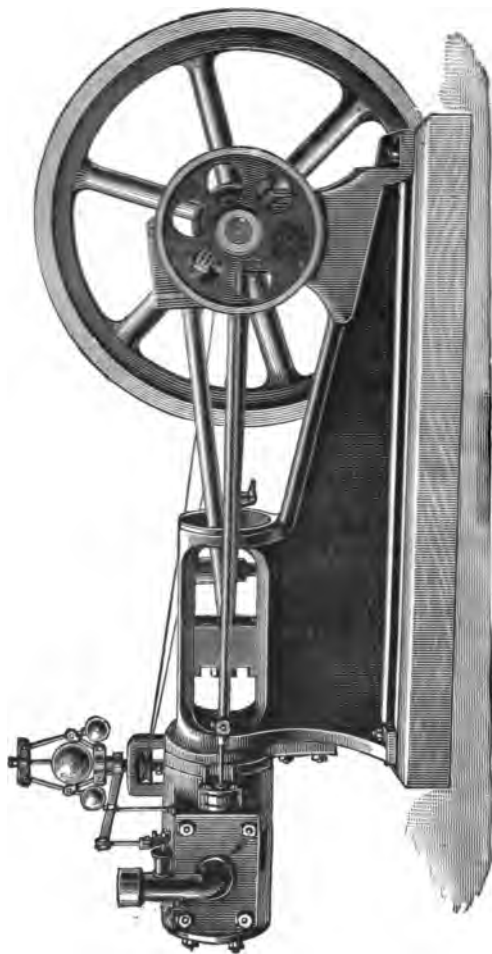
FIG. 21.

FIG. 23.

FIG. 22.

FIGS. 20, 21, 22, and 23. Working Drawings of Horizontal Engine.





**FIG. 24.**  
**Front View of Horizontal Engine.**

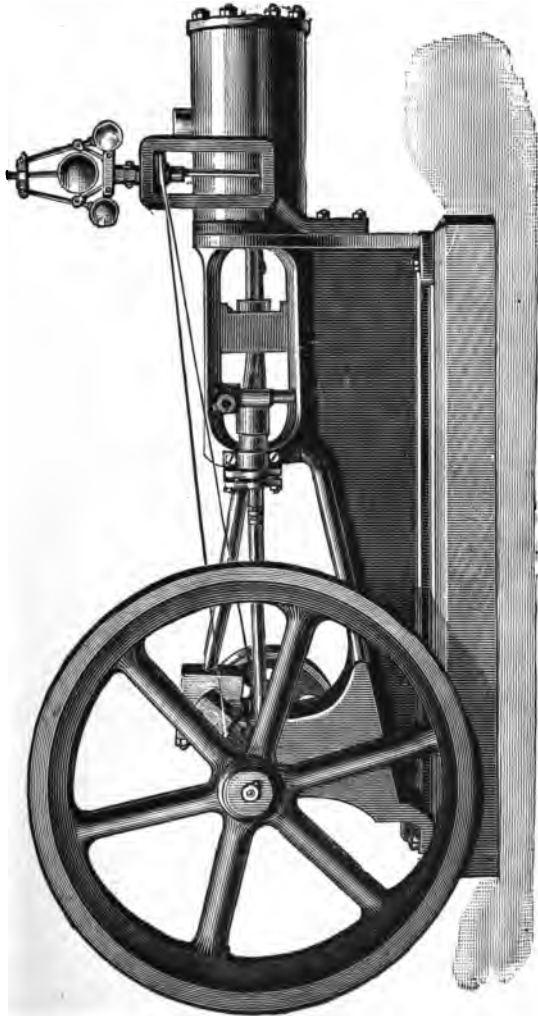


FIG. 25.  
Back View of Horizontal Engine.

engine; they are drawn to scale, and they will show at a glance constructive details which could not well be explained in letterpress. Fig. 26 shows a plan view, and Fig. 27 an elevation of the complete engine.

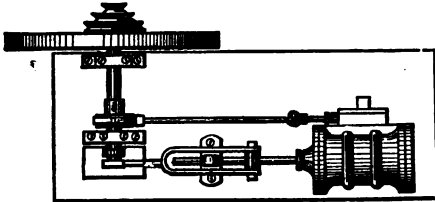


FIG. 26.

Plan of Horizontal Engine.

larger ones have cast-iron foundations. Cylinders  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. in the bore and upwards are usually mounted on iron bed-plates, the saving in cost of metal being considerable when the cast-

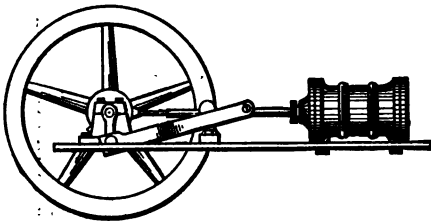


FIG. 27.

Elevation of Horizontal Engine.

ings are so large. Cast bed-plates have a moulded edge, which adds both to their strength and appearance. Sheet metal has to be mounted on columns sufficiently high to

raise the fly-wheel above the ground-level.

The cylinder is shown in Figs. 26 and 27. The steam-chest containing the slide-valve is shown in Fig. 26 only. The fly-wheel fixed on the shaft, Fig. 30, which has at its opposite end the crank (Fig. 32). The piston-rod is shown passing through a guide (Fig. 33) fixed to the bed by two screws. The connecting-rod from the piston to the crank-pin is shown in Figs. 26 and 27. The eccentric is shown at Fig. 35, the rod from it to the steam-chest is called the eccentric-rod. Two screws fix the cylinder to the bed-plate. These references are

sufficient to enable the inexperienced reader to identify the principal parts of this engine. By carefully studying the drawings the whole combination of the machine will be understood.

Each of the chief component parts which possess any intricacy of detail is shown on a much larger scale. The description of each one may be taken as generally applicable to engines of the type shown in Figs. 26 and 27. The dimensions are suited to the size known as " $\frac{3}{4}$ -in. bore and  $1\frac{1}{2}$ -in. stroke." These measurements refer to the cylinder. It will not be difficult to modify any of the minor details to suit another size, whether it be larger or smaller.

A section of the cylinder is shown in Fig. 28; the piston and its rod are absent, to prevent confusion of the parts. The cylinder with the covers on is 2 in. long and  $1\frac{3}{8}$  in. diameter across the flanges. The bore is  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. and  $1\frac{1}{8}$  in. (full) long. The face of the cylinder where the valve works is level with the diameter of the flanges. This face is shown at Fig. 29, where the size and position of each port-hole may be seen. The rectangle represents the steam-chest itself, and the four small circles are the screw-holes in the valve-face for attaching the steam-chest.

Returning to Fig. 28, the steam-ways are shown at the top. These are drilled from the ends to meet the inlet steam-ports, which are closed by the slide-valve (see Fig. 29). The exhaust-way is in the middle, and the port-hole communicating with it needs no special mention. The steam inlet is above; the threaded exterior is for attaching the steam-pipe from the boiler. The glands and stuffing-boxes, for keeping the piston and valve-rod steam-tight, are shown in section. The glands are screwed into the castings, parts being bored out to

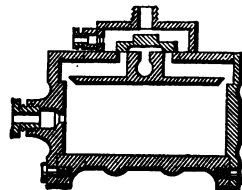


FIG. 28.  
Section of Cylinder.

receive the packings. It will not be necessary to make special reference to the body of the cylinder, the covers, etc., as the reader will have become acquainted with these in the previous chapters.

By reference to Fig. 28, the passage of the steam may be traced. It enters from above, filling the steam-chest, and as the valve is shown it could find no outlet. The valve on being moved would uncover one port, and allow the steam to enter by the steam-way, through the slot filed in the edge. When in the cylinder the steam would force the piston towards the other end, the action of the eccentric meanwhile pushing the valve along and further opening the port. When the piston had made half its stroke the valve would commence to close again, and by the time the end was reached the valve would be again in the position shown. The momentum of the fly-wheel would carry round the eccentric, and with it the valve would move so as to open the way to the exhaust, thus allowing the steam in the cylinder to escape. The other port-hole would also be opened to the live steam, which would then exert its pressure on the other side of the piston. By the motion of the valve the steam is let into the cylinder from each end alternately and thus the reciprocating motion of the piston is maintained.

The slide-valve is shown in Fig. 29, the left is a view of the face. The centre is hollowed out as shown at the section in the middle, to allow the steam to pass into the exhaust. The back is shown at the right; the saw-cut receives the valve-rod, which is thinned down to fit it. The face of the valve, that is, all the outer part of it, is made perfectly flat to fit steam-tight on the valve-face of the cylinder. Contact is ensured by the pressure of the live steam in the steam-chest; this is always more than that of the exhaust.

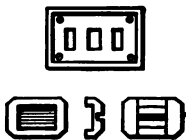


FIG. 29.  
Slide-Valve.

The crank-shaft, forming the fly-wheel axle, is shown alone half-size at Fig. 30. This is a rod of round steel  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. in diameter, the total length is  $3\frac{1}{2}$  in. At the right-hand end it is reduced in size a length of  $\frac{1}{4}$  in., to receive the fly-wheel and the driving-pulley. These are generally screwed on to a thread cut on the shaft, but wedging is a more workmanlike way of securing driving-wheels and pulleys. The two journals are to rest in the plummer blocks shown at Fig. 31; the neck at the left-hand end is to receive the crank-arm. The collars on the shaft outside of each journal are of the widths shown. One of the bearings for the crank-shaft is shown at Fig. 31, which shows a side view, an edge view, and a view from the top; in this the dotted lines represent the screw-heads. These bearings are usually brass castings; they are fixed on to the bed-plate by two screws each, and the cap is also held on by two other screws.



FIG. 30. Crank-Shaft.

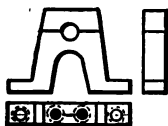


FIG. 31.

Crank-Bearing.

Various designs may be obtained, but the one illustrated is as good as any. The thickness of the bearing is nearly  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. The height must be precisely that which will bring the centre of the crank-shaft level with the centre of the piston-rod.

Fig. 32 is the crank-arm, giving an end and side view. It should be made of steel and fixed on the shaft by keying, though more often it is screwed on. The thickness is shown about  $\frac{1}{8}$ ; the shape may be according to fancy. The hole at the bottom is for the crank-pin, which is riveted in. The "throw" of the crank is an important point, and it must never be so much that the piston touches the ends of the cylinder. In the present case the "throw," that is the dis-

FIG. 32.  
Crank-Arm.

tance from the centre of the crank-shaft to the centre of the crank-pin, is  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. This gives  $1\frac{1}{4}$ -in. stroke ; there is plenty of space in the cylinder for another  $\frac{1}{8}$  in., and possibly the nominal stroke,  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. could be managed by using a thin piston-head. The crank-pin is shown at the top of Fig. 34.

The guide-block, Fig. 33, serves to guide the piston-rod, and steadies it against the influence of the crank. The shape is shown by the illustrations. The hole for the piston-rod is bored level with the axis of the cylinder and the centre of the crank-shaft. The block is secured to the bed-plate by two screws, holes for which are shown in the top view.

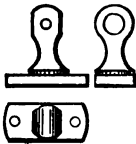


FIG. 33.  
Guide-Block.

Fig. 34 shows the crank-pin and five views of the ends of the connecting-rod. The crank-pin is steel  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. diameter, turned down to  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. at the journal and at the neck, which is riveted into the arm, Fig. 32. The head of the rod is fitted with a cap, held by two screws, so that it may be placed over the crank-pin into the groove. The other end of the rod, which is forked, is shown to the right. Here a section and

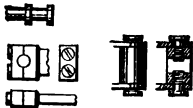


FIG. 34.  
Crank-Pin and Connect-  
ing-Rod.

an elevation are given ; the round piece, called the cross-head, which receives the two screws (see section) is bored to fit the piston-rod, and it is clamped to this by the points of the screws shown. The sides of the fork are bored to fit freely over the threads of the screws, so that it may oscillate with the motion of the crank. The position of the cross-head on the piston is determined when the engine is together ; it is placed so that the piston slides midway between the ends of the cylinder.

Fig. 35 shows the eccentric and the eccentric strap. The first is a piece of brass ; the large circle has a groove turned

in it to receive the strap, and the boss is eccentric, as shown in the left-hand figure. The amount of eccentricity is  $\frac{1}{8}$  in., which gives a travel of  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. to the slide-valve. These eccentrics are turned on a mandrel having double centres, one pair serving when turning the boss, and the other when turning the eccentric itself. A set screw tapped through the boss serves to secure it on the crank-shaft.

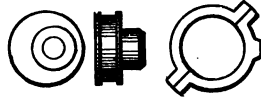


FIG. 35.  
Eccentric and Strap.

The strap on the right in Fig. 35 is cast in the form shown, the centre is bored to fit the groove in the eccentric, and the strap then cut in halves through the lugs. These lugs serve to take screws, which hold the strap together. The projecting piece on the right is to receive the eccentric rod, which is screwed into the strap at this point.

This completes the description of the various parts of a model horizontal engine. A glance at Figs. 26 and 27 will show the relative position of each, and the detail figures show the dimensions, which may be measured on the illustrations.

The engine next illustrated is of a much more substantial type. The Figs. are reduced from full-size drawings of an engine having a cylinder 4-in. bore and 5-in. stroke. The dimensions given in the text are those of the full-sized engine, but a smaller size will make up very nicely if the same proportions are observed throughout.

The first illustration, Fig. 36, shows an elevation, and the plan immediately below drawn about  $\frac{1}{2}$  scale. The details are shown about twice as large. Referring to Fig. 37, the bed-plate, which forms the main casting is 34 in. long and 7 in. wide at the base. By constructing a scale to suit these measurements, the illustrations may be made to serve for



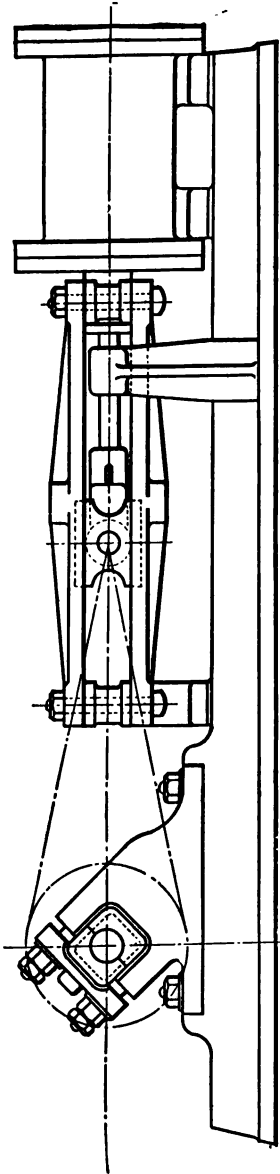


FIG. 36. Elevation of Horizontal Engine.

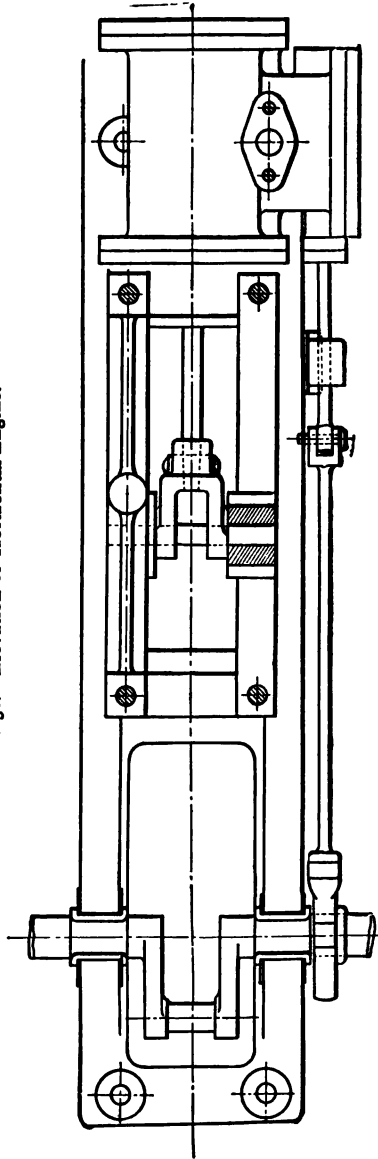


FIG. 37. Plan of Horizontal Engine.

a model of any size. It is necessary to make complete working drawings of the size intended and, of course, all the small parts, such as bolts and screws, would be made to some standard measurement. When reducing the size of machines,

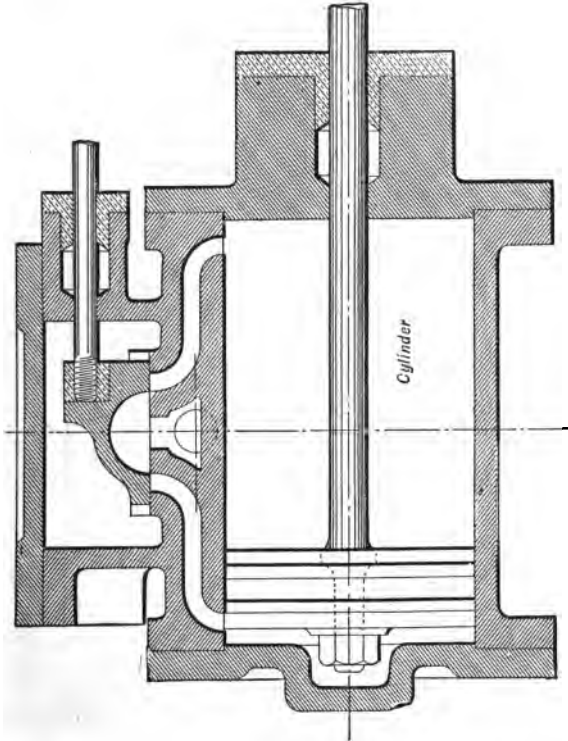
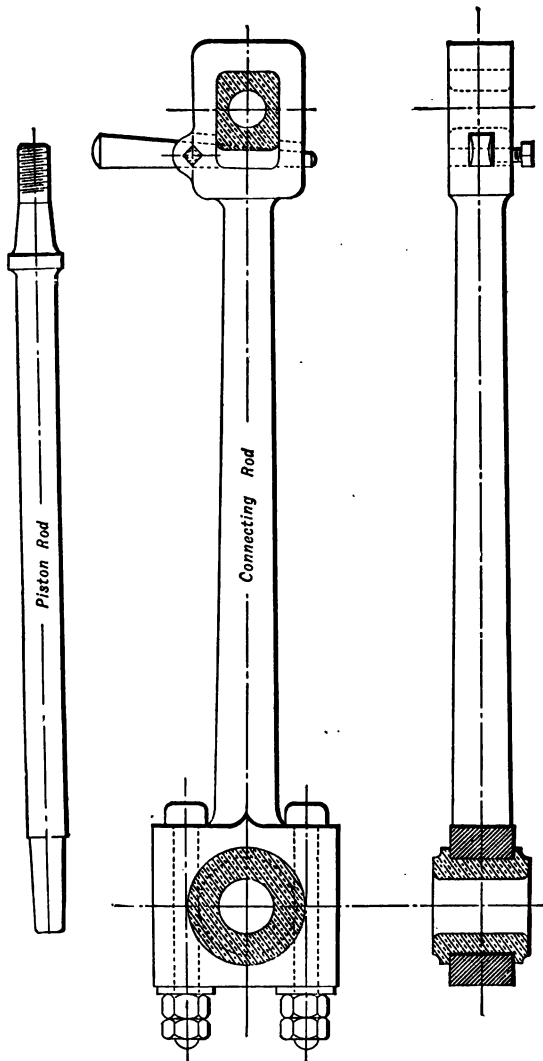


FIG. 38. Section of Cylinder.

the tendency is to somewhat increase the relative dimensions of the small parts. Also the necessity, which practically exists, of using certain fittings of fixed gauge, compels a certain amount of departure from the strict adherence to exactly proportionate alterations in size. As an example, refer to the bearings of the crank-shaft shown in the plan. They



FIGS. 39 &amp; 40. Piston and Connecting Rods.

are 1 in. diameter in the original engine and, reduced to  $\frac{1}{2}$  scale, show  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. diameter. It would be an inconvenient size to adopt, and  $\frac{1}{16}$  in. would be at the same time more suited to our common methods of measurement and also to the reduced size of the engine. The bolts which hold together the guide-bars for the piston-head are  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. diameter, and, though shown  $\frac{1}{16}$  in. diameter in the drawing, should be made  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. in a model of this reduced scale.

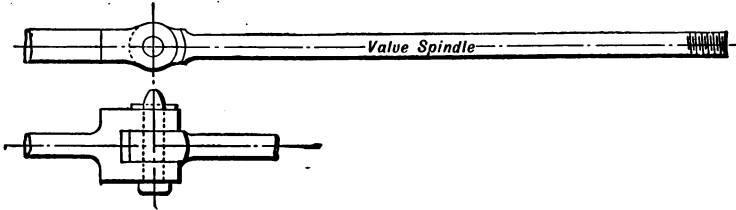


FIG. 41. Valve-Rod.

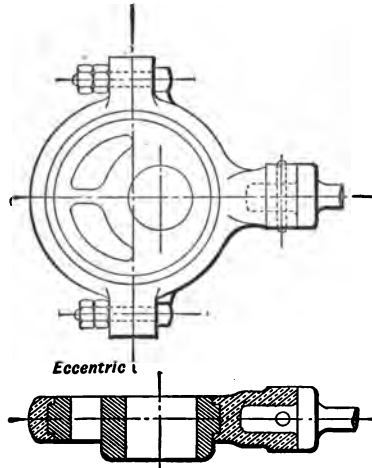


FIG. 42. Eccentric and Strap.

In illustrating the details, only those of somewhat peculiar construction have been selected. All details are shown  $\frac{1}{2}$

scale. Fig. 38 shows a section of the cylinder, and from it all details of slide-valve arrangement can be seen. The complete piston-rod is shown at Fig. 39; it measures  $12\frac{1}{2}$  in. from end to end. The end that is fixed in the piston has a collar forged upon it to butt against the piston-head, into which it is fitted with a cone. The extreme end is threaded for a nut, as shown in the section of cylinder.

