

Fig. I.—Laxy Overshot Water Wheel, Isle of Man.

WATER POWER ENGINEERING

**THE THEORY, INVESTIGATION AND DEVELOPMENT
OF WATER POWERS.**

BY

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BY

DANIEL W. MEAD

PREFACE

In the development of a water power project the engineer is frequently called upon to do more than design and construct the power plant. He may be required to report on the adequacy of the supply, the head and power available and the probable variations in the same, the plan for development, the cost of construction and operation, and the advisability of the investment. A study of the entire project, therefore, becomes essential, and each factor must be carefully considered in detail to assure ultimate success. Each of the features of the development is of equal importance to the commercial success of the project. The majority of the failures in water power development have occurred from causes other than structural defects, and a knowledge of these other important and controlling factors is therefore quite as essential as a knowledge of design and construction. It must be said, however, that in respect to some of these controlling factors current practice has not been what it should be. This has resulted in many over-developments and ill-advised installations, from which the power generated has not been equal to that anticipated, and in many poor financial investments amounting frequently to practical failures. The engineer has given much attention to design and construction but too little attention to the other fundamental considerations mentioned above on which the success of the project depends to an equal extent.

In the preparation of this book the author has endeavored to consider, briefly at least, all fundamental principles and to point out the basis on which successful water power development depends. The method of study and investigation outlined herein was developed by the author during twenty-five years of professional practice and in his efforts to illustrate the principles underlying the subject in his lectures to the senior class in water power engineering at the University of Wisconsin. A somewhat extended acquaintance with the literature relating to water power engineering leads the author to believe that in a number of features the principles and methods described in this book are somewhat in advance of present practice.

In current practice, the hydraulic engineer, to determine the extent of a proposed hydraulic development, commonly depends on a study of the monthly averages of stream flow and of observed maximum and minimum flows. He usually assumes from his previous knowledge and study that the development should be based on a certain minimum or average stream discharge per square mile of drainage area. The value of this method depends on the breadth of the engineer's local knowledge of rainfall and run-off relations. With a sufficient knowledge of these conditions, this method may form a safe basis for water power development but it fails to give the complete information which is essential for a full comprehension of the subject. In other cases the development is predicted on a single, or on a very few, measurements of what is believed, or assumed to be, the low water flow of the stream. This method, even when accompanied by careful study of rainfall records, is a dangerous one to employ as many over-developed water power projects demonstrate. Neither of these methods compares favorably with the more exact method of studying flow by actual or comparative hydrographs as is described in Chaps. IV, V, VIII and IX.

In current practice the head available is usually determined for average conditions, or, perhaps, occasionally for low, average and high water conditions, and no detailed study of the daily effect on power is attempted. In Chaps. IV and V this subject is presented in detail and a method of the investigation of this important subject, under all conditions of flow and all conditions of use, is outlined.

On the basis of the knowledge gained from the study of flow and head, the study of the power that can be developed for each day in the year and during each year for which actual or comparative hydrographs are available, is outlined. An outline of a method for the consideration of possible variations in flow during periods for which no measurements are available based on the available rainfall records, is also given in Chaps. VI, VII and VIII. A study of the effect of pondage on power, a most important matter, though not always carefully considered or appreciated, is also discussed in considerable detail in Chaps. IV, V and XXVI.

In the selection of turbines for a water power project, the current practice has been for the engineer, while drawing certain conclusions from the tables of manufacturers' catalogues, to present to the manufacturer the conditions under which the power is to be developed and to rely largely or entirely on the manufacturer for advice

as to machinery to be used. In such cases he is dependent for results on guarantees which are usually quite indefinite in character and seldom verified by actual tests, under working conditions, before the wheels are accepted and paid for. This has resulted in many cases in the installation of wheels which are entirely unsuited to the particular conditions under which they are installed.

Practical turbine analysis has not been treated except in the most general way in any publications except the various German treatises on the turbine in which the subject is discussed from the basis of turbine design. The author has developed the method of turbine analysis and selection, outlined in Chapters XIV and XVI, which applies to all wheels when tests of wheels of the series or class considered are available. These methods are based on the practical operating conditions of actual tests and are both theoretically and practically correct. The engineer should be able to intelligently select the turbines needed for the particular conditions of his installation and to determine, with a considerable degree of accuracy, the results on which he can depend during all conditions of head and flow.

It is believed that this treatment of the subject is sufficiently complete to place the selection of turbines on a better footing and that, when adopted, it will lead to the selection of better and more improved designs and assure more satisfactory results.

The subject of turbine governing has, for electrical reasons, become an important one. While a number of important papers have appeared on this subject, there is, so far as the author knows, no discussion in English which offers the engineer a basis for a complete consideration of this subject. Chap. XVIII, on the principles of turbine governing together with appendixes A, B and C, offer, it is believed, suggestions for the consideration of this subject which may prove of value to water power engineers.

The report on a water power project should involve a careful and complete investigation of the entire subject, and should be based on the broadest considerations of the project in all its relations. Many reports which have come to the author's attention have been too limited in scope and have included only general opinions which have not, to his mind, been sufficiently specific or based on sufficient information to warrant approval without extended investigations. In Chap. XXVIII the author has outlined his idea

of the extent and scope of such investigation and report, which he believes is essential for an intelligent investigation and a reliable opinion on this subject.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.

There can be little which is strictly new or original in any technical work, and in offering this book to the profession, the author wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness to the large number of technical articles that have already appeared on various phases of the subject. Many references to such literature have been given at the end of the various chapters.

Many illustrations have been taken, with more or less change from Engineering News, Engineering Record, Cassier's Magazine and Electrical World and Engineer. Various manufacturers have furnished photographs and, in some cases, cuts of their wheels, governors and apparatus, in connection with which their names appear.

The author has been greatly aided by his assistants, both of his own private office and of the University staff. He wishes especially to acknowledge the assistance of Mr. L. F. Harza to whom Chap. XVIII on The Speed Regulation of Turbine Water Wheel and appendixes A, B and C are largely due. Mr. Harza has also been of much assistance in the editorial work of publication. Special acknowledgment is also due to Professor G. J. Davis, Jr. for the preparation of the diagrams of friction of water in pipes and of Bazin's and Kutter's coefficients, etc. Mr. Robert Ewald assisted in the selection of material for illustrations, in the investigation of German literature, and the preparation of various graphical diagrams including the first development of the characteristic curve.

The author also desires to acknowledge his indebtedness to his principal assistant, Mr. C. V. Seastone, for advice and assistance in the arrangement of many of the chapters in this work and assistance in the editorial work of publication.

The sources of various other tables, illustrations, etc., are acknowledged in their proper places.

D. W. M.

Madison, Oct. 1, 1908.

CONTENTS

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION.

The History of Water Power Development—Every Development of Water Power—The Earliest Type of Water Wheel—The Undershot Wheel—The Overshot and Breast Water Wheel—The Development of the Turbine—Fundamental Ideas of the Turbine—The Modern Turbine—The American or Francis Turbine—Modern Changes in Turbine Practice—Historical Notes on Water Power Development—Development of Water Power in the United States—Literature....	1
---	---

CHAPTER II.

POWER.

The Development of Potential Energy—Definition of Energy—Solar Energy the Ultimate Source—No Waste of Energy in Nature—Laws of Energy Conservation—Efficiency—Natural Limit to Efficiency—Practical Limits to Efficiency—Efficiency of a Combined Plant—Capacity of Each Part of a System not Identical—The Analysis of Losses—The Losses in a Hydro-Electric Plant—Units of Energy—Conversion of Energy Units—Kinetic Energy—Uniform Motion—Uniform Varied Motion—Compound Motion—Graphical Representation of the Laws of Motion—Transformation—Literature.....	19
--	----

CHAPTER III.

HYDRAULICS.

Basis of Hydraulics—Mathematical Expression for Energy—Velocity Head—Entrance Head—Submerged Orifices—Friction Head—Kutler's Formula—Bazin's Formula—Efficiency of Section—Determination of Canal Cross-Section—The Back Water Curve—Flow of Water in Pipes—The Flow of Water Through Orifices—Flow over Weirs—Literature.....	40
--	----

CHAPTER IV.

