

BUILDING WORLD

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For Builders, Carpenters, Joiners, Bricklayers, Masons, Plasterers, Sanitary Engineers, Plumbers, Painters, Slaters, Glaziers, Brickmakers, Gasfitters, Locksmiths, Decorators, Hot-water Fitters, Paperhangers,

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BUILDING CONSTRUCTION—EXAMINATION QUESTIONS AND SOLUTIONS.—XXXX.

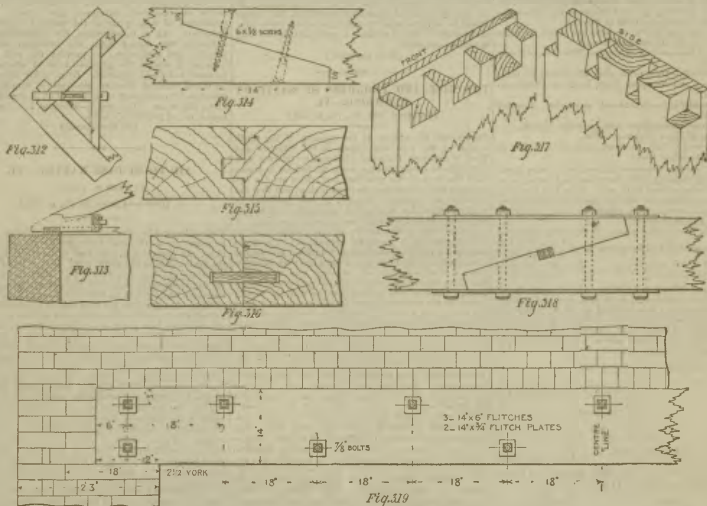
BY PROFESSOR JENNY ADAMS, M.I.C.E.

(Continued from No. 73, p. 347.)

218. Define the following terms: Dragging tie, ridge scarfing, groove, tongue, and knucklejoint mitre-bordering,

in place (see Figs. 312 and 313). Ridge scarfing is the joint in a ridge board to make up the requisite length out of two or more pieces (see Fig. 314). A groove is a narrow channel cut in any material, as throating in a window-sill, recesses for panels in the parts of a framed door, etc. A tongue is the opposite of a groove, and is made to fit in the groove to form a close joint and prevent movement. Fig. 315 shows a grooved and tongued joint between two pieces of wood. When the

bend in a handrail, concave on top, as where it leaves the straight for a rise. A knee is a vertical bend, convex on top, as where it leaves a rising direction for the horizontal. The conjunction of a ramp and knee is known as a *room work*. A *wreath* is a horizontal bend in a handrail, as where it turns round the corner of a hanging passage, and a *twist* or *wryth* is a spiral curve in a handrail where made to suit winders on a circular-ended well-hole; but the term wreath is



Building Construction. Fig. 312.—Plan of Dragon Tie. Fig. 313.—Section through Dragon Tie. Fig. 314.—Scarfed Joint in Ridge Board. Fig. 315.—Matched Joint. Fig. 316.—Grooved and Tongued Joint. Fig. 317.—Secret Dovetailing. Fig. 318.—Scarfed Joint in Beam. Fig. 319.—Elevation of Pitched Beam Carrying 18-in. Wall.

ramp, wreath, and twist, secret dovetailing, scarfing of timber.—(Royal Institute of British Architects.) A dragging tie, or dragon tie or beam, is a framework at the lower end of a hip rafter connecting it with the wall-plates in such a way as to resist the thrust of the hip rafter. The foot of the hip rafter is halved, notched, stepped, or beveled into the dragging tie, which is notched at one end on to the wall-plates, at the angle where they are halved together, and at the other end is attached to the angle tie or brace, by means of a task beam secured by a pin or wedge, the angle tie being notched over the wall-plates to keep it