The connecting-rod, shown in elevation and in plan at Fig. 40, is a forging. Brasses are fitted in both ends. The end that connects with the cross-head has its brass fixed by a taper key, which is itself fixed by a set screw. The crank-pin brasses are secured by a cap held on by two bolts, each fixed by lock-nuts. The pair of brasses are shaped to fit a somewhat elliptical hole in the connecting-rod; by this plan the brasses are prevented from turning in the rod.

The valve-rod is made of round steel, having an eye at one end fitted by a knuckle joint to a rod, which is fixed by a transverse pin to the eccentric strap. These details are shown at Figs. 41 and 42.

The eccentric itself is made of cast iron and has spaces cored out in the large sizes. The elevation and the section views, Fig. 42, show these and the method of connecting with the valve-rod, sometimes called the valve-spindle, and so marked on the illustration.

## CHAPTER V.

### *OSCILLATING ENGINES.*

**T**HE action of oscillating cylinders has been described, but before giving the details of an engine of this type it may be well to show this form of cylinder. A single-action oscillating cylinder is shown at Fig. 43. The action can be understood by reference to the description of the toy engine shown at Figs. 12 and 13. A pair of double-acting oscillating cylinders are shown at Fig. 44. These cylinders have their



FIG. 43.

Single-Acting Oscillating Cylinder.

steam ports acting on the face of the block placed between them. The live steam acts at both ends of the cylinder and drives the piston in both directions. This gives these cylinders the distinction of double acting. The small space occupied by cylinders of this form makes them particularly suited for confined spaces. Oscillating cylinders are, for this reason, mostly used in ships.

The following set of drawings show an engine with an oscillating cylinder.

This form of construction economises space and weight ; it is also more simple than slide-valve cylinders. In all oscilla-

ting engines the cylinder is mounted on trunnions or gudgeons, so that it may swing to and fro through a small arc, and allow the piston-rod to follow the motion of the crank. No con-

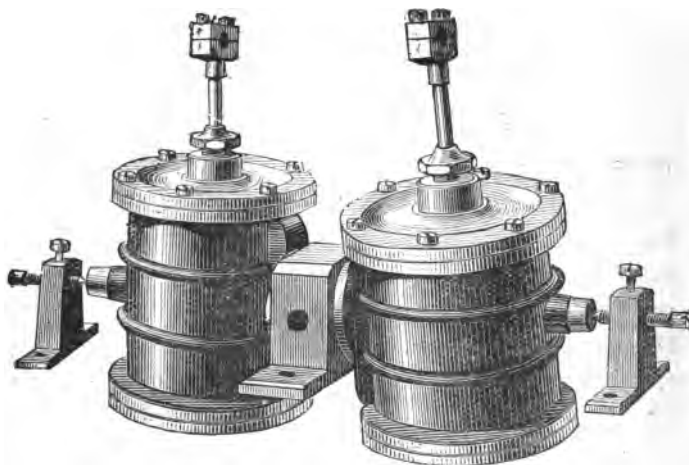


FIG. 44.  
Pair of Double-Acting Oscillating Cylinders.

necting-rod is required in this engine, the piston-rod being attached direct to the crank-pin.

The illustration shows an engine specially adapted for propelling a model boat. The entire machine is kept low down, which is generally necessary for small boats. The fly-wheel is much heavier than are those attached to toyshop engines, but it is not unnecessarily large. Experiments show that a weighty fly-wheel is required on an engine which has the constant drag of a screw propeller to overcome. This fact is ignored by some makers of engines, and in some cases a useless engine has been made effective by the substitution of a much heavier fly-wheel.

The framework on which the cylinder is mounted, and which also generally serves to carry the bearings for the

driving-shaft, may be of almost any design. There is no set pattern for this purpose, and it rests with the designer to fashion his pattern according to fancy. The form shown possesses the essential characteristics. It is strong, yet light; there is a good base by which to secure the engine to the hull of the boat. Suitable provisions are made for the bearings of the crank-shaft, also for the valve-face and the cylinder-trunnion. So long as these are provided for, the mere outline is of little importance.

Boring the cylinder is often the most difficult job to accomplish by a beginner who has not had some experience at the lathe. Some methods of doing this have been given, but there are several other ways in which it can be done. By fixing the cylinder, with a clip and two bolts, to an angle-plate on the face-plate of lathe, placing the valve-face upon the angle-plate, the cylinder can be firmly secured and at the same time easily centred. After being set true it can be bored with a tool fixed in the slide-rest, but this method requires the slide-rest to be properly adjusted in order to get the bore parallel. Cylinders can be bored very well with a flat boring bit turned true on the edges, and two pieces of half-round wood screwed to it. The bit should be turned parallel and size of bore; the two pieces of wood can be removed, and the bit, the end of which is made to cut the same as an ordinary drill, hardened and tempered; the wood must then be replaced. Holding this drill with a hooked spanner, and feeding up very carefully with back centre of lathe, a good bore can be got. The cylinder should then be placed on a perfectly true mandrel, and the flanges turned and faced up at one chucking.

Fig. 45 gives a side elevation, and Fig. 46 an end view of the same engine. The cylinder is 1-in. bore and 1-in. stroke. The length without covers is  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in., that allows  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. for thickness of piston,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. for each of the spigots of the two



covers, and the same distance left vacant at each end. The diameter of the cylinder across the flanges is  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in., and a semicircular rib is shown in the middle. Each cover is held on

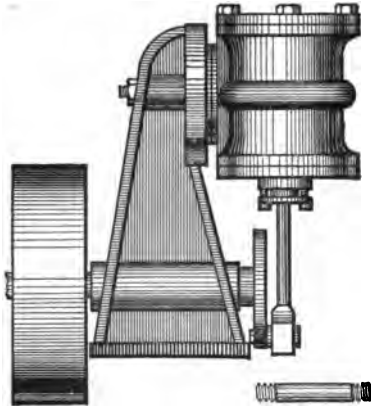


FIG. 45.  
Side View of Oscillating  
Cylinder Engine.

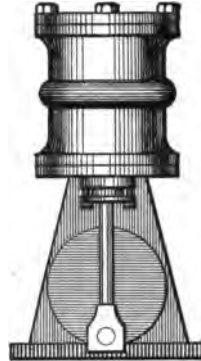


FIG. 46.  
End View of Oscillating  
Cylinder Engine.

by six hexagon-headed bolts, placed equidistant round it, tapped into the flange. These bolts are not shown in the lower cover.

The piston-rod is shown out from the cylinder to its fullest extent. The rod is of round steel  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. diameter. The cross-head for the crank-pin is of brass, screwed on to the end of the rod. Though shown as a solid piece, it would be better if this head was cut across horizontally at the diameter of the crank pin, and the cap secured by two screws.

The piston-rod can be made from a piece of steel rod. It must be truly centered, and made quite straight; one end is turned tapering  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. from the end, and screwed. The other end is slightly tapered to fit into cross-head, and a key-way cut through it; a small hole can be drilled, and then made to draw the parts together, as shown at Fig. 83, with a small round file.

The piston-head is in two parts, and can be made from sheet brass; one must have a taper hole bored to fit the rod, the other half is made to answer the purpose of a nut. Having fitted and turned up the faces, they may be fixed on the rod; the half that is for the nut must have two holes drilled in the back so that a forked turnscrew can be used to screw up the piston; it can then be turned on the rod the exact size of cylinder bore, and a  $\frac{3}{16}$  in. groove turned for packing-rings. The rings can be cut from brass tube, and made so that the two fit in the groove of piston-head. The rings at this stage must be slightly larger than the cylinder bore. A slanting cut should be made in each ring; they must then be placed in the piston and pressed together until the cuts are close up; the two rings are then fixed by their edges, and may then be turned until they will just go in the cylinder. The rings must be ground sufficiently narrow so that they will be free to expand when the piston plates are screwed together.

The crank-pin is turned from steel, and is riveted into the disc which forms the crank. A crank-arm would do equally well, and the disc is shown simply as illustrating a different plan. The disc is fixed on the crank-shaft either by screwing, by a transverse pin, or by a key.

The crank-shaft is  $\frac{1}{4}$ -in. steel, and should be turned smooth and parallel to fit the hole in the standard. This hole should also be smooth and parallel, which it will be if properly bored with a suitable tool. A long bearing has no more friction than a short one, though a contrary opinion seems to be prevalent. A small hole for supplying the oil necessary for lubrication should be made near the middle of this bearing. The same remarks apply to the bearing through which the trunnion passes.

The fly-wheel on the left in Fig. 45 is cast iron,  $2\frac{1}{2}$  in. in diameter, and  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. wide on the rim. The rim should

be  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. thick at least, and the boss in the centre as wide as the rim. If bored fairly true, the casting need not be turned on its edge, though it will look better if bright. A small key should be used to fix the fly-wheel on the shaft. This latter, shown broken off in the drawing, projects slightly, and carries a small disc with two pins, which engage in a fork on the end of the propeller-shaft and so drive it, and the screw propeller attached to its end.

The valve-face of the standard must be made perfectly flat, and at right angles to the boring for the crank-shaft. Fig. 48 shows the face of this standard as it would be seen in Fig. 46 if the cylinder were removed. The section of cylinder, shows valve-face and steam-ways. It is convenient to turn the valve-face in the lathe, and, at the same time, to cut the circular groove, which, after being stopped by plugging at both top and bottom, forms the supply and exhaust ports respectively. The face may be made flat by filing when a lathe is not available, and the groove cut by means of an annular bit with teeth on its edge which cut a channel, but do not touch the inner circular part.

Through the centre of the valve-face a hole is bored to receive the cylinder-trunnion. This trunnion is a steel pin, illustrated between Figs. 45 and 46, it screws into the valve-face of the cylinder. The outer end is threaded for a nut, which has a washer beneath it, and keeps the cylinder close against the standard, with the faces of the valves held together steam-tight, yet so that the cylinder may oscillate freely. A spiral spring beneath the nut is sometimes used, but, in good work, the adjustment is made with a pair of lock-nuts. The hole through the standard must be perfectly at right angles to the face, and the trunnion in the cylinder must also be perpendicular to the valve-face, or the two faces cannot come together steam-tight.

The stuffing-box of the piston-rod is made with a gland

drawn down on the packing by two screws. This arrangement is shown in section at Fig. 47. The method of fitting the gland, whether by screwing direct into the boss of the cylinder cover, as shown on the right, or by screws tapped through the flange, as on the left-hand, in the illustration, is quite optional. By referring to Fig. 47 the construction of the two forms of stuffing-boxes will be understood. The gland belonging to each is shown separate immediately above the sections. The same description applies to both. First the cylinder cover with the projecting boss into which the gland is fitted; higher is the space for the stuffing or packing. This is filled with lamp cotton, and, when the gland is screwed down, the cotton is compressed so that it makes a steam-tight fitting for the piston-rod to slide in. The hole for the piston-rod is shown through the centres of both sections.



FIG. 47.  
Glands and  
Stuffing-Boxes.

As before explained, the gland on the left is secured by two screws shown in the section; it is fitted into a plain cylindrical hole. The other gland is threaded to screw direct into the cylinder cover, which is tapped to receive it. The first method is the one always employed in large engines. The screwed gland has a knurled edge, so that it may be turned with the thumb and finger.

The action of the valves in a double-action oscillating cylinder will be best explained by reference to Fig. 48. This shows the face of the standard and the section of the cylinder. There is a flat face to the cylinder, usually circular; this has the usual steam-ways bored in it. These holes meet others, drilled from the ends of the cylinder, parallel with its bore, and conduct the steam to the ends of the cylinder through the

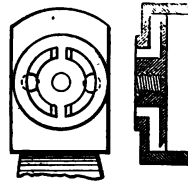


FIG. 48.  
Valve-Face of Oscil-  
lating Engine.

side passages. On the face of the standard are two holes, drilled from the back, one to receive the steam from the boiler, the other to take the exhaust pipe. These holes are not bored through, but communicate with the semi-circular grooves. The cylinder is placed against the standard, and held close to it, as shown in Fig. 45, by means of the trunnion illustrated in the same Fig.

When the cylinder is vertical, as shown in Fig. 46, the port-holes are opposite the solid parts of the valve-face. Suppose live steam issues from the boiler and fills one of the semi-circular channels; directly the cylinder is moved on one side, and one of the port-holes comes over the groove, the steam enters the cylinder, and, pressing against the piston, compels the crank to revolve. By the same motion the other port is brought over the other semi-circular channel, and the dead steam escapes. When the cylinder again reaches a vertical position the steam-ports are again closed, but the momentum of the fly-wheel carries it over the dead centre, and then the positions of the ports are reversed. The one formerly over the exhaust now opens to the live steam, and the port just charged with steam comes over the exhaust. Thus the steam is admitted alternately at both sides of the piston, and so the engine continues to work.

## CHAPTER VI.

### *LAUNCH ENGINE.*

**T**HE engine shown in this chapter is one that has worked well and may be depended upon. The large drawings are reduced to  $\frac{1}{4}$  scale, and all details are shown  $\frac{1}{2}$  scale, of the original engine.

The base on which the engine is built is of cast iron. It is 12 in. wide and the side strips are 9 in. long. It is  $\frac{7}{8}$  in.

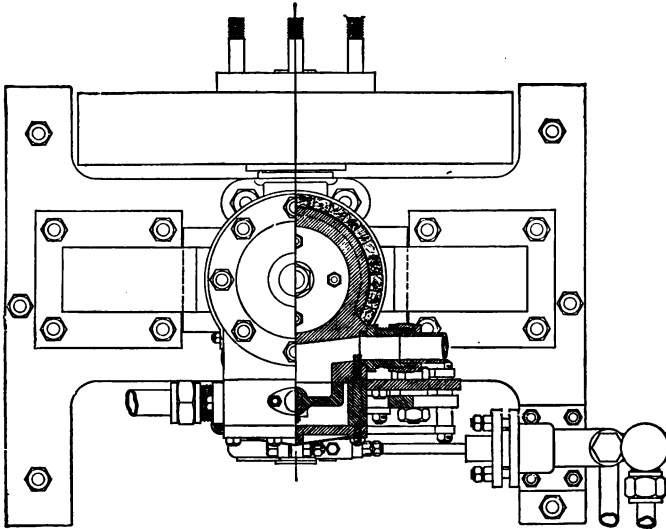


FIG. 49.

Plan View of Launch Engine.

thick with a hole in the centre; see plan view, Fig. 49. The cross-pieces which support the bearings for crank-shaft

are strengthened by webs underneath. The top of this base has "chipping-pieces" projecting where the standards rest. These

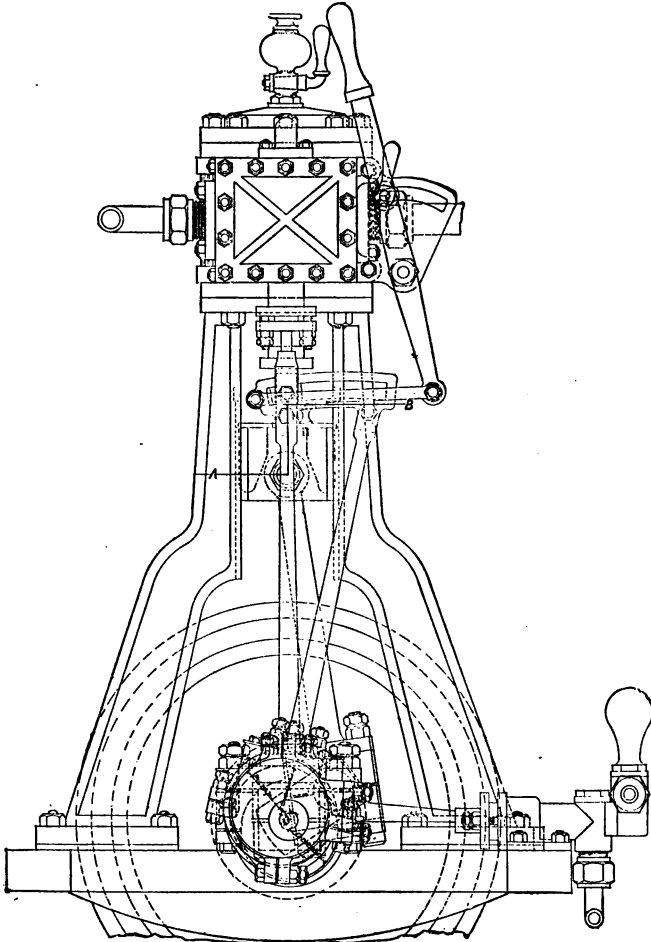


FIG. 50.—Front View of Launch Engine.

should be faced off level in a planing machine. The chipping-pieces of course save a great deal of work when chipping and

filing is the process by which the base is prepared to receive the parts to be bolted to it.

The six hexagon nuts shown in the plan view, and not in the other drawings, are to fix the engine to its place in the boat.

Next is Fig. 50, a front view; Fig. 51 is a side view. From these the general design of this engine may be seen, and the principal dimensions taken. The design is one that will make up very satisfactorily on a reduced scale. Some of the details may be regulated in a model under half size, and, when reducing, some attention must be paid to dimensions of the smaller parts, which must be slightly larger than precise proportion would give.

The engine is  $2\frac{1}{4}$ -in. bore and  $2\frac{1}{4}$ -in.

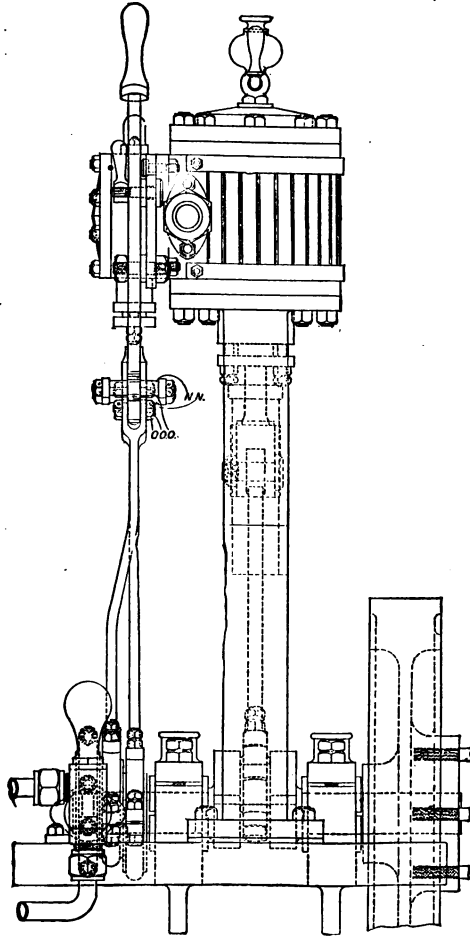


FIG. 51. Side View of Launch Engine.



stroke. It has reversing gear to make it practically useful; though the double eccentrics and link motion give a good deal of extra work, and they may be left out of a smaller model. The pump shown on the illustrations is also quite an auxiliary and may be dispensed with. It is fully described in Chap. IX.

The standards are cast together, the top forming the cylinder cover. It may be questioned whether this plan is to be preferred to casting each standard separate. Probably this will depend entirely on the appliances that are available for finishing the castings. This engine can have the insides of the standards, which form the guides for the piston cross-head, finished on a 6-in. centre lathe, if it is strong enough for such work.

The method of finishing the insides of these standards is this: First carefully prepare the feet so that the pair of standards rest fairly and stand quite upright. The holes for the holding-down bolts can then be bored, one near the corner of each foot. The casting is next mounted on a face-plate and fixed quite upright and with the end disc, which will form the cylinder cover, running true. If chucked carefully and firmly, the disc can be centred and a hole bored through—this will afford a bearing for the back poppet-head centre. The disc, which is to form the cylinder cover, can now be roughly turned nearly to size and shape.

The hole in the centre of the cover can be bored out much larger than the piston-rod requires and can be finished afterwards. By this plan a boring bar can be used through this hole, and with its other end on the mandrel-cone centre point, which would be projecting in the centre of the face-plate. A cutter-block and cutter, arranged to bore the inner faces of the standards to about  $2\frac{1}{8}$  in. diameter will finish the guides for the cross-head. Sections of the standards are shown at Figs. 52 and 53. It is advisable to get the cylinder fitted on the bottom cover, and to turn the lower flange and cover

together, so as to ensure a perfect agreement of their surfaces. This can be done by boring the cylinder and turning the flange-face for the lower end at least, before the standards are mounted in the lathe ; so as to have it prepared for fitting on and fixing when the boring bar is in use.

In Figs. 52 and 53 we have sectional views of the upper part of standards. One view

vertical and one horizontal. The upper vertical view shows how the cylinder fits the top of the standards, also the stuffing-box for piston. Near the bottom are shown cross slots which are the ends of the cross-head guides. In the lower horizontal section may be seen the sectional form of the standards, also the plan form of cross-head. The oil chambers are shown.

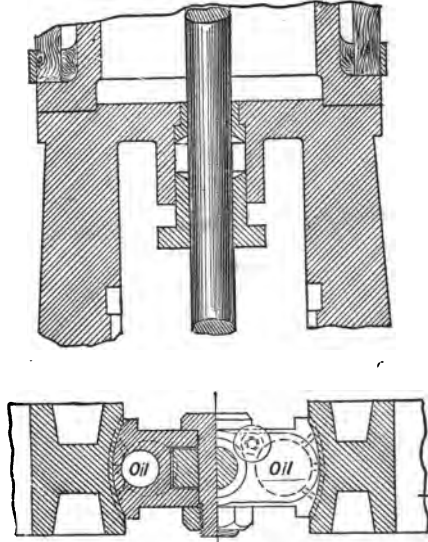


FIG. 52. Vertical Section of Cylinder Cover.