WATER POWER.

The Study of the Power of a Stream as Affected by Flow—Sources of Water Power—Factors of Stream Flow—Broad Knowledge of	
---	--

Contents.

Stream Flow Necessary—The Hydrograph—The Use of Local Hydrographs—Use of Comparative Hydrographs—Reliability of Comparative Hydrographs—When no Hydrographs are Available— The Hydrograph as a Power Curve.....	72
--	----

CHAPTER V.

WATER POWER (Continued)

The Study of the Power of a Stream as Affected by Head—Variations in Head—The Rating or Discharge Curve—The Fall Water Curve—The Head Water Curve—Graphic Representation of Head—Effects of Design of Dam on Head—Effect of Head on the Power of the Plant—Graphical Representation of the Relations of Power, Head and Flow—Graphical Study of Power at Kilbourn—Power of the Kilbourn Wheels Under Variations in Flow—Effects of Low Water Flow—Effects of Number of Wheels on Head and Power.....	93
--	----

CHAPTER VI.

RAINFALL.

Importance of Rainfall Study—Distribution of Rainfall—The Rainfall Must be Studied in Detail—Local Variation in Annual Rainfall—Local Variations in Periodical Distribution of Annual Rainfall—Accuracy of Rainfall Maps and Records—Rainfall and Altitude—Value of Extended Rainfall Records—Accuracy in Rainfall Observation—District Rainfall—Study of Rainfall as Affecting Run-off—Literature.....	111
---	-----

CHAPTER VII.

THE DISPOSAL OF THE RAINFALL.

Factors of Disposal—The Rate or Intensity of Rainfall—Condition of Receiving Surfaces and Geological Strata—Effects of Wind—Effects of Vegetation—Percolation—Evaporation—Evaporation Relations—Practical Consideration of Losses—Literature.....	133
---	-----

CHAPTER VIII.

RUN-OFF.

Run-off—Influence of Various Factors—Relations of Annual Rainfall and Run-off of Water Year—Relation of Periodic Rainfall to Run-off—Monthly Relation of Rainfall and Run-off—Maximum Stream Flow—Estimate of Stream Flow.....	146
--	-----

CHAPTER IX.

RUN-OFF (Continued)

Relation of Run-off to Topographical Conditions—Effects of Geological Condition on the Run-off—The Influence of Storage on the Distribution of Run-off—Effects of Area on the Run-off—The Study of a Stream from Its Hydrographs—Comparative Run-off and Comparative Hydrographs—Comparative Hydrographs from Different Hydrological Divisions of the United States—Literature.....	175
--	------------

CHAPTER X.

STREAM FLOW.

Flow in Open Channels—Changes in Value of Factors with Changes in Flow—Effects of Variable Flow on the Hydraulic Gradient—Effects of a Rising or a Falling Stream on Gradient—Effects of Channel Condition on Gradient—Effect of Change in Grade and of Obstructions—Relation of Gauge Heights to Flow—Variations in Velocity in the Cross-Section of a Stream—Effects of Ice-Covering on the Distribution of Velocities.....	188
--	------------

CHAPTER XI.

THE MEASUREMENT OF STREAM FLOW.

Necessity for Stream Flow Measurements—Methods for the Estimate or Determination of Flow in Open Channels—Estimates from Cross-Section and Slope—Weir Measurement—Measurement of Flow by the Determination of Velocity—The Use of the Current Meter—Current Meter Observations and Computation—Float Measurements—The Application of Stream Gaugings—Literature.	218
---	------------

CHAPTER XII.

WATER WHEELS.

Classification of Water Wheels—Gravity Wheels—Reaction Wheels—Impulse Wheels—Use of Water Wheels—Classification of Turbines—Conditions of Operation—Relative Advantage of Reaction and Impulse Turbines—Relative Turbine Efficiencies—Turbine Development in the United States—The American Fourneyron Turbine—The American Jonval Turbine—The American Type of Reaction Turbine—The Double Leffel Turbine—Other American Wheels—Early Development of Impulse Wheels—American Impulse Wheels—Turbine Development in Europe.....	237
--	------------

CHAPTER XIII.

TURBINE DETAILS AND APPURTENANCES.

The Runner—Its Material and Manufacture—Diameter of the Runner—The Details of the Runner—Vertical Turbine Bearings—Horizontal Turbine Bearings—Thrust—Bearing in Snoqualmie Falls Turbine—The Chute Case—Turbine Gates—The Draft Tube.....	234
--	-----

CHAPTER XIV.

HYDRAULICS OF THE TURBINE.

Practical Hydraulics of the Turbine—Nomenclature Used in Chapter—First Principles—Impulse and Reaction—The Impulse Wheel—Effect of Angle of Discharge on Efficiency—Reaction Wheel—Graphical Relation of Energy and Velocity in Reaction Turbine—Turbine Relations—Relation of Turbine Speed to Diameter and Head—Graphical Expression of Speed Relations—Relations of φ and Efficiency—Discharge of Turbine at Fixed Gate Opening—Power of a Turbine—The Relation of Discharge to the Diameter of a Turbine—The Relation of Power to the Diameter of a Turbine—Relation of Speed to Discharge of Turbines—Relations of Speed to Power of Turbines—Value of Turbine Constants—Literature....	209
--	-----

CHAPTER XV.

TURBINE TESTING.

The Importance of Testing Machinery—The Testing of Water Wheels—Smeaton's Experiments—The Early Testing of Turbine Water Wheels—The Testing of Turbines by James Emerson—The Holyoke Testing Flume—The Value of Tests—Purpose of Turbine Testing—Factors that Influence the Results of a Test—Measurement of Discharge—Measurement of Head—Measurement of Speed of Rotation—Measurement of Power—Efficiency—Illustration of Methods and Apparatus for Testing Water Wheels—Tests of Wheels in Place—Literature	255
--	-----

CHAPTER XVI.

THE SELECTION OF THE TURBINE.

Effect of Conditions of Operation—Basis for the Selection of the Turbine—Selection of the Turbine for Uniform Head and Power—The Selection of a Turbine for a Given Speed and Power to Work under a Given Fixed Head—To Estimate the Operating Results of a Turbine under one Head from Test Results Secured at Another Head—To Estimate the Operating Results of a Turbine of one Diameter from Test Results of Another Diameter of the Same Series—To Estimate the Operating Results of a Turbine under Variable	
--	--

Heads from a Test Made under a Fixed Head—A More Exact Graphical Method for Calculation—The Construction of the Characteristic Curves of a Turbine—The Consideration of the Turbine from its Characteristic Curve—Other Characteristic Curves—Graphical Analysis as Proposed by Mr. W. A. Waters.....	234
---	-----

CHAPTER XVII.

THE LOAD CURVE AND LOAD FACTORS, AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON THE DESIGN OF THE POWER PLANT.

Variation in Load—Load Curves of Light and Power Plants—Factory Load Curves—Load Curve of London Hydraulic Supply Company—Railway Load Curves—Load Conditions for Maximum Returns—The Load Curve in Relation to Machine Selection—Influence of Management on Load Curve—Relation of Load Curve to Stream Flow and Auxiliary Power—Literature.....	420
---	-----

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE SPEED REGULATION OF TURBINE WATER WHEELS.

The Relation of Resistance and Speed—Self-Regulation in a Plant with Variable Speed and Resistance—The Relations Necessary for Constant Speed—The Ideal Governor—Present Status—Value of Uniform Speed—The Problem—Energy Required to Change the Penstock Velocity—Hunting or Racing—Nomenclature—Shock of Water Hammer Due to Sudden Changes in Velocity—Permissible Rates of Gate Movement—Regulation of Impulse Wheels—Influences Opposing Speed Regulation—Change of Penstock Velocity—Effect of Slow Acceleration on Water Supplied to Wheel—Value of Racing or Gate Over-Run—Energy Required to Change the Penstock Velocity—Effect of Sensitiveness and Rapidity of Governor—The Fly-Wheel—The Stand-Pipe—The Air Chamber—Predetermination of Speed Regulation for Wheel set in open Penstocks—Predetermination of Speed Regulation, Plant with Closed Penstock,—Predetermination of Speed Regulation, Plant with Standpipe—Application of Method, Closed Penstock—Application of Method, Open Penstock—Application of Method, Plant with Standpipe—Literature.....	440
--	-----

CHAPTER XIX.