tongues is on one side only, and the groove on the other, it is called a matched joint, as in Fig. 315. Knuckle-joint mitre-bordering is assumed to be a misprint for two things—knuckle-joint and mitred bordering. A knuckle-joint is a hinged joint that will only open to 180°, as some butt hinges. Mitred bordering to a hearth is an oak slip 2 in. by 1 in., mitred at the angles and sunk flush in a rebate in the floor boards round three sides of a hearthstone. Sometimes it only runs across the end grain of the boards, the object being to prevent the water used in washing the hearth from entering the end grain and causing decay. A ramp is a vertical

commonly used for the latter case. Secret dovetailing is used in cabinet-making and high-class joinery for joining the sides of drawers, boxes, etc., at the angles. The dovetails are formed on the faces of mitres or with a lap, so that when put together only a straight joint is seen (see Fig. 317). Scarfing of timber is the mode of joining pieces at their ends to lengthen them. They are mostly splayed joints, with bird's-mouth ends and folding wedges to draw them close, further secured by four or more bolts as Fig. 318.

219. For what purposes are the following woods chiefly used by builders?—Pitch pine, American yellow deal,

Baltic white deal? State how you would recognize them and judge of their quality.—(*Public Works Office, Ireland.*)

Pitch pine (*Pinus australis* or *Pinus resinosa*) is used chiefly for treeds of stairs and flooring, on account of its hardness and wear-resisting qualities; for doors, shutters, sashes, handrails, and balusters on account of its strongly marked and handsome grain; for open timber floors on account of its strength and appearance; and for outdoor carpentry, such as jetties, on account of its length and size.

American yellow deal (*Pinus strobus*), more often called American yellow pine or Weymouth pine, is used chiefly for panels on account of its great width; for moldings on account of its uniform grain and freedom from knots; and for patterns for casting iron on account of its stiffness and easy working.

Baltic white deal or spruce fir (*Abies excelsa*) is used in the common qualities for the roughest work—scaffold poles, second-hand boards, centering, packing-frames, etc., and in the better qualities for dressers and table-tops, bedroom floor boards, cupboard shelves, etc.

Pitch pine is recognized by its weight and strong reddish-yellow grain, with distinct and regular annual rings. It must be well seasoned, and free from sap and shakes.

American yellow deal is very uniform in texture, of a very pale honey-yellow or straw color, turning brown with age, usually free from knots, and especially recognized by short dark, like the moldings in the grain when planed, and its light weight. It is subject to cup shakes and to incipient decay, going brown and "mothery."

Baltic white deal is recognized chiefly by its small hairs, and dark knots, by its softness on leaving the saw, and by its weathering to a greyish tint. When fresh cut, the grain may be more or less pronounced than that of yellow deal. It is subject to streaks of resin in long cavities, and sap in dead knots.

220. What timber you select for the following purposes?—*Travels of stairs, floor boards, pile foundations, dock gates, plankings of earth workings, roof trusses*—(*Admiralty Outposts and Office of Works.*)

In the following, the timbers are stated in order of superiority for the purposes named.

Trends of Stairs—Oak, pitch pine, Memel fir, ordinary yellow deal.

Floor Boards—Oak, pitch pine, Stockholm or Gofa yellow deal; for upper floors, Dram or Christiania white deal.

Pile Foundations—Greenheart, oak, elm, crossbarked Memel, alder.

Dock Gates—Greenheart, oak, crossbarked Memel, *Plankings of Earth Workings*—Elm.

Roof Trusses—Oak, chestnut, pitch pine, Baltic fir (Duntir, Memel, or Rigas).

221. A wooden beam is required to carry a wall 15 in. thick, weighing with floor and roof resting on it 15 tons, over an opening 14 ft. wide. Show how you would construct the beam, and how you would satisfy yourself that your construction is sufficiently strong.—(*City and Guilds of London Institute.*)

Formula for simple beam: $B.W. \text{ cwt. centre} = \frac{6 \times l^2}{10 \times 20 \times 14}$, whence safe load in tons on fir = $\frac{2 \times 3 \times 5 \times b \times l^2}{10 \times 20 \times 14}$, $b \times l^2 = 15 \times 10 \times 20 \times 14$ or $15 = \frac{2 \times 3 \times 5 \times b \times l^2}{10 \times 20 \times 14}$, $b \times l^2 = 15 \times 10 \times 20 \times 14$

= 6000, and $\frac{6000}{18} = 333.33$ in. for side of square beam. This could be obtained in pitch pine only, and it would be very unsuitable for building an iron brick wall upon; we must therefore try a fitted beam. Say a fitted beam of three 12-in. by 6-in. half timbers and two 12-in. by 3-in. fitted plates.