FIG. 53. Horizontal Section of Standard.

The pair of standards may be cast apart and have ears at their tops to attach them to the cover of cylinder. In this case the guide-faces may be got up with a file, but only in a way far inferior to the method previously described. When there is no chance of using a lathe, this inferior method must be adopted.

It is unnecessary to say much in connection with these drawings of the complete engine. The various parts are all clearly shown in position. Each one of special importance is

illustrated on an enlarged scale later on in this chapter. Many of the special features of construction have been discussed in previous chapters. There are points of similarity in this and

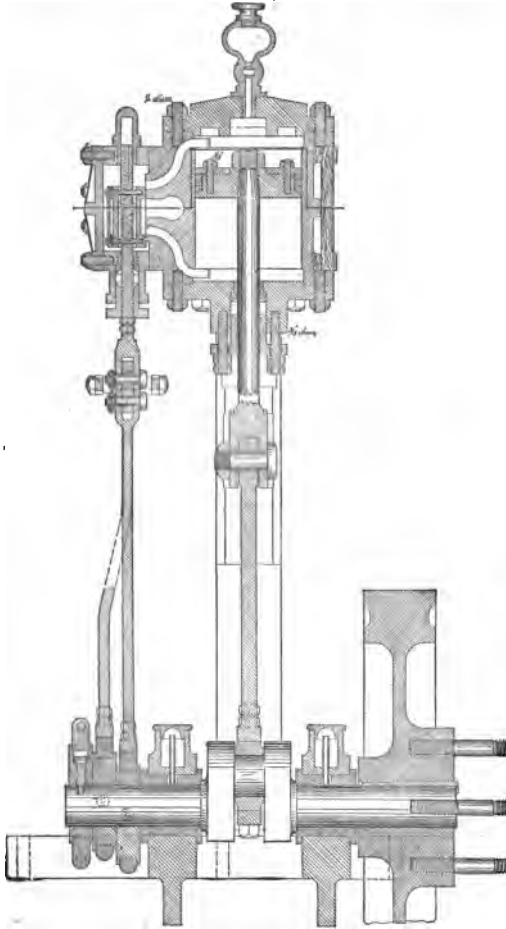


FIG. 54. Sectional View of Launch Engine.

the horizontal engine described in Chapter VII. The section, Fig. 54, through the side elevation affords a means of comparing many measurements.

The cross-head is formed solid with the piston, and a vertical section is shown at Fig. 55, where the oil chambers are seen, and also the method of securing the cover which is a plate fixed by the knurled-headed screw.

The connecting-rod is shown at Fig. 56, which gives three views and needs no explanation. The

connecting-rod is shown at Fig. 56, which gives three views and needs no explanation. The

rod is rectangular in section and has a T-piece forged at one end. The other end has an eye, which is jointed to the cross-head.

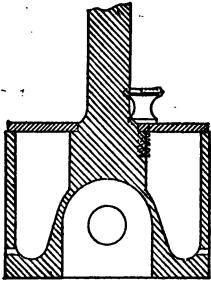


FIG. 55.  
Section of Cross-head.

The brasses in this connecting-rod are fitted as shown. They have the clamping bolts passed right through them, and these should fit. A strap at the outer end and the T-piece on the rod serve to hold the two bolts together. Lock-nuts are required to guard against these bolts becoming loosened in wear.

The eccentric and its belongings are shown at Fig. 57. A plan and side view of the eccentric are given. The eccentric is  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. thick, it has a screw tapped through the widest part of it. The throw of each eccentric is  $\frac{3}{8}$  in., giving a travel of  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. to the slide-valve. The pump eccentric is made precisely as illustrated, but has  $\frac{5}{16}$ -in. throw, so as to give the pump-plunger a travel of  $\frac{5}{8}$  in.

The straps for valve eccentric and also for pump eccentric are of the form illustrated at Fig. 57. It will be noticed that

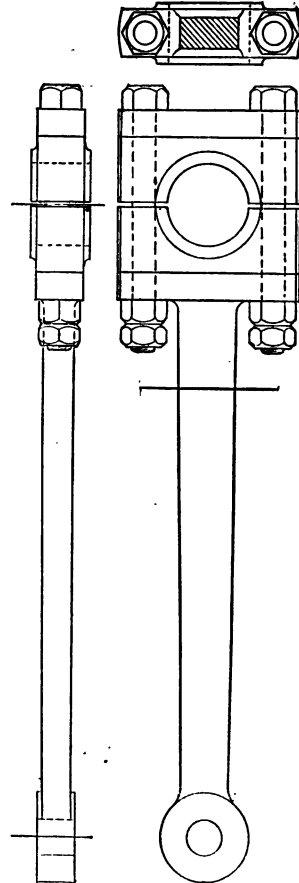


FIG. 56. Connecting Rod.

each is intended to be fixed to a T-piece connection on the eccentric rod. The two screwed studs are for this purpose, and a glance at the eccentric rod, shown at Fig. 58, will show

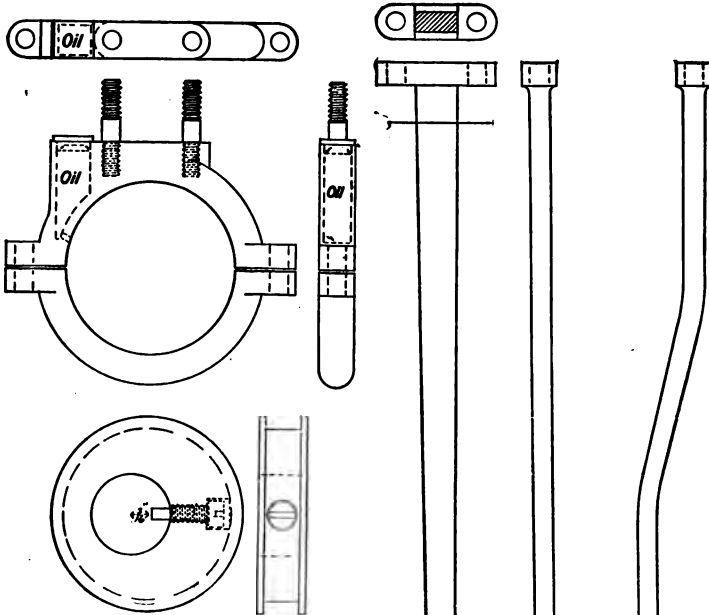


FIG. 57. Eccentric and Strap.

the method of application. A recess is cast in the strap to contain oil for lubrication. It has a small cover fitted, to prevent the contents from being thrown out.

FIG. 58. Eccentric Rods.

The eccentric rods to work the link for valve gear are shown at Fig. 58. They are both alike sideways, but one is straight and the other bent, as shown in the two edge views. Each rod is T-shaped at one end and forked at the other, to connect with the eccentric strap and with the link respectively. The

pump eccentric rod and all the pump construction will be found described in Chapter IX.

Reversing the motion of this engine is managed with a link. Slide-valves when fitted with the link motion, work satisfactorily. With the aid of this contrivance, engines can be reversed by simply moving the reversing lever. Steam can be worked with almost any amount of expansion, the change being rapidly made by a small movement of the lever. By altering the amount of expansion, the greatly-varying power required in some kinds of engines can be obtained. Not only reversed motion but the varying speed required for boats, and the varying power required for locomotives, can be readily obtained by simply shifting the lever to the required position.

The motion illustrated at Fig. 59 is that usually arranged with the slot-link shifting.

The concave part is then towards the crank axle. Each end of the link is worked by a separate eccentric, the radius of the

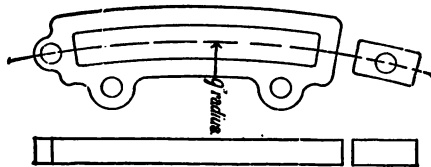


FIG. 59. Link and Die: side and edge views.

curved slot being equal to the effective length of eccentric rods. The slide-valve rod is connected with a block which moves in the slotted link. The slide-valve is worked by either of the eccentrics, as wished, by merely shifting the link by

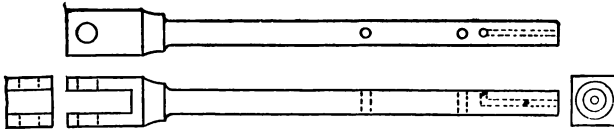


FIG. 60. Valve-rod and Cross-head.

moving the reversing lever, to which it is connected by means of links and levers.

The slide-valve rod and cross-head are shown at Fig. 60.

The valve-rod has a cross-head to take the die which travels in the link, Fig. 59. This is slotted to a radius of 9 in. A forging is generally used for a full-size link, but smaller sizes may be cut from a piece of bar metal, mild steel being good material to use. The small hole shown in the end of valve-rod is drilled to a depth of about 1 in., and met by a hole drilled in sideways to allow the free passage of air or steam between the valve-box and the recess into which the end of the valve-rod works. Without this hole a vacuum might be formed. The two other holes are to take screws put through the slide-valve to fix it to the valve-rod. The method of doing this is shown at Fig. 65. Views of both ends of the valve-rod are given at Fig. 60.

The quadrant-plate, which holds the reversing lever, is shown at Fig. 61. It is bolted with lugs cast on the cylinder.

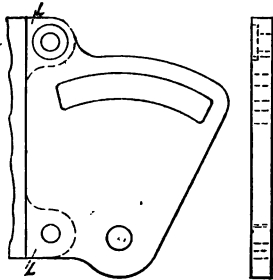


FIG. 61. Quadrant Plate—  
Side and Edge Views.

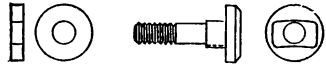


FIG. 62.

Clamping Bolt for Quadrant.



FIG. 63. Bolt for  
Link Motion  
Connections.

The bolt, used for securing the reversing lever, and its washer are shown at Fig. 62. The pins of the reversing motion are also shown at Figs. 63 and 64—where their dimensions can be measured. A reference to Figs. 50, 51, and 54 will show the position of each pin or screw.

The valve-face is shown at Fig. 65, and the slide-valve also. The ports are very wide, so as to get quick action in opening

and closing. Each port is  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. long and  $\frac{3}{16}$  wide. The exhaust being double that width. The method of securing the slide-valve to its rod is shown here ; it has been explained in a previous paragraph. A piece of copper wire secures the screws from loosening. The steam inlet is arranged in this engine by bolting a union on to the steam-chest. This union is shown at Fig. 66.

The brasses for crank-shaft are shown at Fig. 67, a top view, side view, and bottom view being given. The latter shows a wide channel cut for free lubrication. This is a very important point in an engine, and more especially when run at a quick speed. The caps which fit on the plummer-blocks are provided with large receptacles for oil. These are made in the castings, as shown at Fig. 68. A piece of brass tube is fitted in each oil box, and a wick of lamp cotton used to conduct the oil to the bearing. A cover is fitted to each receptacle.

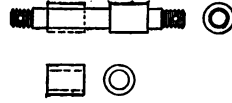


FIG. 64.

Pin in Link, for Couplings of Reversing Lever.

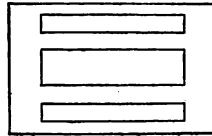
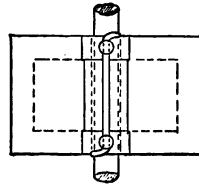


FIG. 65.

Valve and Valve-Face.

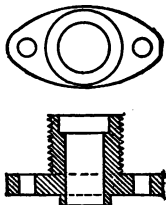


FIG. 66.

Union for Steam Chest.

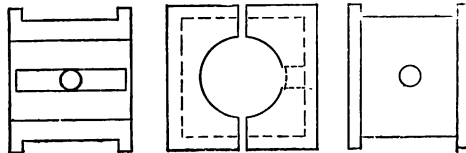


FIG. 67.

Brasses for Crank-Shaft.

The cylinder grease cup is shown in section at Fig. 69.



The construction of this grease cup can be seen by reference to the several illustrations where it is shown attached to the engine cylinder. Figs. 50 and 51 show the grease cup in elevation, the first shows the cock plug across the illustration, the second at right angles to the former position. In Fig. 54 is shown the section of the grease cup in the same position as in Fig. 51; and in Fig. 69 the section is shown as in Fig. 50. Very small grease cups and cocks of all kinds are best made from solid rolled metal—castings are likely to be defective and are always liable to breakage when reduced to finished dimensions.

A detailed description of the process of making this grease

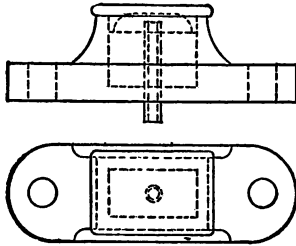


FIG. 68. Cap for Brasses—  
Elevation and Plan Views.

cup will be interesting, and much of the information is applicable to other fittings for model engines. The finished grease cup is 2 in. long and  $1\frac{1}{8}$  in. diameter; a piece of metal large enough to



FIG. 69.  
Section of  
Cylinder  
Lubri-  
cator.

finish to these sizes is therefore requisite. The first operation is to bore a hole  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. diameter through the centre. A twist drill will run through easily and will leave two holes sufficiently straight and smooth for all requirements. Each end should now be carefully steam-fired so that the piece can be run on the lathe centres without any fear of its going out of true in wear. The threaded part at one end has to be turned down to  $\frac{5}{16}$  in. diameter, and  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. long, and whilst this is being done the bulk of the metal may be turned off to the shape shown in the drawings.

The threaded part, screwed into a true hole in some chuck, will form the best means of chucking the piece to completely

finish it. Turn away the end, which forms the top, to get it the correct distance from the shoulder, which is  $1\frac{5}{8}$  in.—then enlarge the  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. hole to  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. diameter for a depth of  $\frac{7}{8}$  in.; now turn away the interior to form the space for grease—this is done with bent tools. The sectional drawings show this space very evenly made, but, if a metal lubricator were cut in halves to show the section, it is very probable that the workmanship of the turner would not compare advantageously with those of the draughtsman, so far as the interior construction is concerned. The  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. hole can now be tapped with a  $\frac{5}{16}$  in. thread to take the knurled nut which forms the cover. This nut is best turned from a piece of stick metal; the thread having been cut on the screwed part, the nut should be knurled and then cut off. It may be finished in its place.

The hole for the plug is just  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. from the shoulder; it must cross the  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. hole exactly midway, and should be a  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. diameter. It is advisable to make a much smaller hole first and to bore it from both sides, first filing two flats precisely opposite and centre-punch these to start the drill fairly. If these holes do not exactly middle, a small round file can be used to draw the hole over as required. The hole is finally tapered slightly, the largest end being about  $\frac{5}{16}$  in. diameter: an ordinary taper broach will do for this purpose.

The plug is turned in one piece with its handle. To make it, a piece  $2\frac{1}{4}$  in. long and  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. diameter is wanted. This is turned to the shape shown, and the tapering part is ground to fit the hole at an early stage. The small end is screwed with a  $\frac{3}{16}$ -in. thread, and behind that is a square for the washer. The handle is bent at right angles to the plug when all is finished. Don't try to bend brass when hot, but anneal and cool before bending. The hole in the plug is made by drilling up the  $\frac{1}{4}$ -in. hole; the rough edges are best removed from

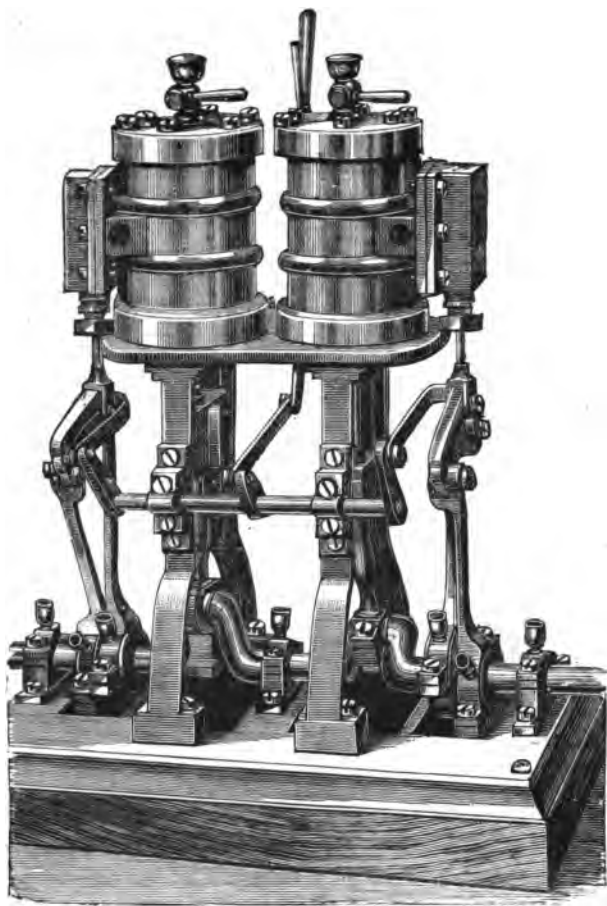


FIG. 70.

Double Cylinder Launch Engine.

the plug by slightly chamfering. The grease cup is thus completed.

The pump for this engine is fully illustrated and described in Chap. IX.—See Figs. 93, 94, 95 and 96, page 104.

On the opposite page is shown, Fig. 70, a double cylinder launch engine fitted with reversing motion. The illustration, taken from a photograph of one of Messrs. Lucas and Davies' engines, is sufficiently clear to show details of construction. Sets of castings for three sizes, viz.,  $\frac{1}{2}$ -in.,  $\frac{3}{4}$ -in. and 1-in. bore of cylinder may be had. The design shows two single cylinder engines built on one bed-plate, and acting on one crank-shaft. If the bed-plate, crank-shaft, and the plate forming the cylinder covers were all divided vertically down the centre of the illustration, two independent engines would be the result.

## CHAPTER VII.

### *TANK ENGINE.*

**T**HE following pages are devoted to the minute description of a small steam engine that can exert a considerable amount of power in proportion to its size and not knock itself to pieces, as many low-priced and flimsily-built engines do. The design is one which has been found to fully satisfy exacting requirements. The plan and elevation of engine can be used to measure from by taking a suitable scale. The illustrations are printed  $\frac{1}{2}$  scale of the dimensions given in the text. The details are shown on a larger scale. This engine, of the dimensions given in the text, is worked at a mean pressure in the cylinder of about 45 lb. of steam per square inch, and, being run at 1,000 revolutions per minute, gives over  $\frac{1}{4}$  h.p., the power resulting principally from the high speed. Many doubt the possibility of running the engine so quickly, though such engines very often run at much higher speeds. An advantage of high speed is the superior controlling power of the fly-wheel. The regular working of the engine increases as the square of the speed--that is, a fly-wheel running at 1,000 revolutions per minute has four times the controlling power that it would have if running at 500 revolutions. Another advantage of high speed is, that it often enables the engine to over-run the resistance, and this, especially in the case of very small engines, is of great benefit in ensuring regularity of speeds.

A reference to the plan and elevation of the complete engine, shown at Figs. 71 and 72, affords an idea of the

design. The engine is built upon a cast iron oblong base having semicircular ends made hollow, and serving as a water tank. The bottom is covered by a plate of sheet iron cut to shape and fixed by a dozen screws tapped into the casting.

A sheet of metal,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. thick, and cut to fit inside of the bed-plate, is required to form a cover for this tank. It rests on a ledge of the casting, as shown by dotted lines in elevation and plan of engine. It is held down by screws, and has a man-hole at the fly-wheel end to admit a supply of water. The sheet metal will require to be slightly dished just under the crank-pin, so as to allow the connecting-rod end to pass. The tank part of bed can be cast best without a bottom and have a plate screwed on, as shown, but it may be cast in one piece with the bottom. The Fig. illustrating the elevation should be examined, so as to get an idea of the shape of the casting.

The bed-plate, formed by making the top rim of the tank sufficiently massive, can be proceeded with first when the construction of this engine is undertaken. The seatings for the lugs of the cylinder must be filed or planed out perfectly square on the bed, so that the cylinder will fit tightly into them. The seatings for supports of the guide-bar are each  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. long, the distance apart of the inner sides being  $2\frac{7}{8}$  in. The distance from the centre of guide-bars to the centre of cylinder is  $5\frac{1}{8}$  in. bare. The plummer-block seating is  $3\frac{1}{4}$  in. long, and from its centre to the centre of cylinder is  $10\frac{1}{8}$  in. full. The guide-bars are  $3\frac{1}{8}$  in. long from centre to centre of holes for studs, the width of bars being  $\frac{9}{16}$  in.; they are rounded at ends. The distance-pieces between the bars are tubular pieces of metal, they are  $\frac{9}{16}$  in. diameter, and  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. long, the holes through them and through the bars being  $\frac{9}{16}$  in. full diameter. The distance from centre to centre of the two sets of guide-bars is 3 in. It will be much easier to file up the edges of the cast iron guide-bars if

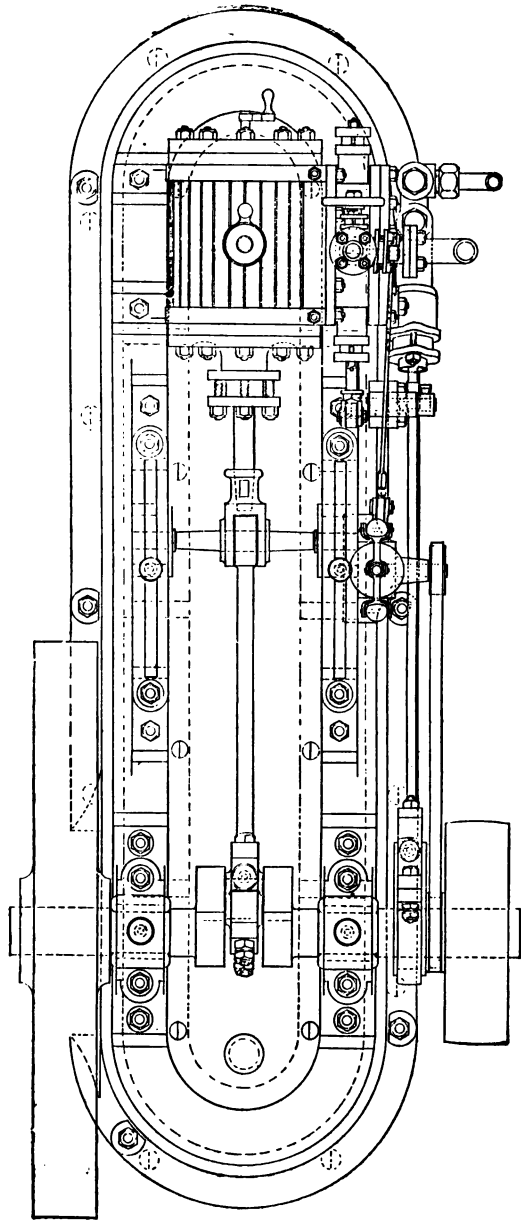


FIG. 71. Plan of Tank Engine.