THE WATER WHEEL GOVERNOR.

Types of Water Wheel Governors—Simple Mechanical Governors—Anti-racing Mechanical Governors—Details and Applications of Woodward Governors—The Lombard-Replagis Mechanical Governors—Essential Features of an Hydraulic Governor—Details of Lombard Hydraulic Governor—Operating Results with Lombard Governor—The Sturges Hydraulic Governor—Test Results with Sturges Gov-	
--	--

ernor—Control from Switchboard—Connection of Governors to Gates—Relief Valves—Lombard Hydraulic Relief Valves—Sturgess Relief Valves	470
--	-----

CHAPTER XX.

ARRANGEMENT OF THE REACTION WHEELS.

General Conditions—Necessary Submergence of Reaction Wheels—Arrangement of Vertical Shaft Turbine—Arrangement of Horizontal Turbines—Classification of Wheels—Vertical Wheels and Their Connection—Some Installations of Vertical Water Wheels—Some Installations of Vertical Wheels in Series—Some Installations of Horizontal Water Wheels—Some Installations of Multiple Tandem Horizontal Wheels—Unbalanced Wheels ..	500
---	-----

CHAPTER XXI.

THE SELECTION OF MACHINERY AND DESIGN OF PLANT.

Plant Capacity—Influence of Choice of Machinery on Total Capacity—Effect of Size of Units on Cost—Overload—Economy in Operation—Possibilities in Prime Movers—Capacity of Prime Movers—The Installation of Tandem Water Wheels—Power Connection—Various Methods of Connection in Use—Use of Shafting—The Wheel Pit—Turbine Support—Trash Racks	525
--	-----

CHAPTER XXII.

EXAMPLES OF WATER POWER PLANTS.

Sterling Plant—Plant of York-Haven Water Power Company—Plant of South Bend Electric Company—Spier Falls Plant of the Hudson River Power Transmission Company—Plant of Columbus Power Company—Plant of the Dolgeville Electric Light and Power Co.—Plant of the Shawinigan Water and Power Company—Plant of the Concord Electric Company—Plant of Winnipeg Electric Railway Co.—Plant of Nevada Power, Mining, and Milling Co.—Literature..	537
--	-----

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE RELATION OF DAM AND POWER STATION.

General Consideration—Classification of Types of Development—Concentrated Fall—Examples of the Distribution of Water at Various Plants—Head Races only—Plants Located in Dam—High Head Developments ..	561
--	-----

CHAPTER XXIV.

PRINCIPLES OF CONSTRUCTION OF DAMS.

Object of Construction—Dams for Water Power Purposes—Height of Dam—Available Head—The Principles of Construction of Dams—The Foundations of Dams—Strength of Dams—Flood Flows—Impervious Construction—The Stability of Masonry Dams—Calculations for Stability—Further Considerations—Types and Details of Dams—Literature.....	579
---	-----

CHAPTER XXV.

APPENDAGES TO DAMS.

Movable Dams—Flood Gates—Flash Boards—Head Gates and Gate Hoists—Fishways—Logways—Literature.....	603
---	-----

CHAPTER XXVI.

PONDAGE AND STORAGE.

Effect of Pondage on Power—Effect of Limited Pondage on the Power Curve—Power Hydrograph at Sterling, Illinois—Effect of Pondage on other Powers—Effect of Limited Storage—Effect of Large Storage—Effect of Auxiliary Power—Effect of Maximum Storage—Calculation for Storage—Method of Storage Calculation—Analytical Method—Literature.....	624
--	-----

CHAPTER XXVII.

COST, VALUE AND SALE OF POWER.

Financial Consideration—Purpose of Development—Cost of Water Power—Depreciation—Annual Cost of Developed Power—Cost of Distribution—Effect of Partial Loads on Cost of Power—Cost of Auxiliary Power or Power Generated from other than Water Power Sources—Market Price of Water Power—Sale of Power—An Equitable Basis for the Sale of Power—Value of Improvements Intended to Effect Economy—Value of a Water Power Property—Literature.	646
---	-----

CHAPTER XXVIII.

THE INVESTIGATION OF WATER POWER PROJECTS.

The Extent of the Investigation—Preliminary Investigation and Report—Study of Run-off—Study of Rainfall—Study of Topographical and Geological Conditions—Study of Flood-flow—Study of Back Water Curve—Study of Head—Study of Storage and Pondage—Study of Probable Load Curve—Study of Power Development—Study of Auxiliary Power—Study of Site of Dam and Power Station—Study of Plant Design—The Estimate of Cost—The Report..	675
---	-----

APPENDICES.

A. Water Hammer—B. Speed Regulation, a more Detailed Analysis than in Chapter XVIII—C. The Stand-Pipe—D. Test Data of Turbine Water Wheels—E. Effect of an Umbrella upon Formation of Vortices—F. Evaporation Tables—G. Two New Water Wheel Governors—H. Miscellaneous Tables including: Equivalent Measures and Weights of Water—Equivalent Units of Energy—Velocities in Feet per Second Due to Heads from 0 to 60 Feet—Three Halves Powers of Numbers, 0 to 100—Five Halves Powers of Numbers, 0 to 50—Relation of mean Rainfall to Maximum and Minimum Discharge of Various Rivers—Rainfall, Run-off and Evaporation for Storage, Growing and Replenishing Periods or 12 Streams of the United States.....	685-757
--	---------

WATER POWER ENGINEERING.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION.

THE HISTORY OF WATER POWER DEVELOPMENT.

1. **Early Development of Water Power.**—Most methods of power generation can be traced to an origin at no very remote period. Their development has been within historic times. The first development of water power, however, antedates history. Its origin is lost in remote antiquity. *

Air and water, both physical agents most essential to life, have ever been the most obvious sources of potential energy and have each been utilized for power purposes since the earliest times. Beside the Nile, the Euphrates, and the Yellow Rivers, thousands of years ago the primitive hydraulic engineer planned and constructed his simple forms of current wheels and utilized the energy of the river current to raise its waters and irrigate the otherwise arid wastes into fertility. Such primitive wheels were also utilized for the grinding of corn and other simple power purposes. From these simple forms and primitive applications have gradually been developed the modern water power installations of to-day.

2. **The Earliest Type of Water Wheel.**—The crude float wheel driven directly by the river current developed but a small portion of the energy of the passing stream. The Chinese Nora, built of bamboo with woven paddles, is still in use in the east (see Fig. 1), and was probably the early form of development of this type of wheel. The type is by no means obsolete for it is yet used for minor irrigation purposes in all countries. These wheels, while inefficient, served their purpose and were extensively developed and widely utilized. One of the greatest developments of which there is record was the float wheel installa-

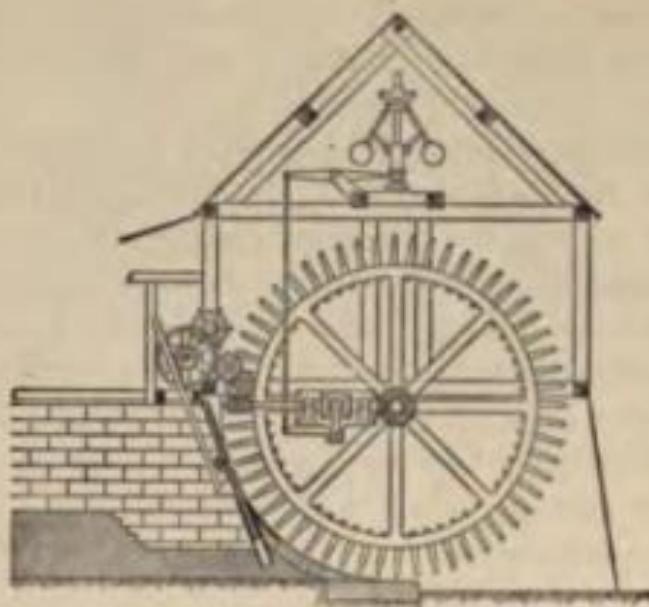


Fig. 4.—Breast Wheel About 1790 Showing Early Application of Governor.
(After Glynn.)

kept sufficiently constant for the purpose to which they were then applied. (See Fig. 4.)