Formula for fitted beams—

$B.W. \text{ cwt. centre} = \frac{1}{2} (b \times 304)$
 $= \frac{1}{2} (3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 6 \times 2 \times 30 \times 3)$
 $= \frac{1}{2} (68 \times 45)$
 $= \frac{1}{2} (108 \times 108) = 1111 \text{ cwt.}$

1111 $\times 2$ for load distributed.
 20 cwt. in 1 ton $\times 10$ feet, safety = 1114 tons, which is not nearly enough. Try three fitted plates of 14 in. by 6 in., and two fitted plates 14 in. by 3 in. Then

$\frac{1}{2} (3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 6 \times 2 \times 30 \times 3)$
 $= \frac{1}{2} (68 \times 45) = 1512$,
 and $1512 \times 2 = 1512$ tons, which will be satisfactory, 20 $\times 10$

and the design will be as shown in Fig. 319.

222. Give the formula for calculating the weight of an iron girder, and the constants for cast iron, wrought iron riveted, and rolled iron. What proportion does a safe load bear to breaking weight?—(*University College, London.*)

L = breaking weight centre tons.
 d = area bottom flange square inches.
 d = depth of girder in inches.
 e = constant.
 T = span in feet.

Formula.— $w = \frac{ade}{T}$, $e = 2$ cast iron, 6 wrought iron riveted, 7 wrought iron rolled solid. Safe load usually breaking weight.

223. Describe briefly how the character of the subsoil is ascertained for foundations, and what tools are used for the purpose.—(*City of London College.*)

For shallow foundations, trial pits 3 ft. square may be sunk with pick and shovel at various points where the excavation can afterwards be utilized for putting concrete or other support to the walls, and the principal angles, and the ground can be pricked with a bar below to see that it is firm underneath.

For deep foundations trials will be too expensive, and trial borings are made 6 in. to 6 ft. diameter, usually 1 ft. in diameter. The principal tool used is the auger, a hollow cylindrical body with a cutting lip at its lower edge to guide the material into the upper part and hold it there. As the auger brings up all it can get, the operation is called "mining," and the auger is sometimes called a "miser." Jumpers or plain wide chisels of various patterns are used for breaking up any hard material so that it can be raised by the auger, and water is poured down the hole to facilitate the breaking up, particularly if it is clay. The engineer must judge if the strata penetrated partly by the difficulty of passing through and partly by the samples brought up, allowing for the water which has been poured down. For this reason as little water as possible should be used, so that the natural resistance of the soil may be more apparent. In loose soil the bore holes sometimes have to be lined with wrought-iron tubes, flush outside, to prevent the sides from falling in and the bore from choking. The tubes are joined by a screw thread at the mouths, the top length being with an eye to take a lever bar in the case of the auger, and with lugs to tie ropes which pass over pulleys in the case of the jumpers, so that they may be lifted and dropped. To perform a rational classification, geological observations and records must be made as the works proceed, so that a scale section may be made of the various strata. In the case of docks and other deep structures, the borings should be supplemented by some geological section, if possible, as a geological section map should be constructed.

(To be continued.)

THE RISE AND PROGRESS OF SANITARY PLUMBING.—VI.

(Continued from No. 73, p. 349.)