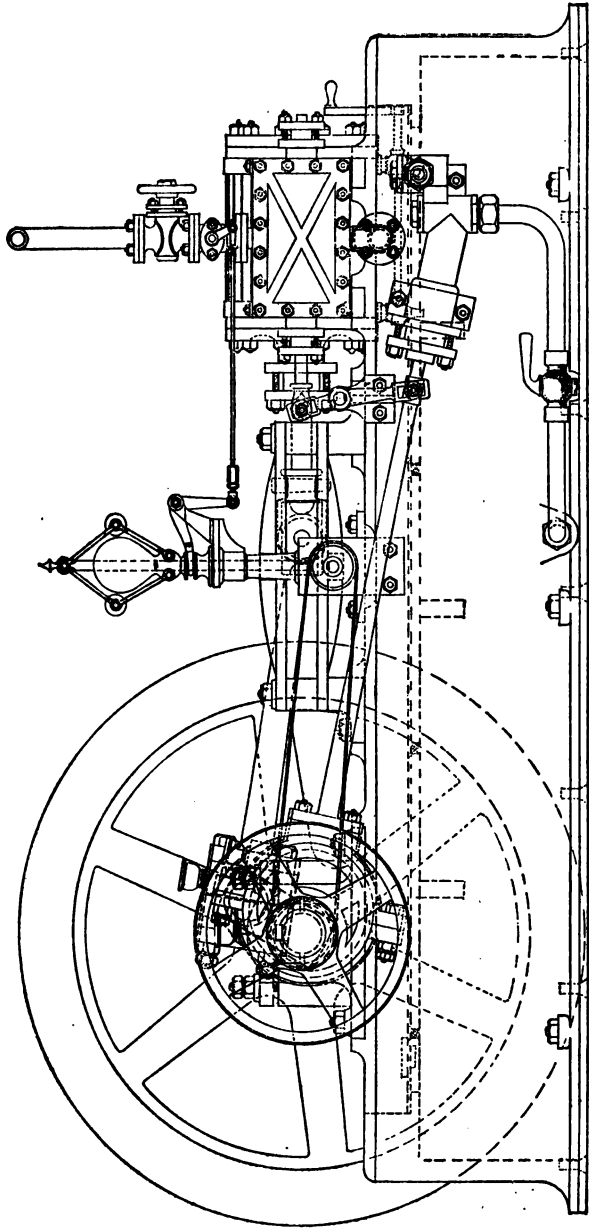


FIG. 72.—Elevation of Tank Engine.



the holes are first drilled through the ends, the distance-pieces then put in their places, and a couple of bolts put through to hold them together, as the two bars, being half an inch apart, will offer a better support to the file than the narrow edge of one would do. The rubbing faces of guide-bars are, of course, filed up as true as possible before the block is ground in. The supports for the guide-bars are  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. high, and rounded to the same shape as the bar ends. The studs for holding down the guide-bars are tapped into this support, which also has a  $\frac{3}{16}$ -in. hole for holding it down by a bolt shown in the drawing. The thin part of support, which forms its foot, is  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. thick, and the same width as guide-bars, viz.,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. The bars have the edge of rib on top polished, the remainder being painted. Each of the top bars has a  $\frac{1}{8}$ -in. hole tapped in the centre of boss, to receive an oil-cup, as shown on drawing.

The plummer-blocks, shown at Fig. 73, are iron, and have

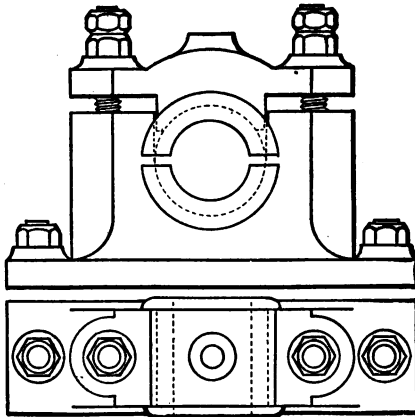


FIG. 73.—Plummer-Block.

their bases filed up, so as to fit tightly in their places between the lugs cast on the bed, the edges of base being left bright, all the rest of the blocks and also the caps being painted, excepting the tops of circular bosses on which the nuts rest, which are bright. The plummer-blocks are  $1\frac{1}{8}$  in. high from bed,

exclusive of cap, and are filed or planed out to a width of  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. to take "brasses," the bottom being rounded to fit the bearings, so as to bring their centres 1 in. from bed. The

bearings, which are of gun-metal, are bored out  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. diameter, and turned  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. on outside; the flanges at ends are  $1\frac{2}{8}$  in. diameter. The length of each bearing is  $\frac{1}{8}$  in., and  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. between flanges, where they fit in plummer-blocks. The outer edges of flanges can either be rounded or chamfered. The bearings can be bored and turned in the way described for the cylinder without putting them on a mandrel, which might injure the boring. They are then to be fitted in the plummer-blocks; and, after making sure that the centre of the hole is just 1 in. above the bed, the plummer-block cap is fitted on to its place over the turned gun-metal bearing, the under-side of the cap and top of plummer-block being left barely  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. apart. The studs for holding down the plummer-block and also the cap are  $\frac{3}{16}$  in. diameter, and placed as shown in the plan view, Fig. 73.

A hole  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. diameter is drilled through centre of cap and top of bush for oiling the bearing of crank-shaft; this hole is  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. diameter through the bush and bottom of cap, the top being tapped with a  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. thread for oil-cup, which is illustrated at Fig. 74. A small pin is put through the bottom bush into plummer-block to prevent bush from turning.

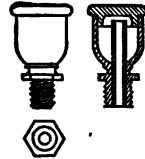


FIG. 74.  
Oil-Cup.

We can next commence operations on the cylinder, which is made of gun-metal in this case, though cast-iron is as good, and proceed in the following way: with a coarse file burr up one end of the cylinder, so as to get it square with the flanges, fix it with ordinary soft solder on the face of a perfectly true brass chuck. Turn the outer end of the cylinder true, the flange being  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. thick, then reverse and resolder on the chuck, the flanges being got to run as true as possible. By soldering the cylinder on the chuck it is held much more firmly than by the ordinary ways of chucking, and also it can be

bored, and flanges and both lugs turned at one chucking, thus getting all quite true with the bore, which is difficult to do if the cylinder has to be chucked several times. The cylinder is then bored out to  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. diameter. The bore must be perfectly parallel throughout, as upon this the satisfactory working of the engine greatly depends. The flanges are made  $2\frac{7}{8}$  in. diameter, the length of cylinder over flanges is  $2\frac{1}{8}$  in. Both sides of the lugs for holding down the cylinder can be turned at the same time. If the seats in the bed-plate are made square with the bed, the axis of cylinder will be parallel with the bed. The outsides of lugs are  $2\frac{7}{8}$  in. apart, the width of each being  $\frac{7}{8}$  in., and the thickness  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. The centre of cylinder bore must be 1 in. from under side of lugs, to correspond with centre of bearings in the plummer-blocks.

A few grooves should be turned in the face of each flange to hold the red lead used for packing the joints.

We can now commence the crank-shaft, for which a wrought iron forging will have to be obtained, about  $\frac{1}{8}$ -in. larger in every way than the finished size, which is as follows:— Total length,  $8\frac{1}{8}$  in. : diameter of shaft,  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. ; diameter of journals,  $\frac{5}{8}$  in. ; distance apart, centre to centre,  $3\frac{5}{8}$  in. ; length of each journal,  $1\frac{1}{8}$  in. ; throw of crank, which is measured from centre of crank-pin to centre of shaft, 1 in. ; diameter of crank-pin,  $\frac{5}{8}$  in. ; length,  $\frac{5}{8}$  in. ; outside width of crank,  $1\frac{9}{8}$  in. ; the width of each throw thus being  $\frac{1}{2}$  in., and its thickness is  $1\frac{3}{8}$  in. ; the crank is midway between the journals, but it is  $\frac{5}{8}$  in. from the middle of the crank-shaft. The crank is usually forged solid, and the crank-pin cut out afterwards ; this is a much sounder job than if the crank-pin and slot were worked out in the forging. The bent cranks, as illustrated on page 78, are, however, even better.

Cranks may be made in several forms, as illustrated in the engines shown at Figs. 12, 26, 45, &c. &c. The block crank,

made by welding a piece of bar iron on to a rod and then cutting away the metal to form the throw, is most common. This form is not good for strength, and recently large cranks have been generally made by bending from the rod of iron or steel. On page 78 are shown several cranks, as bent by the Grantham Crank Company, and some of the model makers supply small cranks made in a similar way. Powerful hydraulic presses are used to bend the large cranks, and the ends are forced inwards as the throws are formed. Thus the continuity of the fibre and the uniformity of section at the bends is not injured, and the work is done with less heats.

When the space between the bearings is limited, that part of the rod forming the crank throws, is made elliptical in section. This adds strength where needed and decreases the space necessary between the bearings. Fig. 76 shows the crank made with the throws of elliptical section. Fig. 75 is an ordinary-shaped crank, which has collars on the shaft to make the shoulders of the bearings. By this method the crank-shaft is not weakened by reducing in diameter to form the bearings. Fig. 77 shows a three-throw crank, and Fig. 78 the end view of same. The three throws are equal, and this crank is suited for such an engine as a triple cylinder, after the style of the one illustrated at Fig. 70.

All the cranks shown on page 78 are bent from the plain rolled rod of steel or iron by special hydraulic machinery, and by this process the fibre of the material is not fractured, but continued round the throw of the crank, and the arms are found to be as strong as the shaft. In making an ordinary block crank, the material is greatly deteriorated by the number of heats required, and the fibre running across the web is destroyed by cutting out the throw. The cost is much in favour of a bent crank, as that of a finished block crank often exceeds double that of a bent crank of equal strength. A

practice is becoming general now to make vertical, horizontal and other types of engines with outside bearings, so

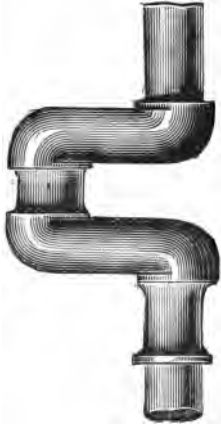


FIG. 76.  
Finished Crank with Elliptical Throws.

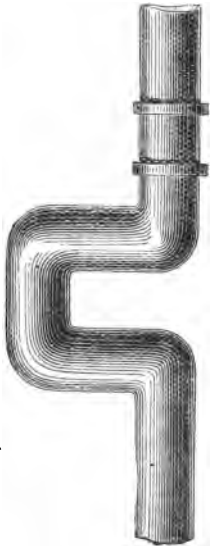


FIG. 75.  
Plain Bent Crank.

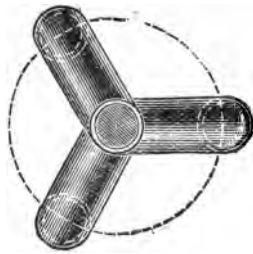


FIG. 78.  
End View of Three-Throw Crank.

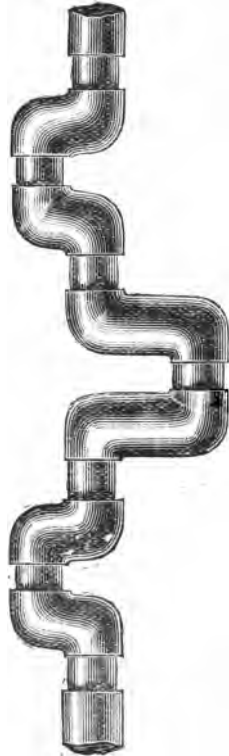


FIG. 77.  
Three-Throw Bent Crank.

dispensing with the disc and substituting a bent crank. In launch engines, pumps, &c., the block crank is still largely used; for the reason, no doubt, that the distances between the bearings are short. These cases are met in bent cranks by making the arms of the throw of oval section.

For turning the crank-pin of an ordinary forged crank, always have a throw-piece on each end forged to correspond to the throws of the crank. These arms are centred, and have small holes drilled in them corresponding to the centre of crank-pin, and thus serve to carry the shaft between the lathe centres while the pin is being turned, after which these arms can be cut off and the ends of shaft turned. It is best to turn the shaft and outsides of the crank webs first; the insides and the pin can be turned after. It is important that the crank-pin should be quite parallel with the shaft, in order that the connecting-rod does not bind when it is bolted up tight.

To mark off the centres for turning the crank-pin, proceed as follows:—Lay the shaft on a flat surface, with the crank-throw horizontal, and scribe a line level with centre of the crank-pin along each of the arms on end of shaft; these lines will be *parallel* with the surface on which the shaft lies; set off 1 in. with dividers, and place one leg in the shaft centres, and scribe a line cutting across those previously made. If this be carefully done at each end of the shaft, the point of intersection of each two lines will represent the true centre of the crank-pin, and a small hole can be drilled in each point to take the lathe centres, so as to turn the pin. It will be noticed that the shaft and crank-pin are finished up to the crank-throws with a circular curve; the journals must also be finished in the same way, as the shaft is much stronger and less likely to break than if finished up square. The sides of the crank-throws can be turned; the outer sides at the time the shaft is

turned, the inner when the pin is turned. The edges of the throw can be filed or planed, as most convenient.

The ends of the crank-shaft which project outside the journals may be turned just a trifle taper, as the fly-wheel, eccentric, and belt-drum can then be fitted with less trouble, though it will be as well to also put a key in each. The key-ways in the crank-shaft may be  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. wide and  $\frac{3}{32}$  in. deep, and extend from the ends to within  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. of the journals. To make a perfect fit of the shaft in its bearings, it will be as well to slightly grind it in. To do this, the bearings must be firmly fixed in their places, and the shaft put in them with a little silver sand, or what is better, powdered pumice-stone and oil, the longest end of shaft being to the left side of bed-plate, as shown by the illustrations. The top halves of the brasses and the caps are put on, and the shaft turned round pretty quickly, the caps being pressed down as the brasses wear, until it is found on inspection that the shaft bears equally all over the bearings, when both shaft and brasses must be thoroughly cleaned from all grit.

The fly-wheel, which is of iron, is 9 in. diameter and 1 in. wide on rim, and should weigh about 9 lb., a lighter wheel not being sufficient to carry the engine steadily over the centres. Being too large to turn on a mandrel easily, it may be clamped on a face-plate, and, after turning both sides and the edge, the hole for the crank-shaft must be carefully bored to  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. diameter, and very slightly tapering to fit tightly on the shaft. A key-way must be made  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. wide and  $\frac{3}{32}$  in. deep, to correspond to that in shaft, and for which a steel key will be required with a head on large end. This should be  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. thicker than rest of key, and  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. long. This head is for the purpose of extracting the key from its place in wheel. The belt-drum is  $3\frac{1}{2}$  in. diameter, and 1 in. broad on face, and slightly rounded, as shown in illustrations, so as to

prevent the belt slipping off. This wheel can be fixed on a face-plate, or in a boxwood chuck, and bored out the same as fly-wheel, after which it can be driven on a mandrel and the rim turned. A key-way is also required the same as in the fly-wheel. The mandrel on which the wheel is turned ought to be very short, and the wheel fixed on it as near the back centre as it can be, to prevent the chattering that is inevitable on turning heavy things on long mandrels.

The smaller work belonging to this engine will be dealt with in the next chapter.



## CHAPTER VIII.

### *TANK ENGINE DETAILS.*

**T**HE heavy work of this engine having been disposed of in the last chapter, the smaller parts can now be proceeded with. A transverse section of the complete cylinder is shown at Fig. 79.

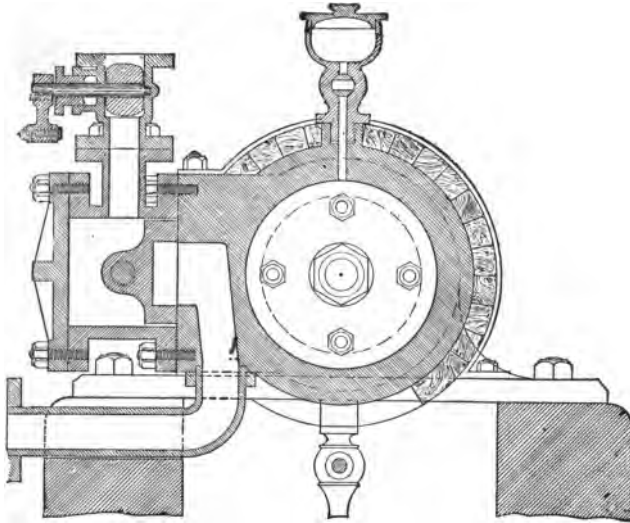


FIG. 79.—Transverse Section of Cylinder.

To turn the top cylinder cover, it will be best to chuck it by the stuffing-box, and turn the back, making the spigot project barely  $\frac{1}{8}$  in., and fitting it very tightly into the cylinder. Two or three grooves must also be turned on the face of the cover to help hold the red lead with which the joint is made. A  $\frac{5}{8}$ -in. hole is drilled right through centre of this cover, for the

piston-rod. The cylinder bottom is turned in the same way, and a  $\frac{1}{16}$  in. hole drilled through its centre. The bottom and the cover are then fixed on the cylinder, each by eight studs  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. diameter, and the complete cylinder chucked between centres in the lathe. The flanges of both covers can then be turned the same size as those of the cylinder. This makes a true joint, not always the case if each flange and cover were turned separately. The covers are the same thickness as the flanges of cylinder, and are slightly hollowed on their outer faces, as shown on drawings, Figs. 80 and 81. The stuffing-box on cover of the cylinder is  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. diameter, the flange being  $1\frac{5}{8}$  in. diameter and  $\frac{5}{8}$  in. thick. To take the gland, the stuffing-box is bored out  $\frac{9}{16}$  in. full diameter, and to within  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. of the inside face, the bottom of the hole being cham-

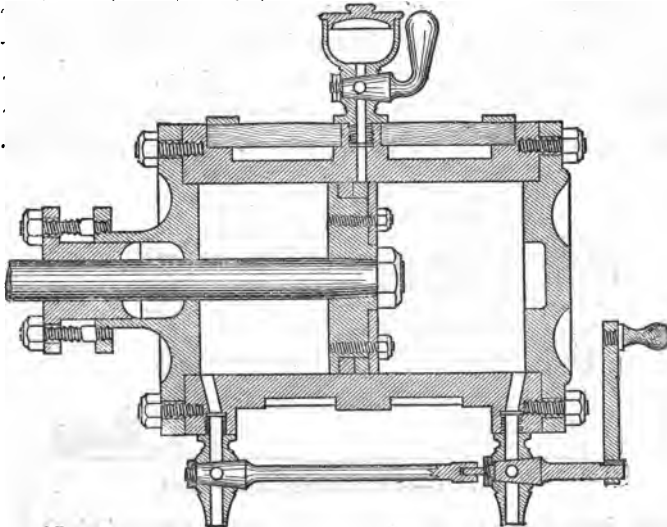


FIG. 80.—Longitudinal Section of Cylinder.

fered or rounded, to cause the packing to press against piston-rod. The gland is  $\frac{9}{16}$  in. diameter,  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. long, the flange being

the same diameter and thickness as that of the stuffing-box. The hole through the gland for piston-rod is  $\frac{5}{16}$  in. full diameter, and is chamfered or rounded out at end for packing. The glands of stuffing-boxes have studs  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. diameter.

The next thing is to true up the valve-face on the cylinder. This must be quite square with the feet or lugs, and project  $\frac{1}{16}$  in. beyond the flanges of the cylinder. The length of valve-face is  $2\frac{1}{16}$  in., and its width  $1\frac{1}{16}$  in. All the ports in the cylinder are  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. long, the steam ports are  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. broad, and the exhaust port  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. broad, and the distance between the neighbouring ports  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. In making these steam ports, it will be easiest to drill several holes close together, and to chip away the intervening metal to make the ports to required size. To make the steam passages in cylinder, several holes, as large as the casting allows, are drilled up from the ends to meet those in valve-face. The ends of cylinder are filed away on the side next the bore to a depth of  $\frac{1}{16}$  in., and the same width as steam port, thus leaving a good passage for steam into cylinder when the covers are on. The spigots of the

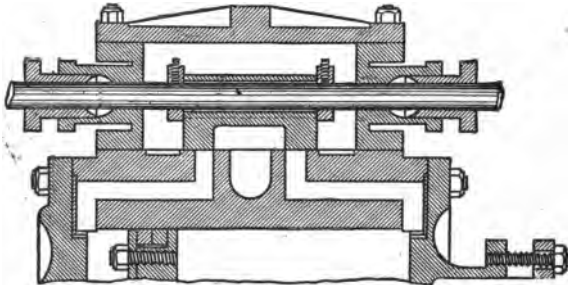


FIG 81.—Section through Slide-valves.

cylinder-covers are also chipped away the same width as the ports, and  $\frac{1}{16}$  in. from the edge, to prevent them blocking the port when they are on the cylinder.