Another mode of applying water to wheels under low falls was introduced by M. Poncelet. (See Fig. 5.) Various changes and improvements in the form of buckets, in their ventilation so as to permit of complete filling and prompt emptying, and in their structure, took place from time to time, and until far into the middle of the nineteenth century these forms of wheels were widely used for water power purposes.

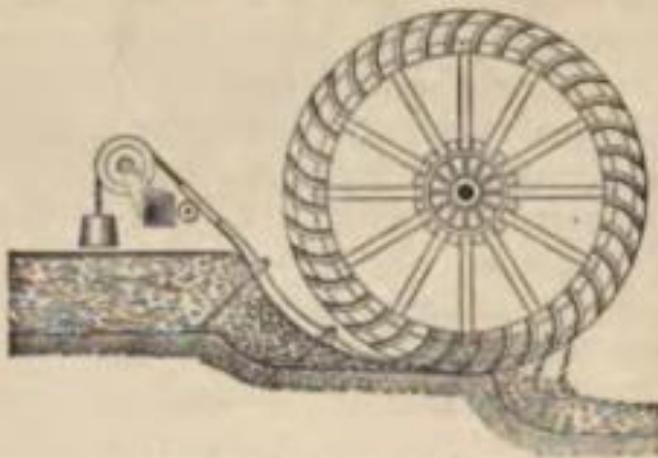


Fig. 5.—Poncelet's Wheel.

5. The Development of the Turbine.—The invention of any important machine or device is rarely the work of a single mind. In general such inventions are the result of years of experience of many men which may be simply correlated by some designer,

to whom often undue credit is given. To the man who has gathered together past experiences and embodied them in a new and useful invention and perhaps through whose energy practical applications are made of such inventions, the credit is frequently assigned for ideas which have been lying dormant, perhaps through centuries of time. Every inventor or promotor of valuable improvements in old methods and old construction is entitled to due credit, but the fact should nevertheless be recalled that even in the greatest inventions very few radical changes are embodied, but old ideas are utilized and rearranged and a new and frequently much more satisfactory combination results. Improvements in old ideas are the improvements which are the most substantial. Inventions which are radically new and strictly original are apt to be faulty and of little practical value.

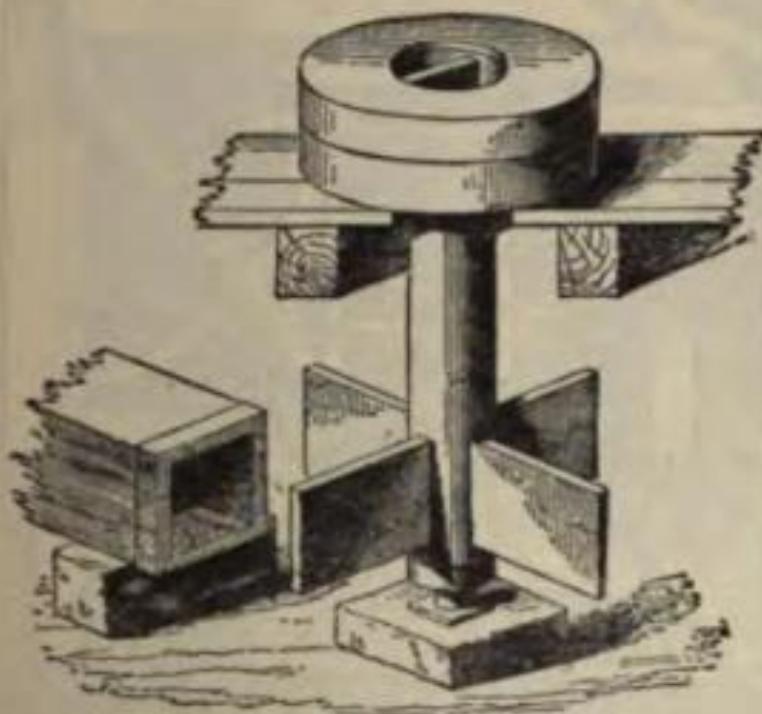


Fig. 6.—Ancient Indian Water Wheel. (After Glynn.) Containing Fundamental Suggestion of Both Turbine and Impulse Wheels.

6. Fundamental Ideas of the Turbine.—The embryo turbine may be distinguished in the ancient Indian water mill (see Fig. 6). A similar early type of vertical wheel used in Europe in the sixteenth century, the illustration of which was taken from an ancient print (see Sci. Am. Sup. Feb. 17, '06) is shown in Fig. 7. Barker's mill in its original form or in the form improved by M. Mathon de Cour, embodied the principal idea of the pressure

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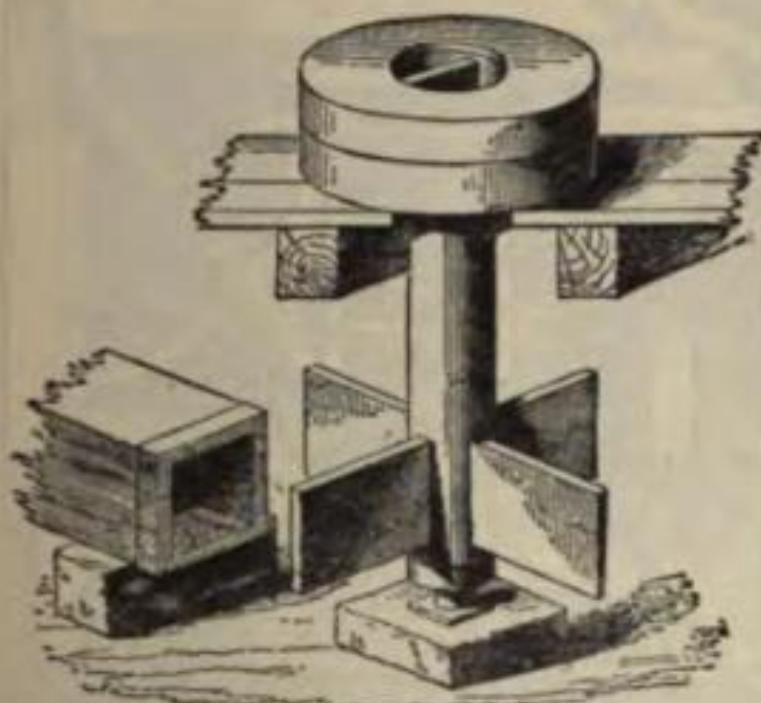
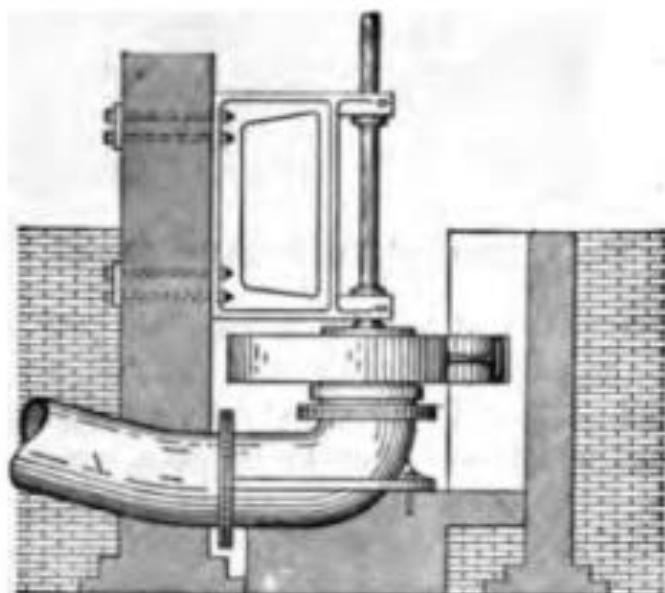


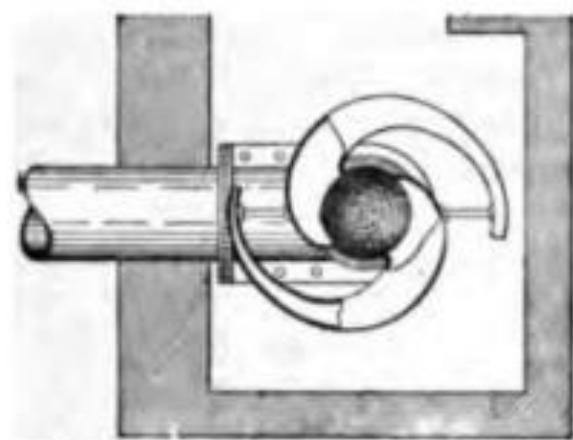
Fig. 6.—Ancient Indian Water Wheel. (After Glynn.) Containing Fundamental Suggestion of Both Turbine and Impulse Wheels.