CONTINUING his address at the opening of the ninth session of the plumbing classes in the Glasgow and West of Scotland Technical College, Dr. Glaister said that hitherto he had been too much the first to acknowledge the work of the plumber; but critics are too apt to regard that educational progress is slow, and that the plumber was suddenly brought to face problems in which a knowledge of physical and medical facts, and not merely the mechanical, had to be used. It is, indeed, rare in the history of any science that its present solution is promptly arrived at; it is more usually the result of educational evolution. The science of sanitation is by no means of great age; on the other hand, it is the result of years of study and research, and therefore, that in the earlier days the problem of house-sewerage removal was supposed to be met by merely fixing up the necessary pipes for the sewage exit from the house, and the channels made the dwelling wherever it might run into a cesspool or a sewer? When traps were first deemed necessary, the forms they assumed were such as now only meet with approbrium by present-day sanitarians, but then they were deemed excellent; and rectangular, and drain and the "diptons" trap were thought to be satisfactory; but advancing knowledge showed that this form of drain, by its frictional surface, only offered a larger surface for sediment and of impediment to motion. Every one who has been in the trenches was down to its early days to have combined many points of value, now only meets with universal condemnation, expressed in varying degrees of strong language, of which that of a recent American writer may be quoted as an example: "It is probable that it might have been, the devil who invented it." The modern forms of traps still lay buried in the limbo of their inventors. The "Somerset" trap was provisionally patented in 1868 by John Keweney, R.E.S., of Glasgow, and was among the first of the present earthward forms of trap, and, after all, it was but the "diptons" principle applied to circular pipes—an acknowledged advance, at the same time, beyond what was then in existence. It is very satisfactory to find that since William A. Buchanan, a man whose recent death is deplored by all interested in sanitation and the advancement of the plumbing craft—patented the "casade" trap known by his name, and gave it the numbers and names of traps have become bewildering.

The medical profession, too, for many a year attributed much of the illness which arises from drain-planted atmospheres to sewer air and sewer gas

Probably too much has been made of this, although, at the same time, impaired health may be an expected consequence therefrom. The malignant action of microbes was not then understood, because then little was known concerning microbes; hence to sewer air and sewer gas the cause of evil odors, fever, and diphtheria was ascribed, which to-day would be more rightly ascribed to specific micro-organisms, of which sewer air may, however, be the vehicle. All those facts simply indicate that an education of sanitary laws along the line has been and still is going on.

So, too, with sanitary fittings. As in everything else, so in sanitation, we chance upon isolated instances of individuals who teach doctrines, or practice them without teaching, which are hundreds of years in advance of their general adoption. The water-closet of Sir John Harrington, who lived about 1596, shows that the principles of the fitting had already been grasped. This, then, is after all, an extremely rare case, and it will astonish some to learn that the first case, it is believed, was patented dates from 1775, the patentee being Alexander Cummings; and the Bramah closet was invented by the famous mechanician of that name, who was the inventor also of the Bramah press, the bar pump, and the safety lock. Both of these fittings were valve closets, respecting the merits of which even present-day opinion is divided.

When the relation between drain-polluted air and disease became better understood, the old pan closet, which was and is still too general in use, lost its premier position, and it had to yield before less complicated, more cleanly, and therefore more efficient, forms of drainage, recognized in a house which was more ingenious in recent years has been expended. Today the market is flooded with closets in a multitude of forms by a multitude of makers, of which the main types are the wash-out, the wash-down, and the siphon. The variation of soil-pipe and trap, too, is but a recent innovation. Unless it happened that an economic craftsman perchance united the rain-conductor and the soil-pipe in one stalk, or where the rain-conductor emptied into the soil-pipe, the rain-pipe, ventilation in these parts of the sanitary system was unknown. As a consequence, the phenomenon of siphoning was forced upon the attention of both plumber and sanitarian; to prevent the evil consequences which would result from the vacuum, the pressure had to be regarded. Even to-day there may be found existing obsolete attempts to ventilate the soil-pipe by continuing it upward with a smaller pipe above the eaves. The roof-to-basement full-bore soil-pipe is not of yesterday's birth.

(To be continued.)

AIR-TIGHT CASE MAKING.—XI.

BY FRED W. LOANBY.

(Continued from No. 73, p. 316.)