The slide-valve is fully illustrated at Fig. 81. It is  $\frac{1}{2}$  in.

long across the face, and  $1\frac{1}{8}$  in. broad on the outside. The exhaust cavity is  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. long,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. wide, and  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. deep. On the back of the valve a projection is cast, through which the valve-rod passes, and this is secured in its place by two collars and set screws. It is always desirable that the steam should enter the cylinder as quickly as possible at the commencement of the stroke, and the ports ought to be long, more particularly when the engine is intended to run at a very high speed. When this engine is required to run at 1,000 revolutions per minute, which it can easily do when working, the cylinder has to be filled with steam 2,000 times, and emptied as often, in the course of one minute; the steam and exhaust ports necessarily must be of ample capacity. Not only must they be large enough, but properly designed, in order that the valve opens a large enough area of the port at once to ensure a quick supply of steam to keep the piston moving at the required speed. The exhaust also should be sudden and ample, otherwise there will be a considerable loss of power from back pressure. How to set the slide-valve and the lap, lead, and compression are explained in the directions for putting the engine together.

Failing a planing machine, the easiest way of facing up the slide-valve box is to solder it on a chuck and turn one face, then reverse it and turn the other, at the same time making it the right thickness, viz.,  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. The box must then be put on its face on a surface-plate, and the centres of the stuffing-boxes carefully marked with a scribing block, and a hole  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. diameter bored through each, care being taken to have the two holes in a straight line. The cover, if filed flat, can be temporarily soldered to the valve-box, so that its edges can be turned at the same time as those of box. The ribs and edges are got up bright with a file, the spaces between ribs will be painted the same as the rough parts of valve

box. The box can be put between centres in the lathe, and the flanges of stuffing-boxes turned to  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. diameter, and  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. thick. The end flanges of the box can be turned at the same time, the length of box over flanges being same as the valve-face. The slide-valve box must again be put on the surface-plate, so that the centre of the flange for throttle-valve and the piece cast on under side of box can be both marked from face and ends of box. The top and bottom flanges may then be turned to size, the flange for throttle-valve being  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. diameter, and  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. thick. A smooth file passed over flanges will lay a straight grain. This way of making the valve box will be found much easier than filing it to shape, and also makes a much better job, as the work should be left perfectly square.

The recesses in stuffing-boxes for glands are  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. diameter, and reach within  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. of the inside of the box. The glands are  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. each long, and fit the recess; the flanges being same diameter and thickness as those of stuffing-boxes. The flanges of glands and stuffing-boxes are then filed on two opposite sides, so as to make them elliptical,  $\frac{9}{16}$  in. across. The holes through the glands for valve-rod are  $\frac{3}{16}$  in. diameter to fit the valve, which is a piece of  $\frac{3}{16}$ -in. bright steel wire. The studs for nuts in valve-box and glands are  $\frac{1}{16}$  in. diameter, and are placed as shown on drawings. The inside of box must be filed out to  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. wide, so as to allow the valve to work freely. The valve-rod having bearings at both ends of box causes the valve to work much better, and also helps to prevent leakage at the stuffing-box. The piston-rod does not require to be carried through both covers, as the cross-head and guides prevent any tilting action that would wear the hole in the gland oval, and thus cause leakage.

For the piston rings it will be best to obtain two steel forgings large enough to turn into rings  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. diameter and  $\frac{1}{8}$  in.

square in section. They can be easily turned by soldering them on a chuck and turning one side, then reversing and turning the other side till each ring is  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. thick. The two can then be soldered together and on the chuck, and the insides bored out to  $1\frac{1}{4}$  in. diameter, the outsides being made about  $\frac{1}{100}$  in. too large to go into the cylinder. The edges of rings must be carefully polished to prevent them scratching the cylinder, and a piece cut out of each, about  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. long, to allow them to be sprung into the cylinder, all burr being removed from the edges of cut. They are then ground into their place on piston, to insure a steam-tight joint, the rings being left just free enough to spring open, when the back disc of the piston-head is screwed up tight. The cuts in the rings are placed on opposite sides of piston, so that the steam which passes one cut is stopped by the other ring.

The exhaust-port is carried through to under-side of cylinder, where it is connected to exhaust-pipe by a short length of  $\frac{3}{8}$ -in. copper tubing, with flanges on each end, and bent, as shown in transverse section of cylinder, see Fig. 79. To bend the tube, fill with lead, when it can be easily bent to the required curve, after which the lead can be melted out. The flange on end of pipe next to cylinder is elliptical, its greatest diameter being  $\frac{7}{8}$  in., and its least  $\frac{5}{8}$  in., the greatest diameter being parallel with cylinder. The pipe is fastened to cylinder by two  $\frac{1}{2}$ -in. studs and nuts, which pass through wide part of flange. The flanges can be made separately, and either brazed or silver-soldered on ends of tube, the one on cylinder end being set back  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. from end of tube, so as to allow a leather or rubber washer to be inserted between the flange and the cylinder. The flange on outer end of tube is  $1\frac{1}{8}$  in. in diameter, and has four  $\frac{1}{8}$ -in. studs in it (see Fig. 79). Both flanges are  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. thick. The steam pipe has also four  $\frac{1}{8}$ -in. studs, as shown.

The piston-rod is made from a piece of  $\frac{5}{16}$ -in. bright steel wire 5 in. long. It must be centred perfectly true, and the end for piston being screwed with a  $\frac{1}{2}$ -in. thread, and then turned tapering for a length of  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. The piston-head has a taper hole through it, into which the tapered end of piston-rod is forced as tightly as possible, and a  $\frac{1}{4}$ -in. nut screwed on the small end of rod keeps the piston in its place. The piston-rod is then put in the lathe, and the piston turned till it will just go easily into the cylinder. The thickness of piston-head is  $\frac{3}{8}$  in., see Fig. 80. It is then turned for a distance of  $\frac{1}{16}$  in. from the side the nut is on, to a diameter of  $1\frac{1}{4}$  in., leaving a flange at the front, of the same diameter as the cylinder, and  $\frac{1}{16}$  in. thick. The back of the piston is then turned away to a depth of  $1\frac{1}{8}$  in., excepting the boss in the centre, for the piston-rod nut to press against, which is  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. diameter. A disc is required the same diameter as the front flange of piston, and  $\frac{1}{16}$  in. thick, with a  $\frac{1}{2}$ -in. hole through it. This is put over boss on back of piston, and four  $\frac{1}{8}$ -in. holes are drilled through into piston, into which four studs are tightly screwed, and on which nuts are put, to keep piston back in its place. The holes in back must of course be large enough to allow studs to slip through, so that it can be taken off when the nuts are removed.

The exact length of the piston-rod can be best determined when the guide-bars and cross-head, &c., are in their places. It will not be necessary to polish the work until the engine is finished, as it will get tarnished, and possibly scratched, in the progressive stages of fitting together.



FIG. 82.—Pin for Cross-head.

The dimensions of cross-head pin, Fig. 82, are:—

Length over all,  $3\frac{9}{16}$  in.; diameter,  $\frac{1}{2}$  in.; length between *outsides* of collars,  $2\frac{1}{2}$  in.; thickness of collars,  $\frac{1}{16}$  in.; length

of parallel part for cross-head,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. ; diameter of journals that go in slide-block and of small tapered part,  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. The small end of tapered part is finished up to collars with a curve, as shown. This pin is made of steel, and should be hardened in the middle to prevent wear.

The cross-head for the piston-rod, shown at Fig. 83, is also of steel, and the easiest, as well as the best, way of making it is to drill a hole,  $\frac{1}{4}$  in., through it to fit the small taper end of piston-rod, and put it on a steel mandrel—near the end of the mandrel to prevent springing—then turn it to the following

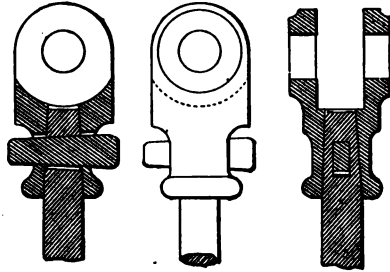


FIG. 83.—Cross-head.

dimensions and to the shape shown by the three views in Fig. 83: Diameter of collar on end next piston-rod,  $\frac{5}{8}$  in. ; diameter of hollow,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. full; the length from square part of cross-head to outside of collar being  $\frac{9}{16}$  in. In marking off the hole in the cross-head for the pin, the truest way will be to mark the centre of hole on one side of cross-head  $1\frac{1}{4}$  in. from the collar on end, and put between centres; advance a sharp-pointed tool in slide-rest till the point just enters the centre-punch mark previously made. Draw the tool away, turn the cross-head half round, and again advance the tool; then, by working the cross-head slightly, another scratch will be made.

A hole drilled through both of these marks is at right angles with the axis of piston-rod; but it might be not exactly across the diameter. Turn the cross-head round till the original centre-punch mark is exactly opposite the point of tool in slide-rest; then, supposing the lathe has a divided pulley,



draw back the tool a little, and turn the mandrel exactly half-way round, and the cross-head with it, and press the tool-point tightly against the cross-head. It can then be worked along by the slide-rest screw, thus making a scratch at right angles to and across the one previously made.

A hole drilled through the point of intersection of these two scratches and through centre punch-mark on opposite side, will be both at right angles to the axis of, and exactly diametrically across the piston-rod. It is really only the work of a few minutes to do the centreing, and when this is done it allows of the sides of the cross-head being turned, which they could not well be if the holes were out of truth. The hole for cross-head pin is bored  $\frac{5}{16}$  in. diameter. The  $\frac{1}{4}$ -in. mandrel is then taken out, and replaced by one put in holes for pin. The sides of cross-head can then be turned to shape like drawing, Figs. 83, and to the following dimensions:— Extreme width of cross-head,  $\frac{1}{2}$  in.; width of square part,  $\frac{3}{8}$  in.; depth of square part,  $\frac{1}{4}$  in.; and diameter of circular bosses on each side of cross-head,  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. The ends of cross-head are rounded, as shown. The width of opening in the fork is  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. for small end of connecting-rod, and depth  $\frac{7}{8}$  in. from centre of bosses.

The two slide-blocks are of gun-metal; one is shown in detail, Fig. 84. It is  $1\frac{1}{8}$  in. long,  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. thick, and  $\frac{5}{16}$  in. wide on the working face, the flange on inner side being  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. thick, and the same in height. The hole for cross-head pin is  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. diameter, and if the block is chucked on a mandrel the sides and ends can be turned up true; the rubbing surfaces will have to be filed or planed. If the ends of the block are left rounding as they are turned, they will

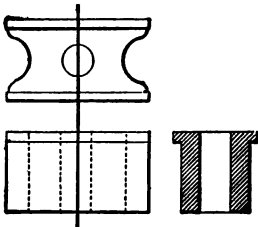


FIG. 84.—Slide Blocks.

ride over the oil on the guide-bars, and not tend to scrape it up, as they would do if they were left quite square and sharp.

Each slide-block should be made a tight fit between the bars, and should be put between them with some powdered pumicestone or fine silver sand and oil, and worked backwards and forwards till it works freely, and still is a tight fit; after which every particle of grit must be removed from the block and guide-bars.

Having proceeded thus far, the exact length of the piston-rod can be determined. The hole in cross-head must be broached out till the cross-head pin will nearly fit it; then the pin, Fig. 82, can be ground into its place, it being necessary that it should fit in the cross-head tightly, otherwise the engine will hammer when working. The hole in cross-head for piston-rod will have to be broached out taper to a diameter of  $\frac{5}{16}$  in. at the outer end, so that the piston-rod may be fitted into it.

Put the slide-blocks, Fig. 84, on the ends of pin, and place them between the guide-bars, and push them towards the cylinder till the centre of pin is exactly 1 in. from centre of guide-bar. The cylinder, without the bottom on, can now be put in its place on the bed, and the piston pushed back till it is exactly  $\frac{7}{8}$  in. from end of cylinder. The position of end of cross-head can now be marked on piston-rod; this is then turned taper, so as to fit the hole in cross-head tightly to that point. When the rod is fitted in cross-head, it should not go to within  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. of its proper position, this space being left for the key to pull up. The key, shown in Fig. 83, is a piece of tapered steel  $\frac{7}{8}$  in. long, full  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. thick,  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. wide at top, and  $\frac{3}{16}$  in. at bottom. The slots in cross-head and in piston-rod for this key are each  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. wider than key, but in opposite directions, when cross-head is in its place

on rod ; the end of the slot in the rod on the end next to the piston is  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. nearer to piston than the corresponding end of slots in cross-head : and ends of slots in cross-head on side next the cross-head pin are  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. nearer to the pin than slot in piston-rod ; consequently, when the key is forced in its place, it draws the tapering piston-rod and cross-head closely together and wedges them tightly.

For the connecting-rod it is unnecessary to give a special drawing, as similar connecting-rods have been illustrated at Figs. 40 and 56, and the exact shape of this one is shown in Figs. 71 and 72 ; an iron forging, large enough to work to the following finished dimensions, will be required :—Length from centre of hole for cross-head pin to big end (outside)  $5\frac{1}{8}$  in. ; diameter of boss, little end,  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. full ; width,  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. bare ; width of big end,  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. ; depth,  $1\frac{1}{8}$  in. ; thickness,  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. ; width of rod,  $\frac{1}{4}$  in., parallel from end to end ; depth, little end,  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. ; big end,  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. full. If the rod is put between centres, the flange for bolts at big end can be turned at top and bottom, and back and front, the sides being turned when it is bolted on the brasses. The hole in little end can either be bored out the right size and the iron afterwards case-hardened, or a small hardened steel bush can be made and forced into the rod, the bush being about  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. thick all round, and of course forced very tightly so as to fix in the rod. Great care must be taken that the hole is perfectly square with the rod. The cross-head pin must be as tight a fit in the rod, consistent with working properly. A small hole must be drilled through top of boss on rod, for the purpose of lubricating the pin. It will be advisable to have a small oil-cup fitted on, with a cap to keep out the dirt.

The brasses for big end of rod are gun-metal castings, and are to be finished to  $1\frac{1}{8}$  in. long, that is, parallel with connecting-rod ; depth,  $1\frac{1}{8}$  in. ; width,  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. ; width across boss

in centre,  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. bare; diameter of boss,  $1\frac{1}{8}$  in., and rounded off as shown. In making the brasses, first file the two inner faces square and smooth, then solder them together; they can then be fixed on a chuck and the centre bored out for the crank-pin to a diameter slightly less than  $\frac{3}{8}$  in., it being finished to the size by grinding. The pair of brasses are now put on a mandrel, and both the sides and bosses turned to the requisite width and diameter. The two ends will now have to be turned flat and parallel, care being taken to keep the division line of brasses in the centre, both top and bottom. Particular care must be taken that the ends of the brasses which pull against the connecting-rod are perfectly square with the axis of crank-pin, otherwise the big end will be twisted and will bind on pin. The top and bottom edges will have to be turned at the same time as the ends.

A piece of iron,  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. thick, is required to go on outside of big end. The holes for the two bolts are  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. diameter, and are 1 in. apart, centre to centre. The brasses will require to be ground to the crank-pin; this is done by placing the little end on the cross-head, putting the pin through it and the guide-blocks, and the big end with the brasses on the crank-pin with some powdered pumicestone and oil; then by turning the shaft round and tightening the nuts on big end a good fit will be made of the bearing. A hole will have to be drilled in the top of the big end to take an oil-cup with a  $\frac{3}{8}$ -in. thread. The position of cup is shown on drawing, Fig. 72, and a cup of suitable design is shown at Fig. 74.

The eccentric will next engage our attention. Great care must be paid to fitting the strap on the sheave; otherwise they will work with a deal of unnecessary friction. The following is a good means to adopt in making eccentrics up to about 3 in. in diameter. The strap, which is of gun-metal, is first soldered on a chuck and bored out to  $1\frac{1}{8}$  in. diameter,

and the side is also turned ; it can then be reversed on the chuck, and the other side turned until the strap is  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. thick. The holes in the lugs for holding together the two halves of strap are next made to clear the bolts, which are  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. bare in diameter. These holes must be made before the strap is cut, so as to insure their being opposite in both lugs. The flat part of strap, for taking end of eccentric rod, is  $1\frac{3}{8}$  in. long, and  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. from inner edge of strap. It is fastened on by two  $\frac{3}{8}$ -in. studs and nuts, as shown, the studs being tightly screwed into eccentric strap. An oil-cup will be required on strap, as shown. A drawing showing the inside of these cups is given at Fig. 74.

The eccentric sheave, which is of cast iron, can be soldered on a chuck, and turned on one side, then reversed and turned on the other side, till it is  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. full in thickness. The edge is now turned till the sheave is  $2\frac{1}{2}$  in. in diameter, and a groove sunk in edge for the strap ; this groove is  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. bare in width, and  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. full in diameter. The strap, which has been cut in two, is now carefully ground into this groove, with a little fine silver sand and oil, until it bears equally all over, but the grinding must stop when the two halves of strap are within  $\frac{1}{16}$  in. of together, so as to allow room for tightening up. Having marked the centre of sheave, the chuck must now be warmed till the solder melts, and the sheave then pushed over  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. to one side. The centre of hole is now marked, and a  $\frac{3}{8}$ -in. drill put through, and the hole then bored out with a tool in the slide-rest, to the exact size of that part of shaft on which it is to fit.

The best way to fix the sheave on the shaft will be by a pointed steel screw passing diameterway through centre of widest part of sheave. This screw, owing to the strain from it passing through the centre of sheave, always keeps sheave perfectly square with shaft, while a key, especially in

filed key-ways, almost always bears unequally, and thus twists the eccentric sheave, and causes the strap to bind in the groove. A countersunk hole in shaft should be made for the point of this screw, but it must not be drilled till the slide-valve has been set.

The eccentric rod, which also works the feed pump, is of wrought iron, and of the following dimensions:—Length from end to centre of pin for working valve gear,  $6\frac{1}{8}$  in.; rod at large end, depth,  $\frac{3}{8}$  in.; at small end,  $\frac{3}{16}$  in.; block for valve-gear pin, depth,  $\frac{1}{16}$  in.; thickness,  $\frac{7}{16}$  in.; rod parallel, thickness,  $\frac{5}{16}$  in.; end for eccentric strap, thickness,  $\frac{3}{16}$  in. full; length,  $1\frac{3}{16}$  in.; width,  $\frac{3}{8}$  in.; block for valve-motion pin, length,  $\frac{3}{8}$  in.; diameter of pin,  $\frac{3}{16}$  in.; length of working part,  $\frac{1}{16}$  in.; diameter of hole for pin of pump plunger,  $\frac{5}{16}$  in.; diameter of boss on end of rod,  $\frac{1}{16}$  in.; thickness,  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. Fig. 72 shows the shape of this rod.

The valve levers and supports are clearly shown in the details illustrated by Fig. 85, and are drawn double. The eccentric-rod lever is  $1\frac{5}{16}$  in. long from centre of rocking shaft to centre of slot for sliding block; length of slot,  $\frac{7}{16}$  in.; width,  $\frac{3}{16}$  in. full; width of slotted end of rod,  $\frac{5}{16}$  in.; length,  $\frac{1}{16}$  in.; thickness,  $\frac{1}{16}$  in. bare; widths of tapered part of rod, large end,  $\frac{1}{4}$  in.; small end,  $\frac{5}{16}$  in.; thickness,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in.; diameter of circular head of rod,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in.; length,  $\frac{1}{4}$  in.; diameter of hole for rocking shaft,  $\frac{3}{16}$  in.

The small lever is similar to the large one, with the exception that it is slightly bent, as shown, this being to allow the boss to clear the nut which holds down one of the guide-bar supports. The rod can be made straight at first, and cranked to the extent of  $\frac{1}{16}$  in. full, as shown, when finished. The outer edge of the tapered part is flush at bottom with edge of boss, as shown in Fig. 85. The boss is  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. diameter, and  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. long; diameter of centre hole,  $\frac{3}{16}$  in.; distance from

centre to centre of slot,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. ; length of slot,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. ; width,  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. ; full width of head,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. ; length,  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. ; thickness,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. ; thickness of tapered part,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. ; width of wide end,  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. ; small end,  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. full. The distance apart of the two levers, that is, between the bosses on rocking shaft, is  $\frac{1}{4}$  in., the rocking shaft being  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. diameter, and the levers fixed to it by two small keys, as shown.

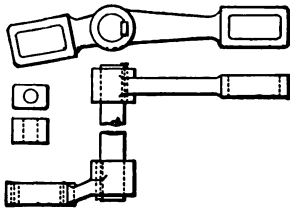


FIG. 85.

Lever for Slide-valve and Force Pump.

The angular position which these two levers form can be best determined in the process of erection. The small blocks that slide in the slots in levers are the same thickness as ends of levers, and are, for the large lever,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. long, and for the small lever,  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. long. Each block has a full  $\frac{3}{8}$ -in. hole through it for the pins to work in. These blocks are shown in Fig. 85, and must be a good working fit in the levers. Both the levers and blocks are best made in forged steel, for the sake of strength. The rocking shaft is a piece of bright steel wire. The steel bolt for valve-rod cross-head is shown in Fig. 86 ; it is  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. diameter, and is  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. long between nut and head.

The valve-rod cross-head is shown large size in Fig. 86 ; it is screwed with a  $\frac{3}{8}$ -in. screw, and a pin put through, as shown, to prevent it turning. The dimensions of cross-head are :—Length from centre of pin to end next valve,  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. ; diameter of beading on end,  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. ; diameter of circular part of sides,  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. ; depth of cross-head,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. ; width,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. ; width

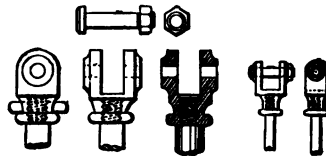


FIG. 86.