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the hoops, but this proportion may be varied, or even reversed, according to the situation of place, proportion of the wheel, and quantity of water. The buckets are made of winding timber, and placed inside of the wheel, made fast by strong wooden pins drove in an oblique direction; they are fitted to the inside of the tub or wheel, in such a manner as to form an acute angle from the wheel, the inner edge of the bucket inclining towards the water, which is poured upon the top, or upper end of it about twelve and a half degrees; instead of their standing perpendicular with the shaft of the wheel they are placed in the form of a screw, the lower ends inclining towards the water, and against the course of the stream, after the rate of forty-five degrees; this, however, may be likewise varied, according to the circumstances of the place, quantity of water, and size of the wheel."



Elevation.



Plan and Partial Section.

Fig. 8.—Early Vertical Wheel. Containing Fundamental Suggestion of the Turbine. (After Glynn.)

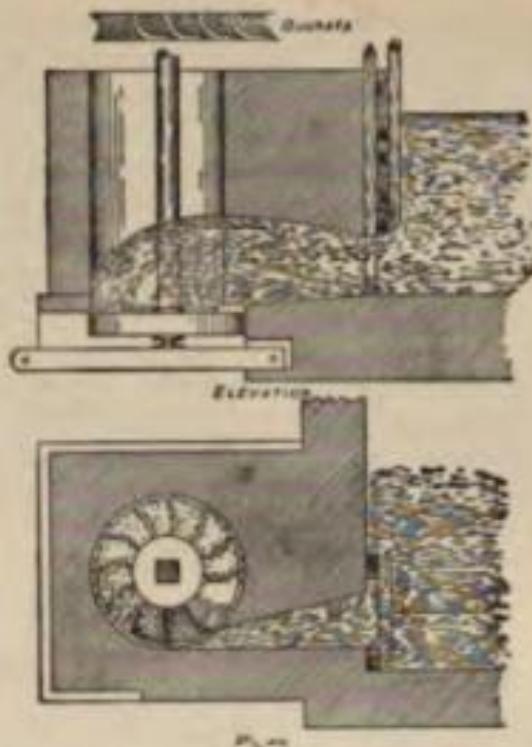


FIG. 9.—*Roue à Cuves* (After Glynn).

From the description it will be noted that, with the exception of the chutes, the principal features of the modern turbine were here anticipated. The "Wry Fly" wheel was an improvement on the "tub" wheel which was then in use to a considerable extent in the country.

These various early efforts received their first practical consummation and modern solution through various French inventors early in the nineteenth century. The "Roue à Cuves" (Fig. 9) and the "Roue Volant" (Fig. 10) had long been used in France, and were the subject of extensive tests by MM. Piobert and Tardy at Toulouse. Those various wheels received the water tangentially through an opening or spout, being practically an improvement on the old Indian mill by the addition of a rim and the modification of the form of buckets.

7. The Modern Turbine.—The next improvement in the United States consisted in the addition of a spiral or scroll case to the wheel, by means of which the water was applied equally to all parts of the circumference passing inward and downward through the wheel. To the French inventors, Koechlin, Fourneyron and Jonval, is largely due the design of the turbine in a more modern and practical form. By the middle of the nineteenth century these wheels had met with wide application in France and been

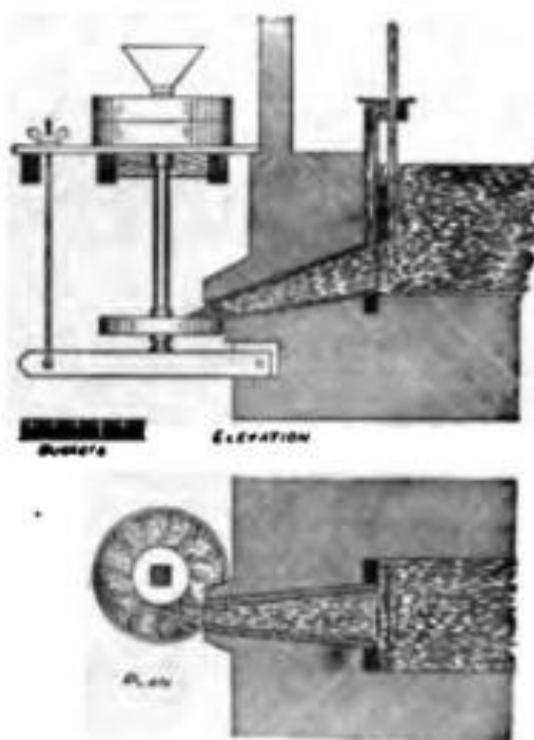


Fig. 10.—Roue Volant (After Glynn).

adopted and considerably improved by American and German engineers, but were scarcely known in England. (See "Power of Water," by Jos. Glynn, 1852.) The turbine was introduced into the United States about 1843 by Elwood Morris, of Pennsylvania, but was developed and brought to public attention more largely through the inventions of Uriah A. Boyden, who in 1844 designed a seventy-five horse-power turbine for use at Lowell, Mass. (See Fig. 132, page 251.) The great advantage of the turbine over the old style water wheel may be summarized as follows: (See Figs. 11 and 12).

First: Turbines occupy a much smaller space.

Second: On account of their comparatively high speed they can frequently be used for power purposes without gearing and with a consequent saving in power.

Third: They will work submerged.

Fourth: They may be utilized under any head or fall of water. (Turbines are in use under heads as low as sixteen inches and as high as several hundred feet.)

Fifth: Their efficiency, when the wheel is properly constructed, is comparatively high.

Sixth: They permit a greater variation in velocity without material change in efficiency.

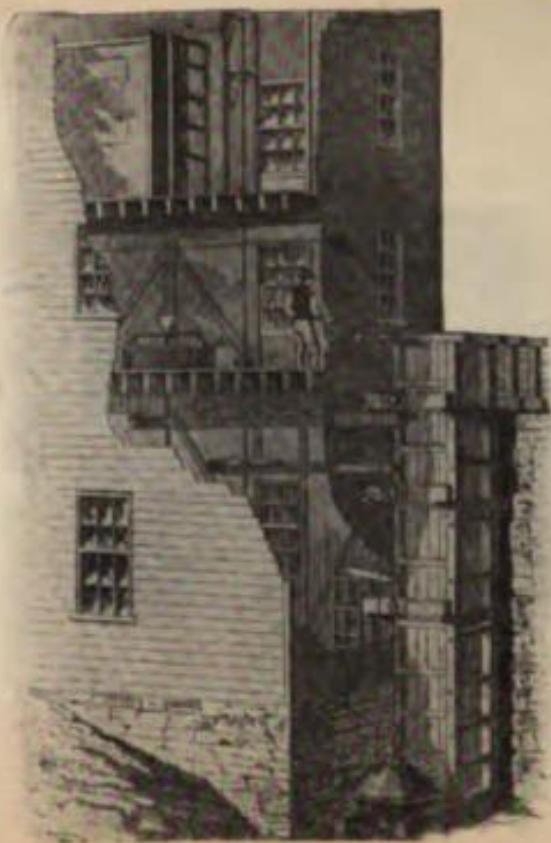


Fig. 12.—Installation of Turbine.

