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Framed for his Essay on the Shaking
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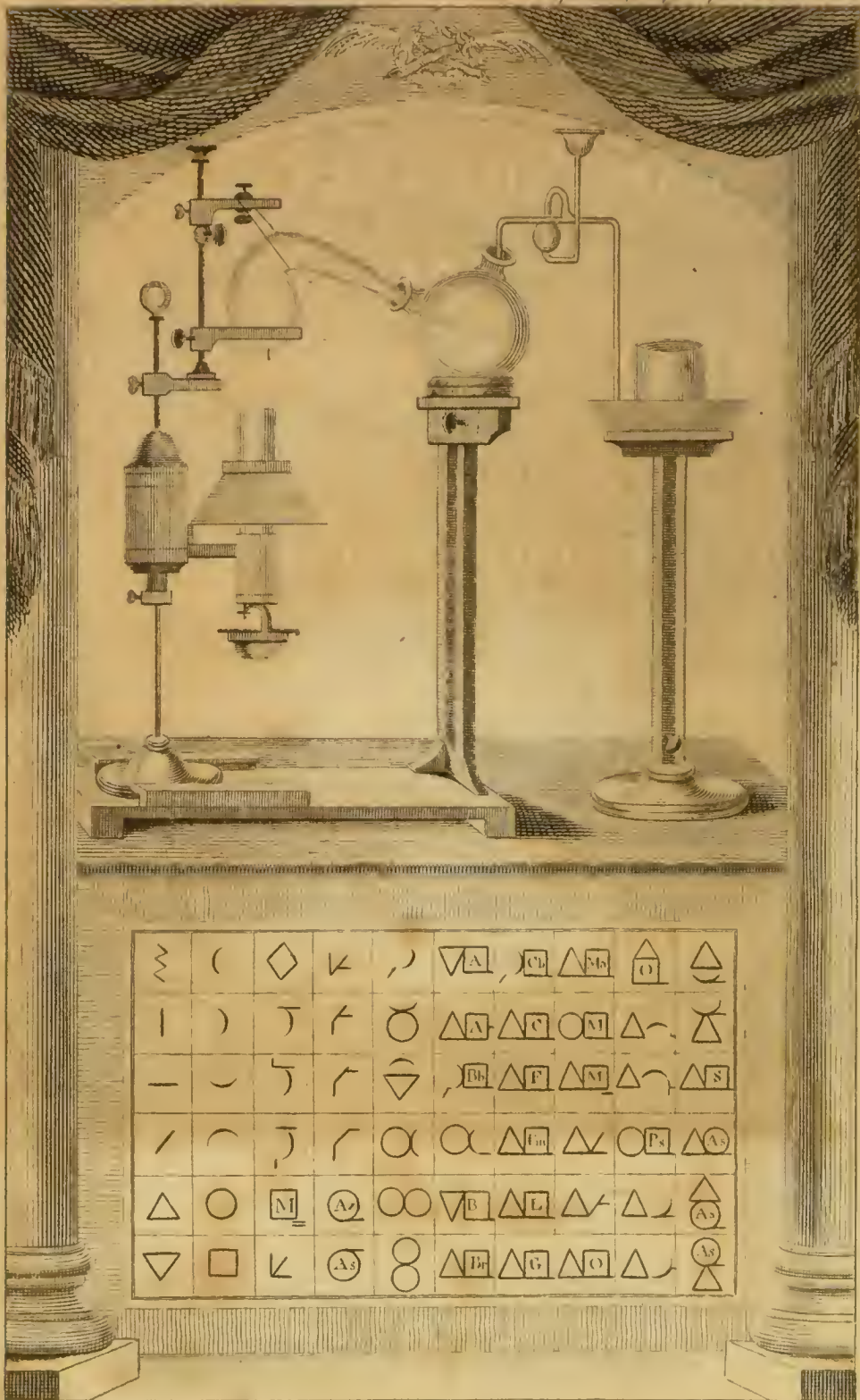


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The Economical Laboratory of Guyton.