Cross-heads for Valve-rod and for Throttle-valve coupling.

across circular bosses,  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. ; width of opening for rocking lever,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. full ; depth, sufficient to allow lever to work freely. Hole for pin is  $\frac{5}{8}$  in. diameter. The length of valve-rod is  $4\frac{1}{8}$  in., in addition to the part in the cross-head.

The bracket marked Fig. 87 carries the valve-lever rocking-shaft, and is made of cast iron.

The bracket is bolted to the bed by two  $\frac{1}{8}$ -in. studs and nuts, the studs being screwed firmly into the bed. The bracket is  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. long, and  $\frac{5}{8}$  in. thick where the studs

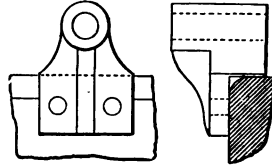


FIG. 87.

Bracket for Rocking Lever.

pass through, the curved rib in front being the same thickness. The depth is  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. from top of bed to bottom of bracket, and the centre of the  $\frac{5}{8}$ -in. hole for rocking shaft is  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. from top of bed ; the diameter of top of bracket is  $\frac{3}{8}$  in., and length,  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. bare ; the width of bearing surface of bracket on top of bed is  $\frac{5}{8}$  in., measuring inwards from edge of bed, the rest of the length of the top of bracket thus projecting over the bed. The distance from centre of bracket to centre of cylinder is  $2\frac{1}{8}$  in.

This completes the details of tank engine shown on pages 72 and 73.



## CHAPTER IX.

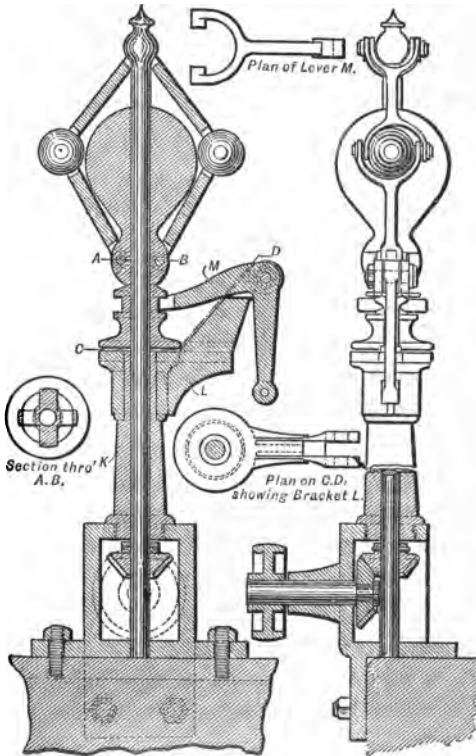
### *GOVERNORS AND PUMPS.*

**T**HESE adjuncts are necessary to a complete model, though often both are neglected. In this chapter the governor of the engine shown on pages 72 and 73 and two pumps for engines shown at Figs. 50 and 72 are illustrated and described.

The governor, or regulator, was for many years used by millers to regulate the speed of their grindstones, and was adapted by Watt for the purpose of working the throttle-valve in the steam pipe. The motion of the governor is derived, in the first instance, from the engine itself, by a cord or strap running round the crank-shaft and communicating its motion to the vertical governor spindle. Two weighted arms are attached to the spindle, revolving with it; they have joints, so that the arms can be raised from or depressed towards the spindle. The arms are connected by levers which move freely on joints at their ends, and are connected to a ring, free to move up and down the spindle. When the engine is moving with great velocity, its increased rate of motion will be communicated to the governor spindle, and the weights or balls attached to the arms will fly further from the spindle, moving the ring on the spindle; this ring moves a bent lever, at the end of which is the throttle-valve. When the velocity of the engine is excessive, the action of this lever contracts the opening through throttle-valve, consequently less steam will pass into the cylinder, and the velocity of the engine will be decreased. Should the engine be running too slow, the balls

would fall, the throttle-valve be opened, more steam admitted, and the engine would have its velocity increased. It is called a pendulum governor, because the time of a revolution is affected by the length of the axis of the cone formed during the rotation, in a manner analogous to that in which the time of swing of an ordinary pendulum is affected by the length of the pendulum.

The governors and throttle-valve, &c., for the tank engine described in two previous chapters are shown full size on accompanying illustrations, Figs. 88 and 89, the dimensions can therefore be easily obtained by direct measurement. The governor is made of the following materials:—Central spindle, steel; large weight, small balls, bell-crank lever, and central pillar, all wrought iron; the base box and upper part, which forms the bearing for the bell-crank lever, are cast iron. The



FIGS. 88 and 89.  
Section, Elevation, and Details of Governor.

lever bracket (L) can be turned on the column as shown; this is for the purpose of getting the bell-crank in a line with throttle-valve; when once set it is prevented from turning by a small set screw in the side pinching it against the pillar.

All pins for holding together are steel, and the mitre wheels are gun-metal. The wheel on central spindle is fixed by means of a pin, as shown; and the one on driving spindle is put on a square, with a screw in end to keep it on, as also shown. The small driving pulley may be cast iron.

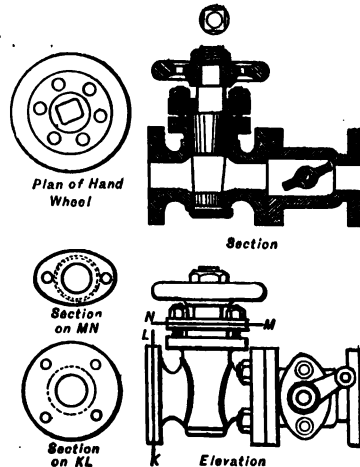
The governor is driven by a belt  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. wide, from an iron pulley  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. diameter, and  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. wide, and with a  $\frac{1}{4}$ -in. groove round it. This is on the crank-shaft between driving pulley and eccentric, and is fixed with a key.

The joints for connecting bell-crank of governor to throttle-valve are shown at Fig. 86, the rod connecting the two being a piece of  $\frac{5}{32}$ -in. bright steel wire. Great care must be exercised in making throttle-valve and stop-cock, to prevent any leakage of steam, as it would greatly impair the action of the throttle-valve in regulating the speed of the engine. An external leak in the stop-cock would make everything very unpleasant, besides spoiling the lagging of the cylinder.

The stop-cock and throttle-valve are made separately; section and illustrations are shown at Figs. 90 and 91, so as to simplify the construction, and also to get a sufficiently large chamber for the throttle-valve. It will be seen that the plug of the stop-cock does not go right through the shell, it being kept up steam-tight by a gland piece on outer end. The shell of cock ought to be cast solid, the steam-ways being too small to core easily.

The best way to make the steam-cock will be to bore a hole the same size as small end of plug, nearly through, as shown. Full  $\frac{5}{32}$  in. of metal should be left. The hole is then bored out with a taper broach to the size shown, the taper stopping

$\frac{1}{8}$  in. from end of hole in order to allow plug to come further through in tightening up. The steam-way in the casting is to be bored next, and the ends next the plug are to be widened lengthways of plug, as shown on detail, in order to give a full passage to the steam. The broach is then put into hole for plug to clear away all burr. The plug is to be turned to the size shown, and carefully ground into its place; but before it is quite finished the steam-way must be drilled through it, and filed out to the length and width shown on sectional drawings of cylinder (Fig. 79). The plug can now be finally ground in till it is within  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. of the end of hole, this space being left for future regrinding. The projecting end of plug should be parallel from end of shell to its end, so as to offer no impediment to its being ground in further. The grinding must be done very carefully, care being taken not to press more on one side than on another. Two studs and nuts,  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. diameter, are required to hold the plug-gland on its place. The hand wheel is fixed with a nut on a square.



FIGS. 90 and 91.

Section, Elevation and details of Steam-Tap and Throttle-valve.

The throttle-valve chamber is larger than the bore of stop-cock, so as to allow room for the valve without choking the passage of the steam. The valve is an oval disc with a square hole through it for the spindle. If it has projecting pieces cast on purpose, it can be turned on the slant to the same

size as the chamber, and so would fit it perfectly steam-tight. The pieces it is turned on can then be cut off. The lever on end of spindle is to be in the position shown on elevation (Fig. 72) when the valve is open. This lever is iron, and the spindle—which is steel—is reduced near its end to a square to take the valve, and then further reduced at end of square to a round, so as to form an inner bearing inside valve-chamber, as shown on section. The lever is fixed on end of spindle by a small set screw. The spindle is made steam-tight in the stuffing-box by having a cord formed of two or three strands of lamp cotton twisted round it, and then forced tightly down into stuffing-box by the gland. The construction of this part is shown on sectional drawing of cylinder (Fig. 79). The steam-pipe, stop-cock, and throttle-valve are bolted to each other and to the cylinder by four  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. studs and nuts in each, as shown. The throttle-valve and stop-cock are gun-metal, and the steam pipe, which is  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. external diameter, is copper, as are also the exhaust and pump pipes. This completes the governor.

In large steam-engines the feed water, to replace that used to make steam, is usually forced into the boiler by a feed pump, worked by the engine or by an injector. The feed pipes are often fitted with a weighted valve, which allows the water to pass to the cistern when the feed cock is closed. A donkey pump is sometimes attached to the boiler, to feed it when the engine is at rest. The feed water is generally heated before it enters the boiler, by passing it through a multitubular water heater, so placed that the gases from the furnace may pass by and heat them.

The usual type of pump sold for use on models is shown at Fig. 92.

Force-pumps for very small boilers are usually a mistake. They deliver more water than the boiler can take, or they

will not act at all. If wanted for the sake of appearance, it would be much the best to put on a dummy pump. A pump can often be made of a workable and useful size by gearing from the plunger of the pump to the crank-snapt in such a way that the stroke of the pump represents a dozen revolutions of the fly-wheel; or the pump may be made so that it can be disconnected as a rule and set to work as occasion may require.

Feed pumps are generally single-acting and are often

arranged with a trunk plunger, so that an eccentric-rod can be directly connected with the plunger by means of a joint without the use of a guide. With this arrangement, care should be taken to make the stuffing-box, which guides the plunger, at least equal in length to the stroke.

In ordinary practice the capacity or theoretical quantity a feed pump will inject in a given time is at least equal to twice the quantity evaporated by the boiler, or in marine engines about four times.

The efficiency of feed pumps is about from 20 per cent. to 70 per cent. of their theoretical delivery, due to the area of the plunger and speed of the strokes. This loss of efficiency

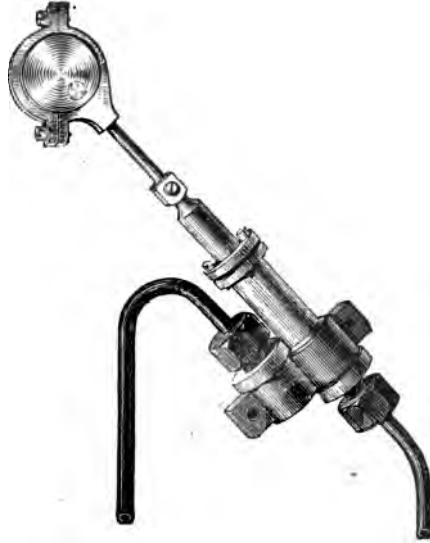
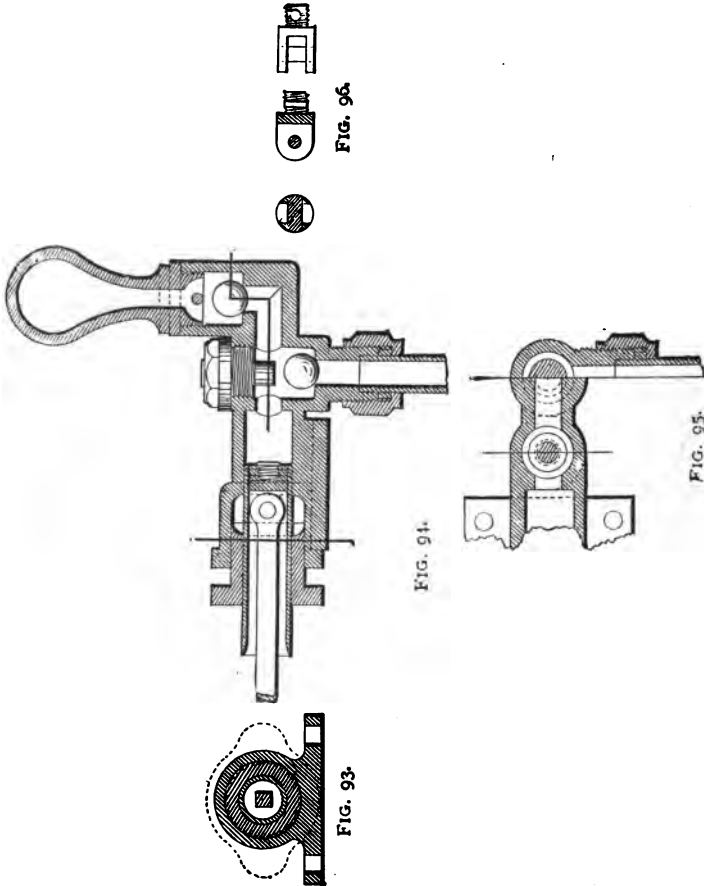


FIG. 92.  
Diagonal Force-Pump.

is mainly caused by the fact that unless the pump plunger is moved slowly the barrel is not filled at the end of a complete



FIGS. 93, 94, 95 and 96.

**Cross, Vertical and Horizontal Sections of Force-pump for Launch-Engine.**

stroke. This is due to the inertia of water, which cannot follow the plunger when moving rapidly. As a general rule,

the quicker the pump runs the smaller the efficiency. The size of pump depends upon the quantity of water to be delivered, and is best calculated from the particulars of the engines to be worked.

The length of stroke and the area of plunger govern the work done by feed pumps.

The accompanying illustrations (Figs. 93, 94, 95 and 96) show the construction of the feed pump shown in its place on the launch-engine described in Chapter VI. The illustrations are scale drawings, and for the most part explain themselves. As before mentioned the plunger has  $\frac{5}{8}$ -in. stroke, and is  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. in diameter. The plunger is made of brass tube with one end closed by a disc of brass fixed by hard solder. The joint by which the plunger is attached to the eccentric-rod is screwed into the centre of the disc, and a pin put diametrically through the plunger forms an effectual fitting (see Fig. 96). The connecting-rod is shown at Fig. 97.

The valves are made by spheres resting on seatings as shown in the sectional view. The best method of making these spheres is to bore a hole through a short piece of round steel rod, so as to leave only about  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. thickness all round. Then turn away the steel from the inside so as to get the middle part of the boring bigger than the ends. File the ends flat, then harden and temper. The bore should be ground out with a cylindrical grinder so as to get the ends quite true, and the ends should then be polished on a flat surface. This tool should be made about two-thirds of the diameter of the ball on

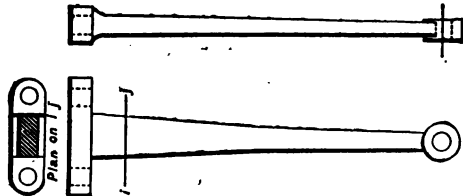


FIG. 97.  
Connecting-rod for Force-Pump.



which it is intended to act. It should be fitted in a handle, and one end may be used for roughing, and the other for finishing the spheres.

To produce true spheres turn a ball roughly to shape—gun-metal is good material for the balls—and make a cup-shaped wood-chuck to hold it very loosely. The tool applied to the rough ball will soon remove all irregularities, and when it ceases to cut, a perfect sphere will be produced in a few minutes' work. If too large for the purpose it must be reduced by filing, and then trued again by the cutting tool.

These balls must not be allowed much play when working, or the seatings will be damaged. The drawing shows the methods of checking the rise of both balls in this pump.

The seatings should be very narrow, in fact, merely the edge taken off the sharp arris. The ball may be used itself to very slightly grind its own seat. Large balls are made hollow to reduce the weight, and so prevent injury to the valve seatings.

This pump is provided with an air chamber, to equalise the flow of water, and it forms a cushion to break the force of the hammering caused by the water being injected. A back-pressure valve is used in some cases to prevent the flow of water in one direction. One is illustrated by Fig. 98. Its object is to relieve the pump of the weight of all that water which has passed the valve.

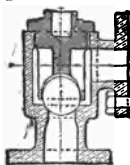


FIG. 98. In all fast-running hydraulics an air chamber should be attached to the delivery side of a pump (to equalise the pressure and flow), and if a very fast-running pump, to the suction side also. The suction pipe should be made as short as possible. A feed escape-valve is sometimes attached to the delivery side of a pump or to air chamber, if one is used. This valve is weighted, so that in the event of the engine going

too fast, and the pipe not getting cleared quick enough, the slight increase of pressure opens the valve and allows the water to escape. When a feed escape-valve is used, a feed check-valve is made adjustable, and the quantity of water entering the boiler can be regulated, or the supply stopped, by screwing down the stop which regulates the lift of valve. The pet-cock often fixed to a feed pump barrel is used to test the action of the pump (to see whether it is drawing water), and to draw off confined steam or air. Lift of valves in feed pumps should be restricted and carefully adjusted, because with great lift the valve acquires too much velocity, and thereby increases the pressure in barrel each time the valve closes, and increases wear of seatings. In large pumps it is often better to use, instead of a single large valve, two small valves. As before noted, spherical valves are sometimes made hollow for lightness.

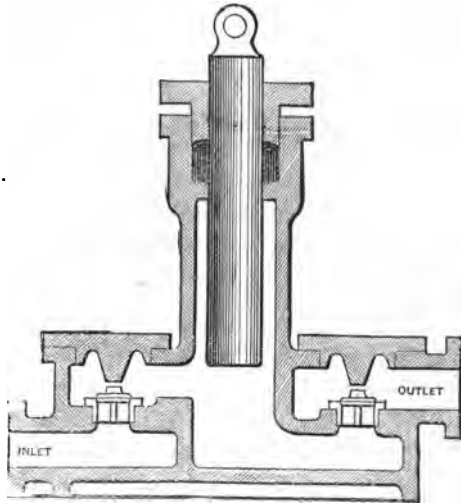


FIG. 99.  
Section of Force-Pump.

Fig. 99 shows a sectional view of a force-pump, from which may be seen the general principles on which these pumps act. The inlet and outlet for water are shown.

The feed pump for the tank engine, already fully described, is shown by complete scale drawings in Figs. 100, 101, 102 and

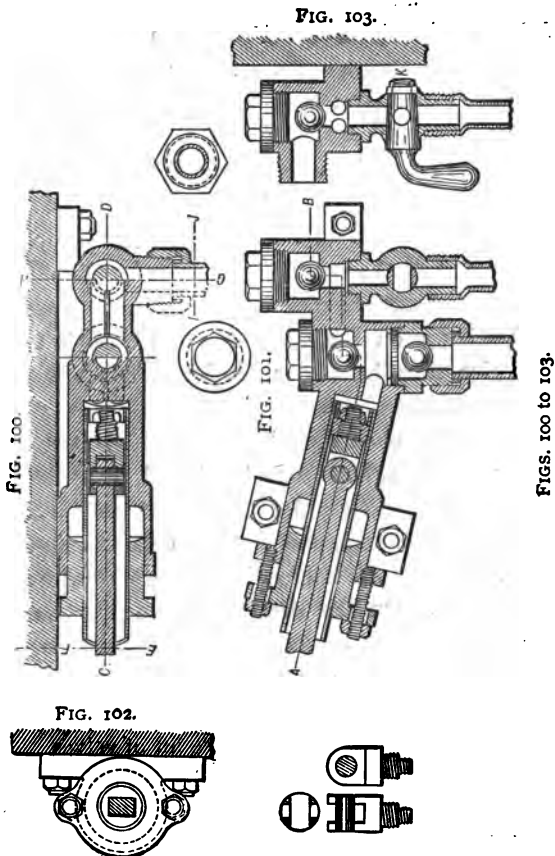
103 ; it may be made in gun-metal. It is on the trunk principle, this form throwing much less friction on the gland than that with a solid plunger with the eccentric-rod fixed to the outer end. It is of extra large dimensions, in order to allow the engine to be worked from a boiler of good size, besides which, it is very unpleasant to be working an engine the pump of which is barely able to keep up the supply of water ; and there is also another reason, viz., that very small pumps often refuse to act. A good model boiler is often spoiled through inability to keep up the water level.

If it is desired, a return pipe and tap can be screwed into pump between first and second delivery valves, as shown in Figs. This arrangement allows the pump to be always pumping water, which, when not being sent into the boiler, can be returned to tank ; and thus preventing valves getting stuck on their seats, and ensuring the water going into boiler immediately it is turned on. The amount of feed can also be regulated by it better than by shutting off the tap on suction pipe, as if this latter is done, the pump, owing to its not being filled properly at each stroke, will hammer very much. The barrel of the pump may be cored out in the casting, but it will be better to have the clack-boxes cast solid and bore them out afterwards.

The plunger of this pump is made of a piece of  $\frac{3}{8}$ -in. triblet brass tube  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in. long, into one end of which a disc of brass,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. thick, is silver soldered. In the centre of this, a  $\frac{1}{16}$ -in. hole is drilled and tapped. Into this is to be screwed a joint for eccentric-rod of the shape and size figured on sectional drawings, page 109. A lock nut will be required on end of screw to prevent joint working loose. The pump will require three  $\frac{1}{8}$ -in. studs to hold it to bed-plate : one in each foot on sides of stuffing-box and one under clack-box, as shown.