THE mahogany for the outer face and skirting should be glued on to the deal frame before the pine top is fixed. In preparing it, take care to have the figure of the grain running the right way. Gauge the skirting 1/8 in. thick and 1 in. wide. Mark the shape of the moulding on the ends, work the hollow, the round, and the quirk, and clean it up with fine glasspaper to a good surface. Gauge down the back side to the depth of the moulding, and work the quirk and the round, and when all four pieces are prepared, traverse the deal frame, also the mahogany skirting, with a toothing plane so that a good sound joint is obtained. A toothing plane has a cutting iron the edge of which is shaped like a tooth, and a dovetail is chiefly used by cabinet makers for veneering. It makes innumerable small furrows on both faces of the material about to be glued together, and so affords a good key for the glue. Make the toothing plane run parallel to the face side along across the mitre to receive an eighth tongue, stopping the groove below the moulding. When this is done, try all together on the deal frame, holding the mitre together by means of hand screws, when, all the mitres and corners of the skirting are glued on. First glue on one side, holding it securely by placing hand screws down from the top edge and clamping the deal and mahogany together, then work round in the same way until the other side is done.

The cornice and fascia, of which the upper portion of Fig. 81 is a section, should be made either of good dry mahogany, or of pine with a mahogany face. First take two pieces of mahogany 6 ft. long, and two pieces 4 ft. long, both 6 in. wide, and 1 1/2 in. thick. Plane the ends, gauge them to 6 in. wide and 1 1/2 in. thick, and form a rebate on the top edge of the inner face 1/4 in. by 1/4 in. deep, to receive the top or cover board. Plough the bottom edge on the inner face to receive the air-tight

fillet rebate out $\frac{1}{2}$ in. deep on the bottom edge of face side to receive the cork moulding, then plough the upper edge of the face to receive the tongue of the cornice moulding. Should this fascia be prepared out of pine and veneered,

the veneer should be the same thickness as the depth of the rebate for the neck moulding. It would then form a rebate in itself, also the cornice would require to be that much thicker on the back side to fit into the rebate. When this is done, cut rods to the extreme length and width of the case; this will be to the short point of the mitre. Cut off each piece to the lengths of the rods and mitre them, then plough across them to receive the tongue, and glue blocks on the face to pull the mitres up. When these have been made to fit, and the rim is perfectly square, take it in pieces and mitre in the air-tight fillets, which should be glued in and allowed to set before the fascia is put together permanently. Neat and fast line can be drawn with reference to the shape of the cornice moulding, which should be next prepared. Plough it on the back for a tongue, and mitre it round the cornice and glue in its place, also fixing it with fine screws from the back side, or putting fine panel pins in the square portion of the moulding on the face. When the glue is set, take off the hand screws, etc., and put on the cover board, which should be of dry pine, and fix it with fine screws from the top. Turn up the cornice on its top, and fit in and fix with panel pins pieces of pine the same thickness as the air-tight fillet.

The material for the side sashes must be good, straight-grained mahogany, free from knots. Measure off what is required—namely, eight stiles 4 ft. 2 in. long, four rails 4 ft. long, and four rails 6 ft. long and of the requisite widths, as shown on the setting out. The method of jointing the angles of the sashes is shown by Fig. 82. These need very careful fitting: Hook joints must be worked on the side of one or the front sash stiles, and on the shutting stile of the side sash, the air-tight bead being formed on the hanging stile. Prepare the four stiles, 2 1/2 in. wide, 1 1/2 in. thick, face them up true and straight, and gauge them to 2 1/2 in. finished size. Also prepare two rails 6 ft. long, 1 1/2 in. full finished width, and 1 1/2 in. thick, and two of the same length 1 1/2 in. bare finished width. Set out these two sashes 5 ft. 10 1/2 in. to outer edges, which is the exact width of the deal frame and fascia. In setting out the rails, therefore, the distance between the shoulder lines should be 5 ft. 4 1/2 in. The tenons on these rails should be cut about 1 1/2 in. in length, as they, if mortised through end grain, would not last long; the mortises should be stopped accordingly, so that they do not go through the stile. A tenon going two-thirds through the stile, if well fitted and glued, will be a more sound and lasting joint.