The Chemical Characters of Hales's Fiat: 13. Adet.

THE
CHEMICAL POCKET BOOK;
OR
MEMORANDA CHEMICA:
ARRANGED IN A
COMPENDIUM OF CHEMISTRY.



BY JAMES PARKINSON, HOXTON.

Printed and Published by J. G. & J. S. 1809.

*Fourth Edition,
with the latest Discoveries.*

LONDON,

*Pub. by Sherwood, Neely, & Jones, (Successors to M^r. H. D. Symonds.)
Paternoster Row.*

J. Murray, J. Hightley, J. Ridgway, J. Callow,

E. Cox, & J. & J. Arch.

1809.



181104-1879. a/c

DESCRIPTION

OF

THE PLATE.

IN the upper part of the plate is represented THE ECONOMIC LABORATORY OF GUYTON, which may be seen to consist of an Argand's lamp, and a frame-work with a ring, in which a *retort* is suspended over the lamp. The retort is connected with its *receiver*, in which is received whatever on passing over will condense into a *fluid* state. From the receiver proceeds a *tube*, through which the several *gaseous* matters which are extricated pass into their proper *recipient*. To prevent the escape of the gas, this tube passing through *water*, or (if the gas is susceptible of absorption by water) through QUICKSILVER, which is contained in the PNEUMATIC *trough*, opens underneath the receiver, which is a glass vessel inserted in the fluid contained in the trough. To prevent any accident arising from the difference between the elasticity of the contents of the vessels and that of the external air, the *reversed syphon* or *tube of safety* of WELTER is employed, which acts in this manner. Into the upper bell-shaped vessel, which is nearly of the same magnitude as the bulb at the lower end of the tube, a quantity of suitable fluid, somewhat less than the contents of that vessel, is put. Then, if the elasticity of the contents of the vessels be less than that of the external air, the fluid will descend into the bulb, and atmospheric air will follow, and pass through the fluid into the vessels; but, on the contrary, if

the elasticity of the contents be greater, the fluid will be either sustained in the tube, or driven into the bell-shaped vessel; and if the force be strong enough, the gaseous matter will pass through the fluid, and in part escape. Thus is formed the PNEUMATOCHEMICAL APPARATUS. By reversing the framework, removing that piece to which the neck of the retort was suspended, and shortening the glass chimney of the lamp, the apparatus is rendered fit to perform *evaporation* or *saline fusion*, a CAPSULE of glass, platina, &c. being placed on the ring instead of the retort: or, a triangle of iron being placed on the ring, a small CRUCIBLE may be substituted.

The tablet in the lower compartment of the plate exhibits the characters employed by *Hassenfratz* and *Adet*, for the symbolical expression of the subjects of chemistry, and of their affinities and composition.

The first character, in the first column, denotes LIGHT; the one beneath it CALORIC, to which succeed OXYGEN and NITROGEN. These four are *simple substances, which may exist in a gaseous state at the ordinary state of the atmosphere*. The next denotes FIXED ALKALI, which, by the central insertion of the initial letter, serves to denote *pot-ash, soda, &c.* The last character in this column is that of SIMPLE EARTHS, which by the initial letter is made to denote *lime, silica, or any other simple earth*.

The four first characters in the second column denote *simple combustible substances, commonly called inflammable, in this order, CARBON, HYDROGEN, SULPHUR, PHOSPHORUS*.—The next character is a circle denoting METALS, a point in the centre denoting GOLD, and the initial letter placed in the same manner distinguishing all the others. The next character, a square, denotes *radical acidifiable compounds, whose bases are but little known, such as the MURIATIC, BORACIC, &c.* the particular radical being marked by descriptive letters in the centre.

The first character of the third column, a lozenge, denotes *certain compound substances not having acidifiable bases,*

nor having been yet compounded by synthesis; these are ETHER, ALCOHOL, FIXED OIL, VOLATILE OIL, BITUMEN, MUCUS, and are also denoted by their initial letters.