The barrel of pump is bored out to  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. diameter to

within  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. of bottom, the stuffing-box being afterwards enlarged to  $\frac{5}{8}$  in. diameter and  $\frac{9}{16}$  in. deep, the gland being  $\frac{5}{8}$  in. long, diameter,  $\frac{5}{8}$  in. bore, thickness of flange,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in.,



Horizontal, Vertical and Cross Sections, and details of Force Pump for Tank Engine.

length,  $1\frac{1}{8}$  in., width,  $\frac{1}{8}$  in., and of shape shown in Fig. 102. The outside diameter of pump barrel is  $\frac{5}{8}$  in., and that of stuffing-box,  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. full, and length  $\frac{5}{8}$  in. Flange for fixing to

bed, measures, from end to end,  $1\frac{5}{8}$  in., and width  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. The centre line of pump is to be  $\frac{1}{8}\frac{1}{2}$  in. from face of bed, and the face of flange consequently this distance from centre. Thickness of flange,  $\frac{5}{8}$  in., and flange under clack-box the same; length of flange being  $\frac{1}{2}$  in., and depth,  $\frac{5}{8}$  in. The length of pump barrel from commencement of curve in stuffing-box to upper side of first clack-box is  $1\frac{1}{8}$  in. The diameter of both clack-boxes is  $\frac{9}{16}$  in., the length of first one being  $\frac{3}{4}$  in., and the second one  $1\frac{1}{8}$  in., and the top raised  $\frac{5}{16}$  in. above the first one, the two being connected by a square piece  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. wide and  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. deep. This piece is in one casting with pump, and serves as a passage for the water.

The construction and dimensions of the valves and seatings is so clearly shown on the scale drawings that it is not necessary to give sizes here, so a few hints as to how to set about making it will be given.

The box next barrel is first carefully centred at top and bottom, and a full  $\frac{3}{8}$ -in. hole is to be drilled right through. A large hole of the diameter and depth figured on drawing is then drilled into each end, thus leaving a flat disc in about centre of box. These holes will require to be tapped with a fine thread to size given. On this disc the first delivery-valve is seated. The  $\frac{3}{16}$ -in. hole in central disc will require to be very carefully smoothed on the upper edge to form a seating for valve. The two caps on top of clack-boxes are as shown, with central pieces projecting inside to regulate lift of valves.

The exact length of these pieces can be determined when valves are in, and should be such as to allow valves to lift not more than  $\frac{1}{16}$  in. bare. The suction-valve is prevented from rising too much by a piece of  $\frac{1}{16}$ -in. brass wire passed through two holes in top of valve-seating piece before it is screwed into clack-box. Construction is shown in details.

The passage from first to second delivery-valves can be

made by drilling two holes fully  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. diameter through the piece joining the two clack-boxes. They can be drilled from near the top of the first clack-box slightly slanting downwards to the bottom of second box, that is, within  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. of the bottom. The second box is then to be centred top and bottom, and a  $\frac{3}{16}$ -in. hole drilled right through, if it is desired to put a return pipe to pump; if not, to within  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. of bottom. This hole must have full communication with the two holes from first box. The top of box is bored out and tapped same as previously described, and a cap fitted to it. The valve-seat is also treated the same.

To connect the delivery-pipe union there is a  $\frac{3}{8}$ -in. piece cast on the second clack-box close to the top, as shown; this piece has a  $\frac{3}{8}$ -in. thread on it to take the union, and has a  $\frac{1}{8}$ -in. hole through it into box. The thread for suction-pipe union is  $\frac{1}{8}$ -in. diameter.

The bore of suction-pipe of pump is  $\frac{1}{2}$  in., and delivery-pipe  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. Pipes have collars on end to keep unions on. The connection of pump suction-pipe with tank is made with a union and screw piece, same as to pump, but, of course, without a valve in it. The tap is shown on elevation of tank engine, page 73.

The return tap of pump may be connected to tank by an indiarubber tube stretched over tap, and the tube should be wrapped with wire to secure it to the tap.

Valves are the most likely parts of these pumps to give trouble. The mitre seating cone valves, as shown at Fig. 99, are often considered easier to make than the ball valves illustrated in connection with the pumps for the Launch Engine and Tank Engine previously described. It is not difficult to substitute the one for the other, but balls are the better form, and the method of making these, described on page 106, is really not difficult.

## CHAPTER X.

### *ERECTING A MODEL.*

**W**HEN all the parts of an engine are made, we can proceed to the pleasantest part of the work, that is, erecting—the technical term for putting together. If the preceding chapters have been read carefully, there will be very little trouble in putting together the Tank Engine described in Chapters VII. and VIII., as the dimensions and drawings were taken from an engine already constructed and working most satisfactorily. All the bright parts must first be polished. The zinc plate is first fitted to the bed, and then the cylinder can be dealt with. The front cover must have a thin layer of red lead spread over the part that fits against cylinder; after which it is bolted to cylinder as firmly as possible, all the lead that squeezes out from between the joint being wiped off, as also any that may chance to have got into the cylinder. The piston and rod—minus the rings and back—are then put in, and the rings sprung into the cylinder, the cuts being at opposite sides. The piston is then pushed up into the rings, and the disc put on and bolted down to it, leaving the rings just free to expand. The back cover of cylinder is then treated with red lead, the same as the front one; but after being forced down as tightly as possible it is taken off again to see that no red lead has got into the cylinder, after which it can be bolted down permanently. The gland on cylinder cover is now to be packed, by wrapping a cord of about eight strands of lamp cotton several times round piston-rod and gradually forcing it into the stuffing-

box; and after oiling it, the gland should be tightly bolted down, care being taken that it bears equally on the piston-rod all round. The cross-head is now put on the piston-rod and fixed by the cross key. If all the flange joints are faced up absolutely true, all that will be necessary to make them steam-tight will be to rub them with a little boiled oil before putting together. This, of course, is the best joint, but where it cannot be made, a thin layer of red lead, or disc of brown paper soaked in oil will do. It must not be forgotten to make a hole through the paper to let the steam pass where necessary.

The valve-chest is now to be bolted to the cylinder, the flanges being packed with red lead, and then the cylinder can be bolted to the bed-plate. Two holes will be required in the zinc cover of the tank for the ends of the blow-off cocks—which are already fixed in their places—to project through.

The blow-off cocks are of the shape shown in Figs. 79 and 80, which illustrate sections of the cylinder. It will be seen that one handle opens both cocks at the same time, the plugs of both cocks being connected. The plug of cock in front of cylinder has a rod left on it, as shown, which has a square socket made in the end of it, into which the squared end of the second plug fits. In screwing the taps into the cylinder, the one next to the front has to be put in first, after which screw in the shell of the second one; then put in the plug, first placing the nut and washer in their place on the rod between shell and socket. The nut can be screwed up as the plug comes through shell, while, at the same time, the square on end of plug will slide into the socket. When the cocks are full open, the handle that works them will have to be at an angle of 45° from the vertical, so as to allow of the necessary motion for shutting off. The cylinder lubricator is shown both in Figs. 79 and 80. The lagging for cylinder



is best prepared now that it is not liable to get damaged in putting together.

The cylinder is held down by two  $\frac{3}{16}$ -in. studs and nuts on the outside; but the two studs under valve-chest, instead of having nuts on them, are  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. diameter, and have washers and taper pins through them, these being easier to fix than nuts would be in this position, though they are just as effective. Great care must be taken to get cylinder exactly in line with the bed, though it would be difficult to do otherwise if the previous instructions have been followed. The exhaust-pipe connecting elbow will have to be fixed to cylinder before it is bolted down, the joint being made with red lead or brown paper and oil. The lower guide bars and supports are now to be fixed down, and then the small end of connecting-rod and the cross-head, with the cross-head pin through them, are put in their place between the guide blocks, and then the distance pieces and top guide bars are bolted down. The plummer-blocks being bolted down, the crank-shaft in its place, and the caps on, the big end of connecting-rod can be fixed on the crank-pin. The fly wheel may now be fixed, when it can be seen whether the piston, guide blocks, &c., work properly.

At this stage of the work it is necessary to know something

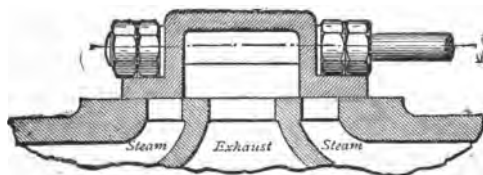


FIG. 104.

Steam-ways in Cylinder.

of the action of the slide-valve, illustrated at Figs. 104, 105 and 106. The following points should be re-

membered :—

Lead is the amount of opening which a valve has when the engine is on the centre.

A slide-valve is said to have no lap when the valve will just span the exhaust port and bridges, and the faces just equal the ports in width ; when the valve does not bridge the ports it has negative lap (see Fig. 105).

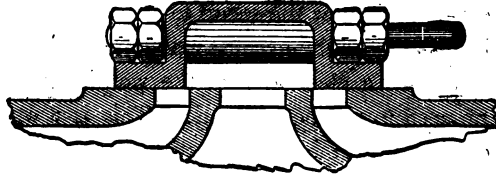


FIG. 105.  
Negative lap in Cylinder.

When a slide-valve has neither lap nor lead the eccentric is set at an angle of  $90^\circ$  with the crank on the side toward which the engine is to run, Moving the eccentric forward makes the action of the valve earlier with reference to the crank at all its points.

Moving the eccentric backward makes the action of the valve later with reference to the crank at all its points.

When the face of the valve exceeds the ports in width, the amount which it projects over the edges of the port when in its central position is termed lap. The projection of the outside edge over the port—that is, the edge at which the opening for admission takes place—is called the outside or

steam lap ; the projection on the inside or exhaust side of the face is called the inside or exhaust lap (see Fig 106).

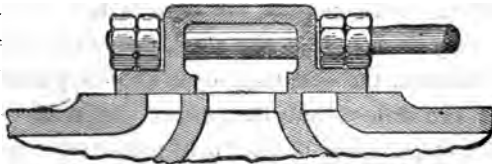


FIG. 106.  
Exhaust lap in Cylinder.

When outside lap is added, the eccentric must be set enough further ahead of the crank to take up the lap, so that the valve may be all ready to open when the engine is upon the centre. Usually a little lead is also given in order that

the steam may get in and the port be opening as the piston advances. The effect of outside lap is to close the valve earlier and allow the steam to expand. The effect of inside lap is to close the exhaust earlier and introduce compression.

Having a clear idea of the working of the valve, we may proceed to set the eccentric. This is a work requiring great care, so most minute instructions are given how to do it. The slide-valve rod is first to be put in its place in the valve-box. The slide-valve being in the box, with a collar at each end, the rod passes through them. The bracket for valve levers, with the levers in their place, is next bolted down, and the small lever connected to the valve-rod cross-head. The eccentric and strap is next put on the crank-shaft and fixed there—the position does not matter at first—and the eccentric rod is connected to the long valve lever, the eccentric-rod being next the bed-plate, and parallel to it. The crank-shaft is now turned round till the wide side of eccentric is next the cylinder, and then the slide-valve is fixed on its rod in such a position that the back port is open  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. Now turn the shaft half round till the wide side of eccentric is furthest from cylinder, and note if the front port is also open  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. If both ports open exactly the same amount, the valve is in its right place on rod; if they do not open the same, the valve must be moved a little towards the one most open until they both open the same. The slide-valve is then securely fixed on its rod, after which the eccentric can be fixed in its proper position.

This is done as follows: Turn the crank on its near centre, the piston-rod will be thus into the cylinder as far as possible, then place the eccentric with its widest side down, then keep turning this side round *towards* the cylinder until a strip of writing paper can just be inserted between the valve and the back port. Now fix the eccentric tightly on the shaft by the set screw, then turn the shaft round till the crank is on the other

centre, that is, the piston-rod fully out, and note if the strip of paper can just be inserted into the front port. When so, the eccentric is in its proper position, and after working the pointed set screw about a little so as to make a decided mark in the shaft, a small hole should be drilled for the point of screw to go in, and so prevent eccentric shifting. This amount of opening of port before the commencement of the stroke is called the lead, and is for the purpose of checking the momentum of the moving parts, and thus preparing for the return stroke. It is absolutely essential to the silent and good working of all engines, but more particularly of those that run at a high speed.

If the setting of the valve on its rod is carefully done, the lead will be the same at both ends of the stroke. The collars for holding the valve in its place are provided with set screws, as shown on Fig. 81.

The feed-pump is bolted on bed in the position shown on drawing, the plunger being within  $\frac{1}{32}$  in. of bottom of barrel, when fully in. The axis of pump is parallel with that of eccentric-rod when in either extremity of its throw. The suction and delivery pipes are connected after pump is fixed. To connect eccentric-rod to pump plunger, it will have to be unbolted from eccentric strap and valve gear and the plunger taken out of pump. The small joint can then be connected to rod and screwed into plunger, the lock nut fixed, and the parts connected up again. The governor pedestal is bolted to bed-plate with four studs and nuts, as shown in Figs. 88 and 89.

The stop-cock and throttle-valve may next be fixed up to cylinder valve-box, the joint being made as described; and connection made between the governors and throttle-valve by the piece of  $\frac{3}{8}$ -in. steel wire and adjustable screwed joints. The pump and valve-box glands now require to be packed the same as described for cylinder glands. It will be as well to make the

joint of valve-box cover with brown paper, as the cover may require to be taken off, and a red lead joint has to be re-made each time it is broken, while a brown paper one does not. The throttle-valve connecting-rod to governors will require to be cranked out a little to meet the crank on valve-spindle (see plan of engine on page 72). The exact length of this rod can only be determined when the engine is under steam. It can be lengthened or shortened by unscrewing or screwing up one of the joints according to the speed at which it is desired the engine should run. Lengthening the rod will cause the engine to run quicker, that is, within certain limits. The driving pulley, and that for the governor, are next to be put on, and the lubricators screwed in (these latter are shown in position on Figs. 71 and 72). The last thing to be done before painting is to lag the cylinder. The lagging may be made of mahogany or rosewood, cut into strips  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. wide and  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. thick. These are got up to as smooth a surface as possible and *oiled*: French polish will not do, as the heat causes it to blister. The engine is now ready for painting—the colour may be according to choice. The parts to be painted are the fly-wheel and driving-pulley spokes, all the bed-plate, with the exception of the tops of the lugs, the body of the pump, recesses in valve-box cover, body of valve-box, guide bars, governor stand, plumber-blocks, etc.; in fact, everything, except those parts which have been got up bright with the file or have been turned.

Before painting, the castings should be trimmed up smooth and well-cleaned by brushing; a coat of lead colour should then be applied. When this is thoroughly dry it should be smoothed with glass-paper, and again painted. These processes may be repeated again before the final coat of colour is applied.

A boiler that would best suit this engine should work safely

at 50 lbs or 60 lbs. pressure, and is beyond the power of most amateurs to make. It ought to be vertical, from 20 in. to 24 in. high and 9 in. to 12 in. in diameter, and about 24 tubes  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. diameter through. A boiler this size will make enough steam for all purposes, but if it is only desired to work the engine as a model, a very much less one will do, say about 6 in. diameter by 12 in. high, to burn charcoal as fuel.

## CHAPTER XI.

### *MODEL BOILERS.*

**A** FEW words on model boilers and their construction will now be advisable. They have been mentioned several times incidentally in the preceding chapters, but, with the exception of the small tin boiler for the oscillating engine described in Chapter III., particulars of their construction have been omitted. It is not an easy task making a steam boiler, and in most cases it will be found cheapest in the end to purchase ready made.

The materials most generally used are brass and copper; sometimes iron, or, what amounts to the same thing, tin-plate, is employed. Brass or copper, from the ease with which they can be manipulated, are the best for a beginner to work on.

Brass can be bought in the form of tube of sufficient size for small models, and strong enough to stand the steam pressure. The edges of the bought tube are brazed together, and thus the joint is made nearly as strong as the other part. The tube is afterwards drawn, and except from a slight discolouration, the joint is not noticeable.

Brass tube, from two inches to six inches in diameter, cut in lengths suited for boilers, is sold by most of the model engineers. The price of the tube ranges from about 2s. per foot for the small to about 10s. per foot for the large size; the short length necessary for a boiler being charged at about the same proportion. This is merely for the tubular body part of the boiler, and it may be placed vertically or horizontally as required.

The ends or flanges which have to be fitted on are extra pieces. Sometimes a plain disc of metal is fixed by soldering with pewter, but this plan should be strenuously avoided. The ends should at least be brazed on. It is best also to use discs with a rim round them to fit outside the boiler shell. This gives a much stronger hold than is possible with a plain disc of sheet metal.

Castings used for the boiler ends must be quite free from any flaws, as the weak part will be apt to give way under the steam pressure. It is often advisable to use castings, which may be made of a shape exactly suited to certain requirements. An inverted cup-shaped casting for the lower end of a vertical boiler gives a good heating surface. A flue for the chimney must be put in it, and this goes up to the top end of the boiler, which may appropriately be dome-shaped.

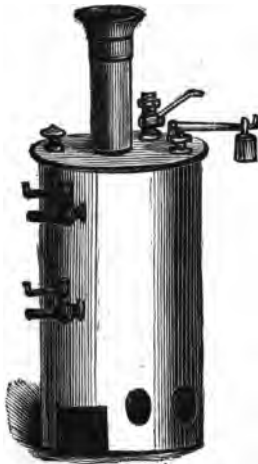


FIG. 107.  
Vertical Boiler.



FIG. 108.  
Vertical Boiler.

Two vertical boilers of the ordinary type sold at the shops are shown at Figs. 107 and 108.



The flue and both ends of the boiler should be brazed in their places, not soft-soldered. Some prefer to use silver solder for such purposes, and this is an excellent material. When the joints are made to fit properly, as they should do before soldering, only very little solder is required to unite the parts. Borax is used as the flux, both for the alloy employed in brazing and for silver solder. The heat required to flow these properly may be got from an ordinary gas jet, with the burner or nipple removed, using a common blowpipe to urge the flame.

A horizontal boiler is frequently only a plain tube, with ends soldered in, and supported on legs to raise it sufficiently to allow a lamp to be put underneath. The heat applied in this manner does not take effect as it should. The flame is deflected from the surface of the boiler, and, moreover, any breath of wind stirring will blow the flame aside. A plain saddle-shaped boiler is much better; in this form the heating surface is large, and the heat from the furnace is applied to it direct, and cannot well be deflected.

Flues or tubes are very desirable in any form of boiler, and one or the other should be used. The plain straight chimney put through the boiler is the most simple form of flue. If this is of spiral form, like a corkscrew, the effect is infinitely increased, because the heat, instead of ascending straight up through the vertical tube, is met at every turn with a fresh surface of metal. In winding its way through a spiral flue, the heat is absorbed in a way quite unattainable when a straight tube is used. Several small flues are of course better than one large one of the same area. By increasing the number of flues the cost of making a boiler is also increased, and it is to save expense that large flues are used.

Boilers for locomotives, which are required to make steam very fast, have an immense number of flues running through

them. The space between the flues, which is occupied by the water, is often very small, and in fact the flues are put as closely together as possible. As the heat rushes through them it is absorbed by the water in contact with the flues, and turns it into steam. The greater the heating surface the more readily is the steam generated.

A boiler suited to the engine shown at Fig. 3, on page 12 is described below by a coppersmith.

Fig. 109 shows boiler quarter-size. It will be seen that

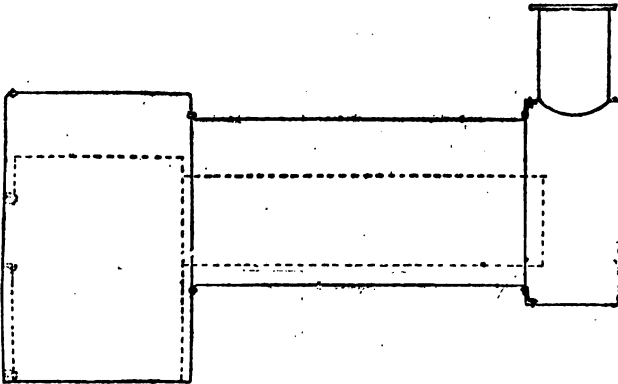


FIG. 109.  
Horizontal Boiler.

only one large flue passes from fire-box to smoke-box, instead of a number of small ones. It has been found that for small models, intended to burn charcoal, one large flue gives good results and is much easier to make than one having a number of smaller flues.

The first thing will be to get some sheet copper; those who do not possess the skill to do it themselves may have the boiler brazed together. Others who have not the conveniences for brazing may prefer riveting, but it will be found to take very much longer time. In either case it requires care: in brazing

to avoid burning the copper, and on the other hand to keep from bruising the boiler in the process of riveting.

To make that part of boiler that contains fire-box, cut two pieces of the copper  $6\frac{1}{4}$  in. by  $4\frac{1}{2}$  in. ; this will leave  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. to flange over for riveting. The other plates must be cut as Fig. 110. The oval hole is the fire-hole. The round hole is where the body of boiler fits on. To flange both plates, we require some tinplate workers' tools, but in the absence of these we must get a piece of round iron, 2-in. diam., and square up one end ; fix this in vice after having carefully marked the plate all round  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. from edge, lay it on the iron, and, with a hammer, bring the edge over square. It will be better to cut out fire-hole, &c., after the edge is turned over. Now we want another piece 4 in. wide to rivet ends to, and to get the length measure round the edge of one of the plates with a piece of string. This plate must be bent in shape of a U, Fig. 110, and riveted to the two plates. To do this we

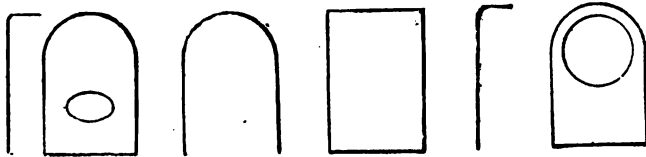


FIG. 110.

Fire-Box and Ends of Boiler.

shall want a riveting stake made round at the end, and some copper rivets  $\frac{1}{8}$  thick ; they can be made from copper wire, or purchased at the ironmonger's.