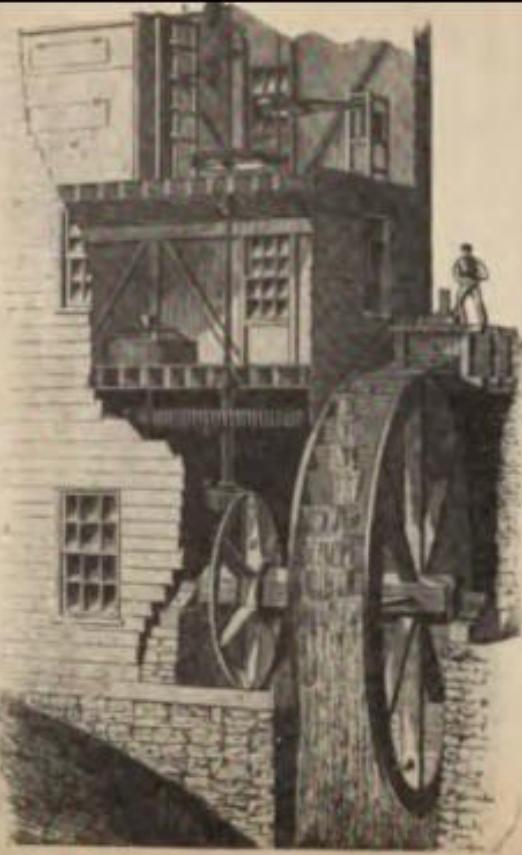


Fig. 11.—Installation of Overshot Wheel.

Seventh: They are more readily protected from ice interference.

8. The American or Francis Turbine.—Through the efforts of Uriah A. Boyden and James B. Francis (1849), the Fourneyron turbine became the leading wheel in New England for many years.

In 1838 Samuel B. Howd of Geneva, New York, patented the "inward flow" wheel, in which the action of the Fourneyron turbine was reversed. This seems to have been the origin of the American type of turbine, and the Howd wheel was followed by a large number of variations of the same general design on which American practice has been based for many years. About 1849, James B. Francis designed an inward flow turbine of the same general type as the Howd wheel. Two of these wheels

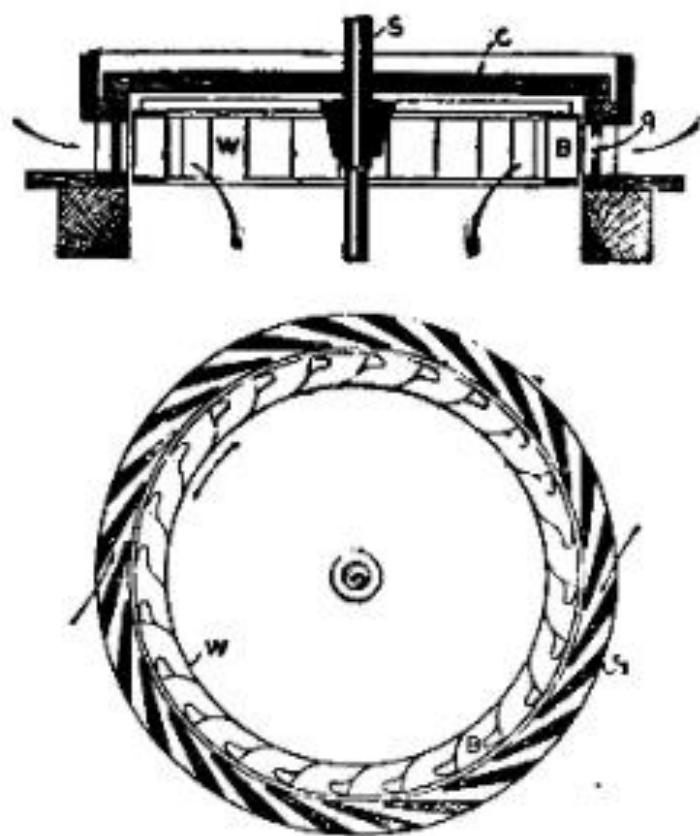


Fig. 13.—Inward Flow Wheel by S. B. Howd (After Francis).

were constructed by the Lowell Machine Shop for the Boott Cotton Mills. In the Lowell hydraulic experiments (page 61) Mr. Francis refers to the previous patent of Howd and says: "Under this patent a large number of wheels have been constructed and a great many of them are now running in different

parts of the country. They are known in some places as the Howd wheel, in others as the United States wheel. They have uniformly been constructed in a very simple and cheap manner in order to meet the demands of the numerous classes of millers and manufacturers who must have cheap wheels if they have any."

Fig. 13 shows a plan and vertical section of the Howd wheels as constructed by the owners of the patent rights for a portion of the New England states. In this cut g indicates the wooden

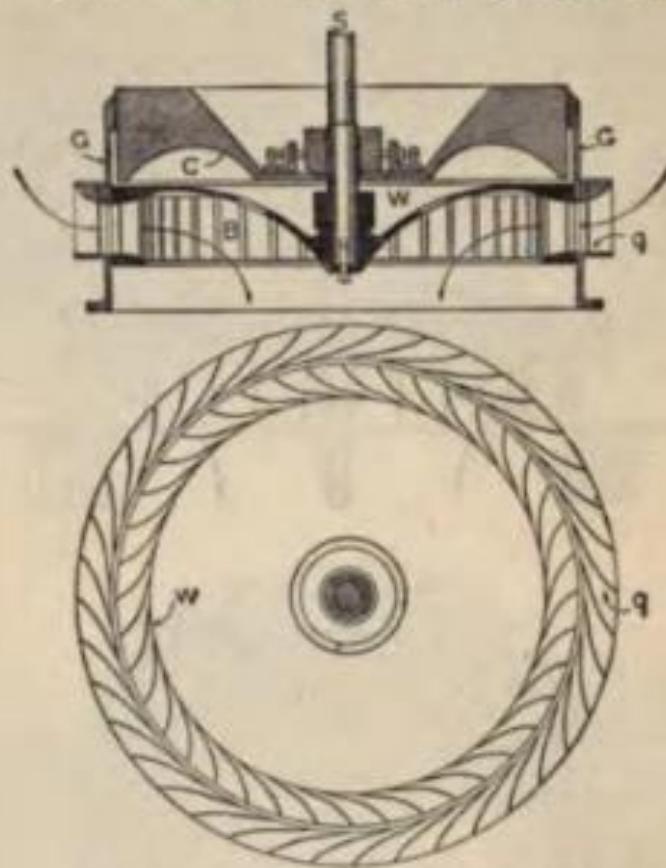


Fig. 14.—Original Francis Turbine.

guides by which the water is directed on to the buckets; W indicates the wheel which is composed of buckets of cast iron fastened to the upper and lower crowns of the wheel by bolts. The upright crown is connected with the vertical shaft S by arms. The regulating gate is placed outside of the guides and is made of wood. The upright shaft S runs on a step at the bottom (not shown in the cut). The projections on one side of the buckets, it was claimed, increased the efficiency of the wheel by diminishing the waste of the water.

The wheel designed by Francis was on more scientific lines, of better mechanical construction (see Fig. 14) and is regarded by

many as the origin of the American turbine. The credit of this design is freely awarded to Francis by German engineers, this type of wheel being known in Germany as the Francis Turbine. The Francis wheel was followed by other inward flow wheels of a more or less similar type. The Swain wheel was designed by A. M. Swain in 1855. The American turbine of Stout, Mills and Temple (1859), the Leffel wheel, designed by James Leffel in 1860, and the Hercules wheel, designed by John B. McCormick in 1876, are among the best known and earliest of the wheels of this class.

g. Modern Changes in Turbine Practice.—A radical change has taken place in later years in the design of turbines by the adoption of deeper, wider and fewer buckets which has resulted in a great increase of power as shown by the following table from a paper by Samuel Webber (Transactions of Am. Soc. M. E. Vol. XVII):

Table I.—Showing Size, Capacity and Power of Various Turbines Under a 16-foot Head.