The quantity of caloric rendering a substance fluid is marked, by placing the sign of caloric at the upper part of the sign of the substance thus affected by it; and the quantity which renders it gaseous is implied, by placing the sign for caloric at the bottom. The rule for this purpose being, that the greater quantities should always be placed in the lower position, and the smaller quantity in the higher.

The PRESENCE OF OXYGEN is denoted by the addition of the *horizontal line*, which is the character denoting it; if this be separated by a *small break*, and placed *lower than the other character*, a SUPER-OXYGENATION is implied; and the *higher* it is placed, the *less the degree of supposed acidity*. To illustrate this the second character is that of water in its simplest state (ice) being made by joining the characters of oxygen and hydrogen; it is followed by that of *fluid* water, and of water in state of *gas*, by the proper disposition of the symbol representing caloric. The fifth in this column is the character marking OXYGENIZED MURIATIC ACID, and is followed by NITRIC ACID.

The first in the fourth column is that of NITROUS ACID, followed by NITROUS ACID GAS, NITROUS OXIDE GAS, and OXIDULE or OXIDE OF NITROGEN GAS. In this manner is designated all the other compounds of oxygen and caloric with different bodies. Thus, for farther illustration of this point, the fifth character denotes *concrete arsenic* ACID, and the sixth, OXIDE of *arsenic*.

The first character of the fifth column is that of AMMONIA, formed by *Hydrogen* and *Nitrogen*; the second is that of SULPHURETS; the third, of PHOSPHURETS; the fourth, of CARBURETS; the fifth, of AMALGAMS; and the sixth, of ALLOYS.

The first character of the sixth column is that of ACETATES, this character being formed by the union of that of

ACETIC ACID and EARTH, denotes an *acetate with an earthy base*: this is followed by ACETITES, BOMBIATES, CARBONATES, BENZOATES, and BORATES.

The seventh column contains CAMPHORATES, CITRATES, FLUATES, FORMIATES, LACTATES, and GALLATES, in the order here mentioned.

The eighth column contains MALATES, MURIATES, OXYMURIATES, NITRATES, NITRITES, and OXALATES.

The ninth contains ACIDULOUS OXALATES, PHOSPHATES, PHOSPHITES, PRUSSIATES, SULPHATES, and SULPHITES.

The tenth contains ACIDULOUS SULPHATES, SULPHATES WITH EXCESS OF BASE, SUCCINATES, ARSENIATES, ACIDULOUS ARSENIATES, ARSENIATES WITH EXCESS OF BASE.

The characters for the remaining compounds of *alkaline, earthy, or metallic bases*, with the TARTARIC, MOLYBDIC, TUNGSTIC, CHROMIC, SUBERIC, ZOONIC ACIDS, &c. may be easily inferred from an attentive consideration of the formation of the characters already described.

PREFACE.

THE following assemblage of Chemical Facts was formed, with the hope of rendering it an agreeable Pocket Companion for the Lovers of Chemistry in general; and more particularly so for those who may be just engaging in the study of this most useful and interesting science. To the latter it was hoped it might furnish, like a bird's eye view to a traveller, a general knowledge of the relation and connection of the several parts of that region, which is intended to become the object of a nearer and closer investigation.

Although it is thus hoped, that this little work will convey a general and correct idea of the science, it is not, however, expected to supersede the use of some other elementary works, differing, in some respects, in their object, or in their mode

of conveying the proposed instruction. Thus to those persons who wish to acquire a knowledge of the principles of analysis and of operative chemistry, the Practical Essay on the Analysis of Minerals, by Mr. Accum, and the much improved Epitome of Chemistry, by Mr. Henry, will be highly useful. To those who wish to trace the processes of nature; and to notice the application of science to the improvement of the arts, the familiar work of Mr. Parkes, The Chemical Catechism, will yield much gratification; and to those who, having acquired a general knowledge of the science from these pages, are anxious to procure more particular information, the excellent System of Chemistry, of Dr. Thomson, will prove highly satisfactory.