It will be best to drill the holes for rivets. Put one at the top and one on each side, near bottom corner ; space the holes with a pair of compasses—they may be  $\frac{3}{8}$  in. apart ; rivet with a small hammer, and, for appearance sake, finish with a snap. This tool is made by drilling a conical hole in the end of a piece of steel. To use it, give the rivets a few blows

with a hammer, then place on the punch, and strike the end with the hammer until you have a nice conical rivet head. The body of boiler is 7 in. long, and flanged at both ends. The copper must be cut off  $7\frac{1}{2}$  in. by 11 in., and bent round, the seam either brazed or riveted, and the flanges at the ends brought out. One end is riveted to the fire-box part, the other carries the tube-plate at smoke-box end. In riveting these parts together, the holes may be counter-sunk on the outside, and the punch or snap dispensed with, as the lagging will cover these rivets. The tube-plate at the end of boiler must be thicker than the rest, and the hole for tube bored out, so that the tube can be nicely driven in. This plate is also flanged to take the smoke-box, which is 2 in. wide by  $4\frac{1}{4}$  in.; one end is flanged inwards to form a ledge for fire door. The chimney bottom may be made either from sheet copper or cast brass. The fire-box must be made in the same manner as the boiler, and riveted; one side that the tube fits in must have  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. space left all round for water. A ring is put round the fire-hole, and riveted through. The same with the bottom, only this will want to be square, and made to fit well between boiler and fire-box. The whole is riveted all round. Before putting in the fire-box the hole for tube must be made. It should be screwed with a fine thread, and tube made to fit before putting it together. When all is riveted the joints may be smelted with soft solder, which will make it steam tight.

The sheet copper used for this boiler should be 12 and 16 gauge on the Birmingham plate.

Tubes are often put across the fire-grate; they are then called cross tubes. Two, placed one above the other and crossing each other, will give a large amount of heating surface. By adding this simple contrivance to a vertical boiler with a straight flue it may be made to give off much

more steam. One or two cross tubes generally suffice to convert a useless boiler—that is, one that will not generate enough steam—into an effective one.

The fuel used to heat very small boilers is generally spirits of wine. This is put in a suitable receptacle, and burnt through a cotton wick. Several wicks are used in large boilers, and they are placed to heat the largest surface available. Spirit-lamps are a source of danger if proper precautions are not taken. Unless there is a free outlet for the air within the lamp, it will be expanded by the heat, and cause the spirit to rise too quickly in the wick. Sometimes it will overflow, and then it burns wherever it may be. Care must therefore be exercised in using spirit fuel. In model boats it occasionally happens that the spirit overflows, and the boat is all ablaze. An iron tea-tray, or some such utensil, should be used to stand the boiler on when the furnace is to be lighted.

Charcoal is a better fuel when there is sufficient space in the fire-box to contain a supply. The waste steam from the cylinder must always be conveyed to the chimney, and escape up it to make a draft through the fire. Without this it cannot be made to burn sufficiently fierce for the purpose. A charcoal fire will act very well with a little attention, and except for the smallest engines it is always preferable to methylated spirit.

As it is not possible to give any adequate instructions on boiler-making in the limited space at my disposal, the above hints are chiefly intended for the guidance of purchasers.

A safety-valve should always be fitted to a steam boiler. One of the spring valves has been illustrated in the chapter treating of the small oscillating engine. The lever safety-valve is more certain in its action, especially in model work, and is better adapted for stationary purposes. A weighted lever is of no use to a locomotive or marine boiler, as the

motion of travelling would disarrange the gear. The safety-valve of every engine should be tested frequently, to make sure that it does not stick in its place and that all works perfectly free.

A glass gauge, by which the height of water may be seen at a glance, is frequently attached to boilers having any pretension to high-class workmanship. There is a good deal of work in a properly made gauge, and the cost is correspondingly high. Two or three stop-cocks are required in a gauge, and these involve good workmanship, or they will not stand the pressure. Leaky taps are a sign of inferior work.

Gauge-cocks are sometimes used instead of the water-gauge just mentioned. These are plain taps with straight noses. Two are wanted on a boiler; they are screwed in, one at high water and the other at low water level. By turning on these taps it is easy to see whether the water is within these limits, but the precise height cannot be ascertained. The gauge-glass is therefore much preferable.

Whistles are fitted to boilers only as ornaments. They are quite useless; as signals, except such as can be given by word of mouth, are not required in working model engines. These attachments are made to sound by allowing the steam to act as the breath does in common whistles.

A chapter is devoted to force-pumps, used to force water into the boiler to make up for that converted into steam, and conveyed through the cylinder. These pumps are actuated by an eccentric on the crank-shaft, and at every revolution of the crank, throw a small quantity of water into the boiler. When we consider how much water is evaporated to make the quantity of steam used for each revolution of the cylinder, we may arrive at an idea of the work required of a force pump. Practically the water to be injected at each stroke is too small to be dealt with, unless a large cylinder has to be supplied.

The only way to work a force-pump for a model satisfactorily is by gearing, so that a stroke of the plunger is performed about once to each hundred revolutions of the crank.

A better plan for feeding small boilers is by hand. The force pump is attached to the boiler in the usual way, but not connected to the engine. The plunger is worked by a hand-lever, and when it is seen that water is wanted in the boiler, a few strokes of the lever will suffice.

Governors are used to control the speed of the engine. Without any such contrivance the engine runs at a speed corresponding to the work it has to do. The heavier the load the slower the speed, and immediately that the load is decreased the speed increases. A governor consists of a pair of balls, which are attached to arms pivoted to an axis revolved by the engine. The faster the speed the greater is the centrifugal force of the balls, and by connecting these with a valve, called a throttle-valve, in the steam-pipe, the supply of steam is reduced as the speed increases. By this means a uniform rate of speed is attained, irrespective of the steam pressure or the duty demanded of the engine.

## CHAPTER XII.

### MISCELLANEOUS ITEMS

**I**N this chapter we have space for some brief notes on those processes incidental to the work already described, which have been mentioned but not explained in previous chapters.

*Drills and Drilling.*—Small drills, those under  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. diameter are generally made by filing the round steel wire slightly tapering and then spreading the small end with a single blow from a tolerably heavy hammer. Using a light hammer, and spreading by a series of gentle taps, will effectually spoil the steel. There is no occasion to anneal the steel for hammering, providing it is moderately soft. For all drills up to one-eighth of an inch diameter, the steel should not be forged, as the bulk of the metal is too small to heat any predetermined temperature with any degree of certainty. Very small drills can be made from good sewing-needles, which are of convenient form to be readily converted into a drill. Firstly, the needle must be made sufficiently soft for working by heating till it assumes a deep blue colour. The extreme end may be made quite soft, and filed slightly tapering to a trifle less than the size of the hole to be drilled. The point is now spread out by a sharp blow of a hammer—not by a series of gentle taps, which would cause the metal to crack—and filed up to shape. The thickness of the drill across the flattened part should be about a third the diametrical measurement. Finish up the end on a strip of Arkansas stone a file being too coarse for such small work.



Drills should have their cutting ends shaped so that the cutting edges form an angle of from  $90^{\circ}$  to  $120^{\circ}$ . The blade of a drill about  $\frac{1}{4}$  in. diameter should be about one-fifth of its diameter at that part where it is widest, and the point should be thinner down to about one-eighth. The thinner the point the easier will the drill enter.

It is the great difficulty of getting such a very small piece of steel to an exact predetermined degree of temperature—hot enough to harden, but not so hot that it is burned—which makes the manufacture of these small tools uncertain; and this is abundantly proved by the fact that of half-a-dozen drills made from the same wire, thereby assuring uniformity of quality in the material, it often happens that some are exceedingly good and others of no use whatever, the difference being caused by the manipulation during hardening. This does not apply to drills or other steel things which are of sufficient size to show, by the colour of their surface, how hot they are; but it is the tiny pieces that are difficult to manage, which, by the contact with the flame, are immediately rendered white hot.

By heating the drill and plunging it into the body of a tallow candle, the hardening will be effected, but the steel will not be rendered so hard that it crumbles away under pressure in use. Thus, in one operation, the drill will be hardened and tempered. Instead of tallow, white wax, sealing wax, and such like materials, are adapted to the purpose. There is another method which finds favour with some: it is to envelop the thin point of the drill in a metal casing, and so get a bulk of metal which can be heated to a nicety, the drill inside being, of course, raised to the same temperature as the surrounding metal. The whole is then plunged into oil or water. Still there is the difficulty of tempering to overcome, though the danger of burning is avoided; burnt steel is of no use for tools. The best plan is to exercise the greatest possible care

not to over-heat the drill, and harden and temper in one operation by plunging into tallow

*Filing*.—This is an art not to be learned without considerable practice. The file must be used with long, slow and steady strokes, taken right from point to tang, moderate pressure being brought to bear during the forward stroke. The file must be relieved of all pressure during the return stroke, otherwise the teeth will be liable to be broken off, just in the same manner that the point of a turning tool would be broken if the lathe were turned the wrong way. It is not necessary to lift the file altogether off the work, but it should only have its bare weight pressing during the back stroke. One of the chief difficulties in filing flat is that the arms have a tendency to move in arcs from the joints, but this will be conquered by practice. Work which has been filed up properly will present a flat, even surface, with the file marks running in straight parallel lines. Each stroke of the file will have been made to obtain a like end, but work which has been done by a careless or an inexperienced workman will often bear evidence that each stroke of the file was made without regard to any others, and the surface will be made up of a number of facets, varying in size, shape and position. Those who have never received any practical instruction in the use of files, generally have a bad habit of pressing heavily on the tool, during both forward and backward stroke, and, at the same time, work far too quickly. These habits, combined, will almost invariably spoil whatever is operated on, producing surfaces more or less rounding, but never flat.

The position of the vice at which we are to operate is a most important point to be decided before commencing our filing proper. The vice should be fixed at the correct height, and so that the work held in the jaws will lie level. As to what is really the correct height, some slight difference of

opinion exists. This is, probably, owing to the fact that the height of people varies. For filing general work, the top of the vice jaws should be placed so as to be level with the elbow of the workman, which will be found to range from 40in. to 44in. from the floor; therefore 42in. may be considered as an average height best suited for all heights of workmen, when the vice is to be permanently fixed.

If the work to be filed is small and delicate, requiring simply a movement of the arms, or right hand and arm alone, the vice should be higher, not only in order that the workman may more closely scrutinise the work, but that he may be able to stand more erect. If the work to be filed is heavy and massive, requiring great muscular effort, its surface should be below the elbow-joint, as the operator stands further from his work, with his feet separated from 10in. to 30in., and his knees somewhat bent, thus lowering his stature; besides, in this class of work it is desirable to throw the weight of the body upon the file, to make it penetrate, and thus, with a comparative fixedness of the arms, depend largely upon the momentum of the body to drive the file.

Thus, in fixing the height of the vice, the nature of the work and the stature of the operator should be considered. Having the vice fixed properly, the correct position to assume, when filing, is the next consideration. The left foot should be about 6in. to left and 6in. to front of the vice leg; the right foot being about 30in. to front, that is to say, 30in. away from the board in a straight line with the vice post. This position gives command over the work, or, rather, over the tool, and is at once characteristic of a good vice-man. The file must be grasped firmly in the right hand, by the handle.

The operation of filing an iron casting just home from the foundry would be preceded by thoroughly brushing the casting with a hard brush, so as to remove all the loose sand.

Then take an old file and file away steadily at the skin till you come to a surface of pure metal. Having by then removed those parts which spoil files, the old file, with which but slow progress is made, can be changed for a better one. The best, as well as the most economical, will be one which has been used for filing brass till it has become too much blunted for that material. Such a file is in first-class condition for working on cast iron after its sandy skin has been removed, and when worn out on that, it will serve first-rate for steel.

When the object is to remove a mass of metal, the file requires to be as large as can be conveniently handled upon the work. For machinists' use this need not, for the largest work, exceed a 20-in. file, which, to make it bite well and take a fair cut, will require all the power a man can exert continuously. The cut of the file should be, for roughing wrought iron, a bastard cut; for steel, a second cut; and for brass, a rough cut.

To obtain the greatest amount of duty, the file, if a large one, requires applying on the forward stroke with all the power the operator can put on it; while, if a small one, with as much power as can be without danger of breaking the file. The end of the file-handle should rest against the palm of the hand, so that the file is pushed, and not dragged. The left hand must just hold the point of the file lightly, so as to guide it, and, when taking the forward cut, a fairly heavy pressure must be applied, proportionate to the size of the file in use and the work being done.

On the forward stroke, the front foot should be almost entirely relieved of the operator's weight, which will fall on the file; while on the back stroke, the front foot should take most of the weight, so that the file may be relieved. The file strokes should not all be made parallel one to another, but first at one angle and then at another, so that the file marks will cross

and recross each other, which enables the tool to cut easier. The speed of the file may be as quick as it can be pushed, providing the file is pressed to the work with all the weight possible, or if a small one, with all its strength will stand.

When it is necessary to file up a small surface—say 2 in. or 3 in. square—the file must be applied in continually changing directions, not always at right angles to chops of the vice. In that case, though the work might be made perfectly straight in that direction, yet there would not be any means of assuring a like result on the part lying parallel to the jaws. When the surface is fairly flat, the file should be applied diagonally both ways; thus any hollow or high places, otherwise unobservable, will be at once seen, without the aid of straight edges. This method of crossing the file cuts from corner to corner is recommended in all cases.

The file should invariably travel right across the work, using the whole length of the file, not only an inch or so as is often the case. When in use the file must be held quite firmly, yet not so rigid that the operator cannot feel the work as it progresses. The sense of touch is brought into use to a far greater extent than the inexperienced would imagine, and a firm grasp of the tool, at the same time preserving a light touch to feel the work, is an essential qualification for a good filer.

For filing to shape, a smaller file must be used, so that even while removing the mass of the metal, the shape of the work can be readily observed by a slight lateral motion of the file, without entirely removing it from the work, or without stopping the file strokes. In filing to fit lies the greatest art of filing, for in this it is necessary that the file be of true outline, and to be so applied that it touches the work at the required spot only.

*Hardening and Tempering Steel.*—If we heat a piece of

cast steel to redness and plunge it into clean cold water until its temperature is reduced to that of the water, the result will be that the steel will be hardened. The degree of the hardness will depend upon the quality of the steel, the temperature to which it was heated, and to a small degree upon the temperature of the water in which it was cooled. In any event the operation will be termed "hardening." If we reheat the steel, a softening process will accompany the increasing temperature, until upon becoming again red-hot it will assume its normal softness, and if allowed to cool in the atmosphere the effects of the first hardening will be entirely removed.

The soft steels, approaching more in their nature to wrought iron, are exceedingly difficult to harden and temper to a uniform degree, because of the difficulty experienced in producing them of uniform grade. Many kinds of these steels are made of so low a grade as to make it difficult to determine the line of demarcation separating them from wrought iron.

As a rule, the steel that shows a fracture of fine dull grain, the face of the fracture being comparatively level, is of better quality than that showing a coarse or granulated surface: brightness denoting hardness, and fibrousness toughness.

The higher the grade of steel, the lower the temperature at which it will harden, and the harder it will be if cooled in water from a given temperature.

The part of the tool required to be hardened must be heated through, and heated evenly, but must on no account be overheated. The tool must be finished by sudden cooling, and if this does not give to the steel a fine grain and silky texture—if, after the cooling, were it broken in the hardened part, the fracture should show a coarse grain and dull colour, instead of a fine grain and glossy lustre—the tool is spoiled. The special dangers to be avoided in hardening each kind of tool must be learned by experience. Some tools

will warp if they are not plunged into the water in a certain way.

A piece of hardened steel heated slightly, and allowed to cool again, becomes tempered. It suddenly changes from brittle glass to supple whalebone, and in the process of changing its nature, fortunately it changes colour, so that the workman can judge by the hue of the colour the extent of the elasticity which it has acquired, and can give to each tool the particular degree of temper which is most adapted to its special purpose. After the steel is hardened, if we polish one of its surfaces and slowly reheat it, that surface will assume various tints, beginning with a pale yellow and ending in a blue with a green tinge, each colour appearing as the steel attains a definite temperature; by the appearance of the colours we are informed of the temperature of the steel, or in other words, how far, or to what extent the resoftening has progressed.

The various colours which tempered steel successively passes are as follows: straw, gold, chocolate, purple, violet and blue. Of course, in passing from one colour to another, the steel passes through the intermediate tints. It really passes through an infinite series of colours, of which the six above mentioned are arbitrarily selected as convenient stages. The elasticity of tempered steel is acquired at the expense of its hardness. It is supposed that the maximum of hardness and elasticity combined is obtained by tempering down to a straw colour.

In tempering steel, regard must be had to the quality most essential in the special tool to be tempered. A turning tool may be required to be very hard, and is often taken out of the water hot enough to temper itself down to a degree so slight that no colour is perceptible, whilst a spring is required to be very elastic, and may be tempered down to a blue.

*Lacquering.*—Properly-lacquered brass work will retain its

colour, and resist the action of the atmosphere for a long time, hence the practice of always lacquering work which should retain a good appearance. The process is rather difficult to execute on large surfaces, where the tyro will find the lacquer continually getting a smeary look.

The process is only to preserve the bright surface of the metal by coating it with a layer of varnish. The colour of this varnish may be modified to suit the work to which it has to be applied. Lacquer contains either seed-lac or shell-lac, hence its name. Seed-lac is the gum in its original form, and when it has been purified and prepared by moulding into thin sheets it is called shell-lac. This material may be bleached so as to become almost colourless ; but in that condition it is not so strong or effective for lacquering purposes. With regard to applying the lacquer, it should be understood that much depends on the condition of the work. Perfect cleanliness and a tolerable polish are necessary to insure a successful application of the lacquer. The work must be heated to about the temperature of boiling water before lacquering, and this must be laid on evenly with a camel-hair brush.

With regard to the lacquer itself, a good pale gold lacquer is made by dissolving 5oz. of seed-lac in half a gallon of methylated spirits, and then adding a small quantity—less than half an ounce—of red sanders : yellow is made by mixing turmeric with lac varnish ; deep gold is made with dragon's blood and lac varnish ; red contains a larger proportion of dragon's blood. Lacquers suffer a chemical change through heat and light, and for this reason must be kept in a cool place, and away from the light. The brushes used should always be carefully washed out in methylated spirits, and be kept scrupulously clean.

Lacquering is done in two ways, called cold lacquering and hot lacquering. By the former, a little lacquer being taken on a common camel-hair brush is laid carefully and evenly over



the work, which is placed in an oven or on a hot stove; the heat from this continued only a minute or two is sufficient to set the lacquer, and the work is finished. Care must be taken not to have the work too hot so as to burn the lacquer, nor yet too cold, for in this case the lacquer will not be thoroughly set. By the second method, the work is heated first to about the temperature of boiling water, and the lacquer quickly brushed over it in this state, the work being afterwards placed in an oven for a minute or so. If very small, the article will require this, because it will have parted with most of its heat to the lacquer; if heavy, it will retain sufficient to perfect the process without being placed in the oven. The greatest difficulty is to know the exact degree of heat, and this knowledge is only attained by experience—so different is the nature of the materials, the quality of the different lacquers, and the effect to be produced. When work is newly lacquered the lacquer is soft, and the work ought to be exposed to a gentle heat for a short time to evaporate the alcohol and harden the lacquer. Small gas cooking-stoves are very suitable for this purpose, and it will be found that after newly lacquered work has been baked for a short time, any little unevenness in the laying on the lacquer will be much improved.

*Soldering and Brazing.*—In using ordinary “soft” or pewter solder for uniting surfaces that are already tinned—such as tinned iron plate and tinned copper—resin is the best and cheapest flux; but when surfaces of iron, brass, or copper, that have not been tinned are to be joined by soft solder, soldering fluid is by far the most convenient flux. Resin possesses this important advantage over soldering fluid, that it does not induce subsequent corrosion of the article to which it is applied. When acid fluxes have been applied to anything that is liable to rust, it is necessary to see that they are thoroughly washed off with clean warm water, and the articles

carefully and thoroughly dried. Oil and powdered resin mixed together make a good flux for tinned articles. The mixture can be applied with a small brush, or a swab tied to the end of a stick.

For soft solders, the best flux is a soldering fluid which may be prepared by saturating hydrochloric acid with zinc. The addition of a little salammoniac improves it. To prepare this, put  $\frac{1}{2}$  pint of muriatic acid (also called spirits of salts and hydrochloric acid) into a glass, and add small pieces of clean zinc, which will be dissolved by the acid. Let it stand for several hours, till the acid has ceased to act; then add a small quantity of water—say a wine-glass full—when ebullition will re-commence. Let it stand undisturbed for a few hours, and again add a small quantity of water. Continue this until the quantity of water added equals that of the acid ( $\frac{1}{2}$  pint). When all action has ceased, add 1 oz. of salammoniac; let it stand 12 hours, then decant the clear liquid into a bottle, which should be kept well fastened when not in use. Throw away the sediment. A solution of phosphoric acid in alcohol makes, it is said, an excellent soldering fluid, which has some advantages over chloride of zinc.

When uniting work of copper, iron, brass, etc., the solder generally used is a fusible brass, and the process is called brazing. The work to be soldered is prepared by filing or scraping perfectly clean the edges or parts to be united. The joints are then put into proper position and bound securely together with binding wire or clamps; the granulated spelter solder and powdered borax are mixed in a cup with a very little water and spread with a strip of sheet metal or a small spoon along the joint to be united. The work is then placed upon a clear fire and heated gradually to evaporate the water used with the solder and borax, and also to drive off the water contained in the crystallised borax, which causes it to boil up

with a frothy appearance. If the work is heated hastily the boiling of the borax may displace the solder, and for this reason it is better to roast the borax before mixing with the solder. When the borax ceases to boil the heat is then increased, and when the metal becomes a faint red the borax fuses like glass, and shortly after, as the heat of the metal is increased to a bright red, the solder also fuses, which is indicated by a small blue flame, from the burning of the zinc. Just at this time the work should be jarred slightly by being tapped lightly with the poker or hammer, to put the solder in vibration and cause it to run into the joint. For some work there is no necessity to tap it, for the solder is absorbed into the joint without.

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