Work the moulding and rebate as shown in Fig. 82. Rebate out the two end stiles in pairs, 1 1/2 in. on and 1/2 in. deep; plough in the centre for an eighth tongue, and work the bead on the edge, also the one on the face which is sunk. Square the moulding lines of the top and bottom rails of sash across the face, and work the ovolo moulding on the angle, stopping it at the lines

mentioned with a bevelled stop, as shown in Fig. 83. Be careful to leave sufficient on either end of the stiles for forming the 1-in. tenons. The hook joint on the left-hand stile must be worked, as previously described, with a 1 1/2-in. hook-joint plane. It is imperative that the stiles should be well fixed, in order that the whole thing may be rigid when finished. Work the ovolo moulding on the angle and stop it as before explained. In preparing the hanging stile, all that will be necessary beyond the usual procedure will be to plough for the air-tight bead.

Before gluing up the side sashes, make sure that the outer edges of the rails are perfectly square, so that they form a perfect joint when in their places. After they have been glued up and allowed to dry, clean off on both sides and form the tenons on each end of the stiles, the shoulders being the outer edge of the rails; then work on the inside the hollow to receive the round of the air-tight fillet. If any difficulty is experienced in getting these sashes in their places, shorten the tenon to 1 in. For the sash for the opposite end (Fig. 82), the material required will be two stiles 1 1/2 in. square, one rail 1 1/2 in. by 1 1/2 in., and another 1 1/2 in. by 1 1/2 in. Frame them together, plough the outer edges for the tongue in the rebate, and form the tenons in all respects similar to those for the side sashes. Next prepare the front hanging sash with the hook joint and bead stile, allowing the stile sufficient width to form the joint. Put a double tenon on the ends of the left-hand rails. No tenon will be required on the stiles. When all the sashes have been prepared and fitted, put them into the mortises prepared for them. The fixed sash at the end may be secured by means of screws through the stile of the side sash, turned

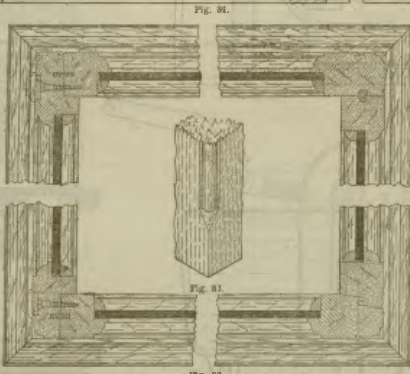
putty. Fix packing pieces where required to keep the case square and the frame perfectly straight. Fix on the beads with fine panel pins, clean off all superfluous putty; the case will then be ready for the polisher.

The inside of the top should be lined with $\frac{1}{2}$ -in. lining paper, the bottom with velvet plush or other suitable material. Bazaar stands may be erected in the conservatory to carry glass shelves, if required.

(To be continued.)