The obligations of the Editor to the best Chemical Writers of the age are obvious: it is, however, necessary to particularise that these memoranda have been enriched by a careful collation with the Course of Lectures on Chemistry, delivered at the Royal Institution of Great Britain, by Mr. Davy. Whilst thus pointing out those to whom his acknowledgment of obligations are due, gratitude and honest pride impel him, respectfully, to mention the names of Wol-

laston, Chevenix, Hatchett, Babington, Crichton, Pearson, and Powell.

Like the bee, he has roved freely, in search of materials ; and shall be highly gratified if it appear, that he has even faintly imitated its skill in selection and arrangement.

May this little Compendium lead fresh admirers into the delightful walks which are to be found in this department of science, where wide scenes of interest and amusement are constantly opening upon the mind. May it point out the indispensable connection between Chemistry and many of the other sciences ; and the vast advantages a knowledge of its principles may yield to those who are engaged in the useful and profitable arts ; and thereby induce those who are not of the medical profession, to seize the opportunity of obtaining fuller information, by the pleasing and expeditious mode of Public Lectures.

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ERRATA.

Page 51 line 14 for Therrard read Thenard.
Page 155 line 10 for sulphate read sulphite.

CHEMISTRY.

CHEMISTRY is the Science which discovers the constituent principles of bodies, the results of their various combinations, and the laws by which those combinations are effected.

Chemical inquiries are prosecuted by certain operations or processes; which are performed either by ANALYSIS, or *Decomposition*, or by SYNTHESIS, or *Composition*. These operations depend on the affinities, or powers of attraction, which act on bodies, and on the elementary parts of bodies.

THE ATTRACTION OF AGGREGATION is that by which the homogeneous particles of bodies are united.

THE ATTRACTION OF COMPOSITION, called also **CHEMICAL ATTRACTION**, is that by which the heterogeneous particles of bodies are united. Its action is inversely as that of the attraction of aggregation, since its operation must necessarily be impeded by that force of aggregation which allows but few of the ultimate molecules to be exposed to its influence. The general principles, or laws by which this power acts, are, according to *Lavoisier*, the following:

1. *It unites bodies of different natures.* Thus acids combine with alkalies, alkalies with sulphur, metals with acids, &c.
2. *It only takes place between the ultimate molecules of bodies.* Agreeable to this law, a state of extreme division is necessary in bodies thus acted upon.
3. *The Attraction of Composition may take place between two or more bodies.* The possible number of combinations thus resulting from the various intermixture of fifty-seven indecomposable bodies, considered as being combined two and two,

three and three, four and four, five and five, will yield 4,612,972 compounds.

4. *To allow the Attraction of Composition to take place between two bodies, it is, in general, necessary, that one of the two, at least, be in a fluid state.* The subsequent solution in this case depends not on any superior power possessed by that body, which is termed the *solvent*, but results from the reciprocal action of the molecules of the two bodies on each other.

5. *When two or more bodies unite or combine together, their temperature changes at the moment the attraction of composition acts between them.* The compounds, which thus manifest an increase of temperature, part with their heat, and therefore contain less than was possessed by their components: whilst those which have their temperature diminished, absorb and retain a greater portion than their components.

6. *The compounds formed by chemical attraction acquire new properties, different from those of the bodies of which they are composed.* This difference may exist not only in the taste, but in the consistence, smell, form, colour, fusibility, &c. The properties of the compound never exist in a medium state, with respect to the bodies of which it is composed.

7. *The Attraction of Composition is measured by the force required for the separation of the component parts.* This force is not to be estimated by the quantity of time required for the combination; but rather by circumstances noticed in the consideration of the next law.

By obtaining a knowledge of the powers of these respective affinities, the result of different combinations may be previously ascertained. This knowledge is obtained by measuring the difficulty with which combinations are destroyed, on the application of other substances. Thus an acid may be preserved in union with a metal, by a certain degree of elective attraction; but on an alkali being presented to this compound, a decomposition takes place, the alkali immediately unites with the acid, forming a new combination, and manifesting a *superior degree of attraction*; the metal being at the same time separated in a

precipitate. This is termed a case of *decomposition* by SINGLE ELECTIVE ATTRACTION, or *simple Affinity*, in which one of two principles is displaced by a third.