	Inches Diameter.	Cubic Feet Water per Second.	Horse Power.
Boyden-Fourneyron.....	36	22.95	55
Ridou.....	36	35.45	89
Ridou "L. C.".....	36	48.27	121
Ridou "L. D.".....	36	80.	199
Leffel, Standard.....	36	40.46	96
Leffel, Special.....	36	60.	148
Tyler.....	36	40.7	95.8
Swain.....	36	58.2	140
Hunt, "Swain bucket".....	36	48.8	121
Hunt, New Style.....	36	98.	230.74
Leffel, "Samson".....	36	109.1	264
"Hercules".....	36	107.6	253.5
"Victor".....	25	108.8	268
New Swain.....	36	89.5	216

By 1870 the turbine had largely superseded the water wheel for manufacturing purposes at the principal water power plants in this country. The old time water wheel has since become of comparatively small importance, but it is still used in many isolated places where it is constructed by local talent, and adapted to local conditions and necessities.

The current wheel is still widely used for irrigation purposes and in many instances is a useful and valuable machine.

10. Historical Notes on Water Power Development.—Water mills were introduced at Rome about seventy years B. C. (see Strabo Lib. XII), and were first erected on the Tiber. Vitruvius describes their construction as similar in principle to the Egyptian Tympanum. To their circumference were fixed floats or paddles which when acted upon by the current of the stream drove the wheel around. Attached to this axis was another vertical wheel provided with cogs or teeth. A large horizontal wheel toothed to correspond with it worked on an axis, the upper head of which was attached to the mill stone. The use of such water wheels became very common in Italy and in other countries subject to Roman rule.

Some of the early applications of water power are of interest. In 1581 a pump operated by a float wheel was established at London Bridge to supply the city of London with water. In 1675 an elaborate pumping plant driven by water wheels was established on the Seine river near Saint Germain. For this plant a dam was constructed across the river and chutes were arranged to conduct the water to the undershot water wheels. These were twelve or more in number, each operating a pump that raised the waters of the Seine into certain reservoirs and aqueducts for distribution.

The pumping of water for agricultural irrigation and drainage, domestic supplies and mine drainage, was undoubtedly the first application of water power, and still constitutes an important application of water. Fig. 15, from an article by W. F. Dupree, published in Cassier's Magazine of March, 1899, illustrates a primitive application of the water wheel to the pumping of water from mines. The frontispiece also shows the great Laxy overshot water wheel in the Isle of Man which is still used for mine drainage. The wheel is about seventy feet in diameter and the water is brought from the hills a considerable distance for power purposes.

11. Development of Water Power in the United States.—In this country one of the first applications of water power was the old tidal mill on Mill Creek near Boston, constructed in 1631, which was followed by the extensive developments of small powers wherever settlements were made and water power was

available. Often availability of water power determined the location of the early settlement.

About 1725 the first power plant was established along the Niagara River. This was a water-driven saw-mill constructed

Chronological Development of Water Power of the United States to 1898.

	Year.	Fall Ft.	Minimum Horse Power.	Drainage Area Sq. Miles.
Lowell, Mass.....	1822	35	11,845	4,089
Nashua, N. H.....	1823	36	1,200	516
Oshoe, N. Y.....	1826	104	9,450	3,490
Norwich, Conn.....	1828	16	700	1,240
Augusta, Me.....	1831	17	3,500	6,907
Manchester, N. H.....	1835	52	12,000	2,839
Brockport, N. H.....	1841	14	1,800	2,791
Lawrence, Mass.....	1845	30	11,000	4,626
Augusta, Ga.....	1847	50	8,500	8,830
Holyoke, Mass.....	1848	50	14,000	8,000
Lewiston, Me.....	1849	50	11,000	3,200
Columbus, Ga.....	1850	25	10,000	14,900
Rochester, N. Y.....	1856	236	8,000	2,474
St. Anthony Falls, Minn.....	1857	50	15,500	19,736
Niagara, N. Y. (Hy. canal).....	1861	90	15,000	271,000
Turner's Falls, Conn.....	1866	35	10,000	6,000
Fox River, Wis.....	1866	185	6,449
Birmingham, Conn.....	1870	22	1,000	2,000
Bangor, Me.....	1876	9	1,767	7,200
Augusta, Ga.....	1876	50	8,500	6,830
Palmer's Falls, N. Y.....	1882	30	1,125	2,850
Mechanicsville, N. Y.....	1882	20	3,638	4,478
St. Cloud, Minn.....	1883	14	4,500	18,250
Little Falls, Minn.....	1887	14	4,000	11,084
Spokane, Wash.....	1888	70	18,000	4,180
Howland, Me.....	1888	22	6,000
Great Falls, Mont.....	1890	42	10,000	22,000
Austin, Texas.....	1891	60	10,000	40,000
Sault Ste. Marie, Ont.....	1891	18	10,000	51,800
Pelham, Cal.....	1891	55	6,200
Concord, N. H.....	1894	13	5,000	2,350
Niagara, N. Y. (tunnel).....	1894	170	50,000	271,000
Ogden, Utah.....	1896	446	2,140	980
Helena, Mont.....	1897	32	10,000	14,900
Minneapolis, Minn.....	1897	18	6,000	19,737
Mechanicsville, N. Y.	1898	18	3,270	4,478

by the French to furnish lumber for Fort Niagara. Mr. J. T. Fanning gives the following list of the dates of establishing some of the principal water powers of the United States:

The last few years have witnessed a still more rapid development. The increase in manufacturing industries and other de-

mands for power and energy, the increased cost of coal, an improvement in electrical methods of generation and transmission have all united to accelerate the development of water power plants. Water powers once valueless on account of their distance from centers of manufacturing and population are accessible and such powers are rapidly being developed and energy brought into the market.

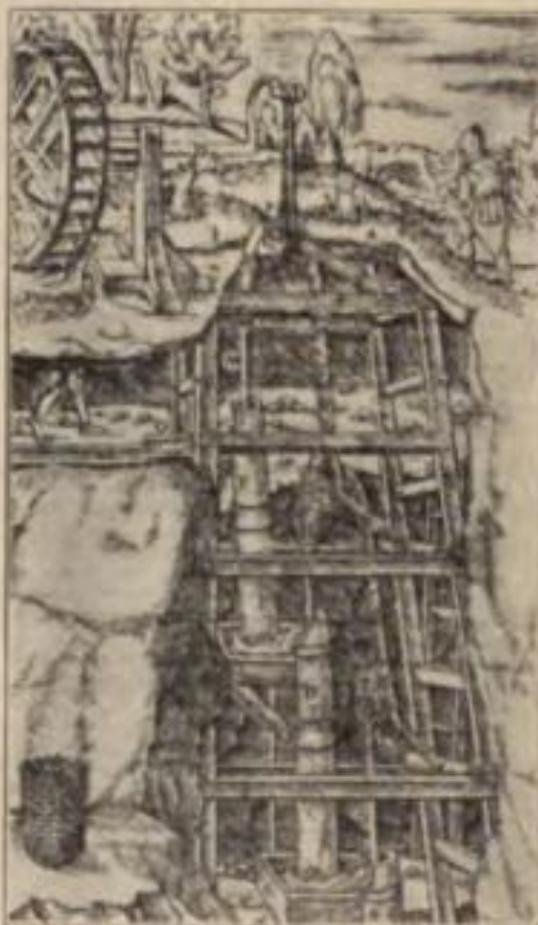


Fig. 15.—Early Application of Undershot Water Wheel to Mine Drift.
Date Unknown (from *Cassier's Mag.*, March, 1899).

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CHAPTER II.

POWER.

12. The Development of Potential Energy.—The development of natural sources of potential energy, the transformation of such energy into forms which can be utilized for power, and its transmission to points where it can be utilized for commercial purposes, constitutes a large portion of the work of the engineer. The water power engineer primarily deals with energy in the form of flowing or falling water, but his knowledge must extend much further for he encounters other forms of energy at every turn. Much of the energy available from the potential source will be lost by friction in bringing the water to and taking it from the wheel. Much is lost in hydraulic and mechanical friction in the wheel; additional losses are sustained in every transformation, and, if electric or other forms of transmission are used or auxiliary power is necessary for maintaining continuous operation, the engineer will be brought in contact with energy in many other forms.

13. Definition of Energy.—Energy is the active principle of nature. It is the basis of all life, all action, and all physical phenomena. It is the ability to exert force, to overcome resistance, to do work. All physical and chemical phenomena are but manifestations of energy transformations, and all nature would be rendered inactive and inanimate without these changes.