The Main Drainage of South London. The main drainage of South London is effected by three large intercepting sewers and their branches. The southern high-level sewer discharges a part of Wandsworth, as well as Clapham and Camberwell, and then passes by way of New Cross to the west side of Deptford Creek, where it unites with the Effra branch sewer, which flows through Streatham, East Croydon, and Nunhead. The length of this high-level sewer is 6 1/2 miles, and its size varies from 4 ft. by 3 ft. to a diameter of 10 ft. The Effra branches are 2 1/2 miles long, and the size varies from 1 ft. to 4 ft. The area drained by these two sewers amounts to 20 square miles. At this junction these sewers are carried under Deptford Creek in four large cast-iron pipes, and the sewers then flow along the southern outfall sewer, to where it is raised from 10 ft. to 20 ft., according to the state of the tide, and is thus carried into the river from an area it eventually reaches the river. The remaining sewer, known as the southern low-level sewer, drains the low-lying districts extending from Putney, Wandsworth, Battersea, Lambeth, Walworth, and Croydon, to Deptford, where the low ground around Rotherhithe and Bermondsey is drained by the Bermondsey branch sewer. The length of the southern low-level sewer is 6 1/2 miles, and that of the Bermondsey branch 2 1/2 miles. The size of the low-level sewer varies from 4 ft. to two culverts each 7 ft. by 7 ft., and the diameter of this Bermondsey branch varies between 3 ft. and 5 ft. 6 in. The area drained by the two combined is about 20 square miles. Both pass under Deptford Creek, and at the adjacent pumping station the sewage is raised by steam power to the height of 18 ft., and discharged into the southern outfall sewer. At the pumping station there are four engines, each of 125 horsepower, and the amount of sewage which can be raised each minute is 1,000,000 cu. ft. The length of the southern outfall sewer is 7 1/2 miles, and it is uniformly 14 ft. in diameter. It is stated in the City of London, plainly stated in the Joint Report on the Main Drainage of London, which was presented to the London County Council in 1881 by Sir Benjamin Baker, K.C.M.G., and Mr. Hind of the present Civil Engineer to the Council.

This states that "The collective discharge of the southern low level and Bermondsey branch sewer is about 4,000 cu. ft. a minute, which is lifted easily by the existing pumping plant of the Deptford station. The total discharging power, however, of the high level and Effra branch sewers is about 30,000 cu. ft. per minute, of which only 8,000 cu. ft. per minute can pass through the cast-iron pipes under Deptford Creek, so that when in two sewers are fully charged there must occur an overflow into the river at Deptford to the amount of 28,000 cu. ft. per minute. The total discharge of the southern outfall sewer, extending from the pumping station at Deptford to Croydon, is 10 ft. per minute, but as the sewer receives from the districts of Greenwich, Charlton, Plumstead, and Nunhead, and Croydon, an estimated flow of about 3,000 cu. ft. per minute, its capacity to carry forward from Deptford to Croydon is 7,000 cu. ft. per minute. Sewage flowing from the southern outfall and Effra branches is only about 15,000 cu. ft. per minute. It is evident that in this case there is a very potent source of sewage pollution of the river.



Air-tight Case Making. Fig. 81.—Vertical Section of Case. Fig. 82.—Horizontal Section of Case made in Sections. Fig. 83.—Stopped Moulding on Angles of Case.

pattern being provided to cover the screw-heads. This joint should not be glued unless it is to be fixed permanently, as the tongue joint itself is, if properly made, sufficient to exclude all air. Fix both sashes in this way and drop on the cornice and fit in the hanging sash. This done, put in the glass, which should fit tightly and be bedded on a thin layer of

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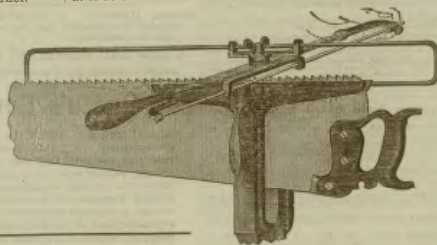


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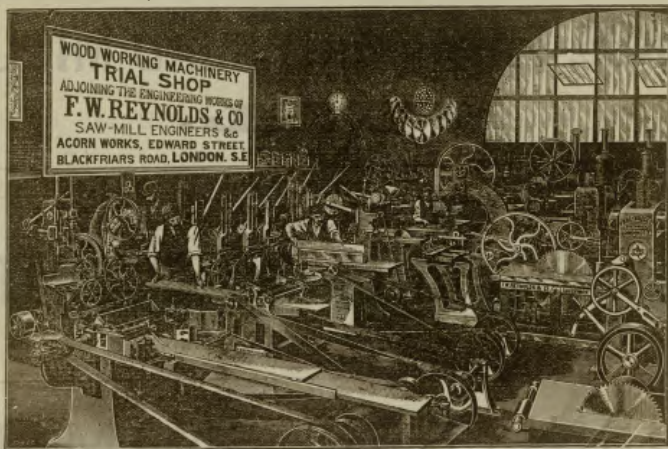
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