But when two bodies, each consisting of two principles, suffer decomposition by a reciprocal exchange and union of their elements, by which two new compound bodies are produced, this change is said to be affected by DOUBLE ELECTIVE ATTRACTION, or *double Affinity*. Mr. Kirwan employs the term, *Quiescent Affinity*, to mark that, by virtue of which, the principles of each compound adhere to each other; and *Divellent Affinity*, to distinguish that by which the principles of one body unite, and change order with those of the other.

8. *Different degrees of attraction act between different bodies, and may be marked by observation.* By a careful examination of the circumstances referable to this law much light is thrown on the various phænómena of chemistry. A body being presented to two bodies already united by the attraction of composition, 1. it occasions no change—or 2. it becomes united, and forms a ternary compound. In the first of these cases, the newly added substance manifests a weaker degree of attraction for either of the two component substances, than that which unites them together. In the second case, an equal degree of attraction only is marked.—or 3. it unites with one of the two principles, and forms a new compound, which separates from the other principle—or 4. it unites to only a part of one of the principles of the compound, of which it only alters the proportion, and at the same time forms a new compound with that portion of the principle it has seized. In the two last cases, the attraction is evidently stronger between the newly added body and one of the two bodies forming the compound, and the decomposition appears to be the effect of a preference of the newly added body for one of the two principles of the existing compound.

In both the third and fourth cases just mentioned, if the substances are in a state of solution, the separated body falls to the bottom of the fluid in which its principles had been before

suspended; this is termed *precipitation*. The sediment is termed *the precipitate*, and the substance added, *the precipitant*.

But it should be remembered, that the precipitate is not always formed of one of the principles of the former compound, separated in a *pure* state; but it may be formed by a new compound, indissoluble in that portion of fluid. But a decomposition may take place, whilst all the substances being soluble, no precipitate is formed; and in other cases the separated principles may even, instead of being precipitated, be raised in the form of vapour.

What has been here said refers only to the operations in the *humid way*, where substances are employed in a fluid state, since in the *dry way* the effects come not so evidently under our observation and judgment.

9. *The Attraction of Composition is in an inverse proportion to the saturation of one body by another.* That is, the first portion of that body which is united to another body adheres with more force than the second, the second than the third, &c. attraction becoming so much more feeble as the approach is made nearer to saturation. Hence, in every decomposition, the last portions added are most easily separated, whilst those which were first attracted are strongly retained. Agreeable to this law is the fact, that, the greater the degree of attraction is of one body for another, the less quantity of that body is required for its saturation.

10. *The decomposition may take place between two compounds, which are not decomposed reciprocally by a double elective attraction, if the attraction of two of the principles for a third principle exceeds that which unites that third principle to one of the two other principles, although even at the moment of action the union of these two has not existed.* An attraction is here supposed between a binary compound, not yet formed, and another body united to a fourth principle. Thus in the compounds N O and P Q, the attraction which unites N to O, and P to Q, exceeds the divellent attrac-

tions of O to P, and N to Q; but if the force tending to unite O and P together added to that which tends to unite the compound O P to Q is more considerable than that which originally united N O and P Q, there will be a decomposition: the ternary compound O P Q will be formed, and one of the components, N, must be separated.—*Fourcroy*, 1802.

Berthollet has discovered, that the affinities of bodies are affected by the proportion in which the bodies are employed: thus a body, in a quantity proportionably large, may effect the decomposition of a compound, which it would not do in a less quantity; the quantity of the mass compensating for weakness of affinity.