14. Solar Energy the Ultimate Source.—A brief consideration of the various sources of potential energy makes the fact manifest that solar energy is the ultimate source from which all other forms are directly or indirectly derived. The variations in solar heat on the earth's surface produces atmospheric currents often of tremendous power. This form of energy may be utilized, in its more moderate form, to drive the sailing vessel and the windmill, and in other ways to be of service to man. The energy of fuel is directly traceable to solar action. Through present and past ages it has been the active cause of chemical and organic

change and growth. From this has resulted fuel supplies available in the original form of wood, or in the altered forms, from ancient vegetation to the forms of coal, oil and gas, and from which a large portion of the energy utilized commercially is derived.

A brief study of meteorological conditions shows that through the agency of solar heat, and the resulting atmospheric movement, a constant circulation of water is produced on and near the earth's surface. Hundreds of tons of water are daily evaporated from the seas, lakes, rivers and moist land surface, rise as vapor into the atmosphere, circulate with the winds, and, under favorable conditions, are dropped again upon the earth's surface in the rainfall. Those portions of the rain that fall upon the land tend to flow toward the lower places in the earth's crust, where lie the seas and oceans, and such portions of these waters as are not absorbed by the strata, evaporated from the surface or utilized in plant growth, ultimately find their way to these bodies of water to again pass through this cycle of changes which is constantly in progress. Thus we find water always in motion, and always an active agent in nature's processes. Due to its peculiar physical properties and chemical relations, it is one of the essential requisites of life, and is also of great importance in nature's processes through the energy of which it is the vehicle.

15. No Waste of Energy in Nature.—Active continuous energy transformation is a most important natural phenomenon. Changes from one form to another are constantly in progress. In nature's transformations energy is always fully utilized. As the running stream plunges over the fall, the potential energy, due to its superior elevation, is transformed into the kinetic energy of matter in motion, and through the shock or impact the kinetic energy is transformed into thermal energy due to a higher temperature, which again may be partially changed in form by radiation or vaporization. Thus the quantity of energy is continually maintained, while its quality or conditions constantly vary. There is, and can be, no waste or loss of energy as far as nature itself is concerned. Wasted or lost energy are terms that apply only to energy as utilized in the service of man. Nature itself never seems to utilize the entire quantity of energy from one source for the development of energy of a single form, but always differentiates from one form into a number of other forms. When the engineer therefore attempts to utilize any source of

potential energy for a single purpose, he at once encounters this natural law of differentiation and finds it impossible to utilize more than a portion of the energy used in the manner in which he desires to utilize it. Much of this loss may be due to the form of energy available; much to the medium of transformation and transmission, and much to physical difficulties which it is impossible to overcome.

16. **Laws of Energy Conservation.**—Primarily it should be fully understood and clearly appreciated that matter and energy can neither be created nor destroyed. Both may be changed in form or they may be dissipated or lost so far as their utilization for commercial needs is concerned. But in one form or another they exist, and their total amount in universal existence is always the same. In any development for the utilization, transformation or transmission of energy, the following fundamental axioms must be thoroughly understood and appreciated:

First : That the amount of energy which can be actually utilized in any machine or system can never be greater than the amount available from the potential source.

Second : That the amount of energy which can be utilized in any such system can never be greater than the difference between the amount entering the system and the amount passing from the system as waste in the working medium.

17. **Efficiency.**—Efficiency is the ratio or percentage of energy utilized to energy applied in any system, part of a system, machine or in any combination of machines.

The efficiency of a given machine or mechanism, or the percentage of available energy which can be obtained from a given system of generation and transmission therefore can never be greater than represented by the equation :

$$\text{Efficiency or amount of available energy} = \frac{E - E'}{E} \text{ in which}$$

E equals the energy in the working medium entering the machine

E' equals the energy in the working medium passing from the machine.

18. **Natural limit to efficiency.**—The total energy in a working medium such as water, steam, air, etc., is the energy measured from the basis of the absolute zero for the medium which is being considered. For example, the average surface of Lake Michigan is 580 feet above sea level; each pound of water, therefore, at lake level contains 580 foot pounds of potential energy. This amount of energy must therefore be expended in some man-

ner by each pound of water passing from the lake level to the ocean level, which may be regarded as the absolute zero reference plane for water power. This energy cannot be utilized at Chicago for there no fall is available. A small portion of this energy is now utilized in the power plants at the falls of Niagara. Some energy will be ultimately utilized on the Chicago Drainage Canal, where a fall of some thirty-four feet is available from the controlling works to Joliet. Perhaps ultimately in its entire course one hundred and seventy feet of fall may be utilized by the waters of the drainage canal, in which case the absolute available energy of each pound of water cannot be greater than shown by the following equation:

$$\text{Available energy} = \frac{580 - 410}{580} = \frac{170}{580} = .2931, \text{ or } 29.31 \text{ per cent.}$$

With any other form of energy the same conditions also prevail. Consider a pound of air at 760 degrees absolute temperature Fahr., and at 75 pounds absolute pressure. The number of heat units contained will be given by the equation:

$$\text{Heat units} = \text{temperature} \times \text{weight} \times \text{specific heat.}$$

$$\text{B. T. U.} = 760 \text{ degrees} \times 1 \times .160 = 128.$$

To utilize all of the energy in this air, it would be necessary to expand it down to a temperature of absolute zero and exhaust it against zero pressure. In any machine for utilizing compressed air, it will be necessary to exhaust it against atmospheric pressure. This will expand the air 3.10 times, and if expanded adiabatically it will have a final temperature of 474 degrees. The heat units in the exhaust will therefore be as follows:

$$\text{B. T. U.} = 474 \text{ degrees} \times 1 \times .160 = 80,$$

and the available energy will be as follows:

$$\text{Available energy} = \frac{128 - 80}{128} = \frac{48}{128} = .375, \text{ or } 37.5 \text{ per cent.}$$

In this case also the temperatures vary directly as the heat units, and are therefore a measure of available energy:

$$\text{Available energy} = \frac{760 - 474}{760} = .376 \text{ or } 37.5 \text{ per cent.}$$

In the ideally perfect furnace the efficiency is somewhat higher. The fuel may be consumed at a temperature of about 4,000 Fahr. absolute, and the gas may be cooled before escaping to about 600 Fahr. In this case the possible efficiency or available energy is:

$$\text{Available energy} = \frac{4000 - 680}{4000} = .832 \text{ or } 83.2 \text{ per cent.}$$

The above examples show, therefore, the limits which nature itself places on the proportion of energy which it is theoretically possible to utilize. For such losses the engineer is not accountable except for the selection of the best methods for utilizing such energy. The problem for his solution is, what amount of this available energy can be utilized by efficient machines and scientific methods.

19. Practical Limits to Efficiency.—The preceding equations are the equations of ideally perfect machines. Of this available energy only a portion can be made actually available. In practice we are met with losses at every turn. Some energy will be lost in friction, as radiated heat, some in the slip by pistons, or as leakage from defective joints. In many other ways the energy applied may be dissipated and lost. From this it follows:

The amount of energy which can be utilized can never be greater than the difference between the amount supplied to any given machine or mechanism, and the amount lost or consumed in such machines by friction, radiation or in other ways. Hence it follows that the efficiency of a given machine, or the percentage of energy available, or which can be obtained from the machine, can never be greater than the following:

$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{E - (E' + E'' + E''' \text{ etc.})}{E} \text{ in which}$$

E = total energy available

E' E'' E''' etc. = the energy lost in friction and in various other ways, in the machine or system, and rejected in the exhaust from the same.

Every transmission or transformation of energy entails a loss, hence, starting with a given quantity of energy, it gradually disappears by the various losses involved in the mechanism or machines used. Other things being equal, the simpler the transmission or transformation, the greater the quantity of the original amount of energy that can be utilized.

The term efficiency as here applied represents always the ratio between the energy obtainable from the mechanism or machine and the actual energy applied to it.

Therefore the efficiency of a pumping engine is the ratio between the energy of the water leaving the pump and the energy of the steam applied to the engine.