He has also ascertained, that the opposing substances divide that body which is the subject of combination—Insolubility, cohesion, and crystallization, modify the conditions of chemical action, by limiting the quantity of a substance to be brought into action in a liquid—Elasticity, by separating a part in an elastic state, which no longer affords any resistance, modifies the effects of affinity, in an opposite direction to the former—Solvents, water for instance, dissolve, according to their quantity, as well as affinity—The action of heat concurs with those of solvents in opposing the force of cohesion; and, lastly, that—the quantity of a precipitate may depend on the proportion which the action of that particular fluid bears to the force of cohesion in the precipitate.

Tables of affinities having been constructed, without an attention to the proportions and the other conditions which contribute to the results; these tables give a false idea of the degrees of chemical action.—*Annales de Chimie*, 1801.

EARTHS.

THE Earths are of two kinds: those which possess simply the characters of earths, being dry, tasteless, inodorous, incombustible, nearly insoluble in water, and not more than five times heavier than water: and those which with these characters

possess also the characters of alkalies, having a strong taste, and being readily soluble in water, and turning vegetable blues, green. The former we shall consider as *Earths* simply, and the latter as *alkaline earths*. The first of these are five in number.

1. SILICA, is the earth which chiefly forms flint, *quartz*, rock crystal, and many of the gems. It is white, of a rough and harsh feel. Sp. gr. 2,66. It neither combines with *oxygen*, the *simple combustibles*, nor *metals*; nor is it acted on by *nitrogen*. The *phosphoric* and *boracic* acids unite with it by fusion; but it is dissolved by no other acid but the *fluoric*: and yet an alkaline solution of this earth admits of supersaturation with an acid, particularly the *muriatic*, without any precipitation. When newly precipitated it is soluble in 1000 parts of water. Alone it is infusible, or nearly so; but fuses readily with *fixed alkalies*, which act on it even in the moist way. It combines with *barytes*, *strontia*, *lime*, and *alumine*; and, in most violent heats, with *magnesia*. It also may be fused by being joined with *lime* and *alumine*. To obtain this earth pure, it should be precipitated from its alkaline solution by muriatic acid.

2. ALUMINE, or *Earth of Alum*, is the true *argillaceous* part of common clay. When pure it is smooth, and has an unctuous feel. It is tasteless, and has no smell, except when it contains oxide of iron. It is sometimes found native in blue transparent crystals. It is not soluble in *water*. Sp. gr. 2,00. When heated it diminishes in bulk, and, it is said, may be so hardened by fire as to give sparks with steel.

It combines with most *acids*, though with difficulty, uniting best during precipitation. With the *sulphuric* it forms *alun*, but with the *nitric* and *muriatic* it crystallizes difficultly.

It is not affected by *oxygen*, or *nitrogen*, nor does it combine with the *metals*, or the *simple combustibles*. It is indeed found native in combination with *charcoal*. It combines with the *alkalies*, and the *alkaline earths*.

3. ZIRCONIA is found in the stone called *Jargon*, from Ceylon, and in the *Hyacinth*. It is a white, tasteless, and ino-

clorous substance, and possesses roughness and hardness similar to silica, but, in many respects, it resembles alumine. Sp. gr. 4,3.

It unites with all the *acids*. It is insoluble in *water*, but when precipitated it retains a quantity of water, which gives it the appearance of gum arabic.

It is almost infusible alone, but melts with *borate of soda*. Neither the *alkalies* nor the *alkaline phosphates* aid its fusion. It is however soluble in *alkaline carbonates*.

4. GLUCINE was discovered in the *Beryl*, by *Vauquelin*. It is a fine white soft substance, infusible and insoluble in water. Like alumine it is dissolved in *pot-ash* and *soda*; but not in *pure ammonia*, although in its *carbonate*. Sp. gr. 2,967. It is dissolved by *sulphuretted hydrogen*. Its affinities for *acids* appear to be intermediate, between those of magnesia and alumine. Its salts are of a sweetish taste, from which circumstance it derives its name.

5. YTTRIA, discovered in 1794 by *M. Gadolin*, in a stone termed GADOLINITE, possesses neither taste nor smell. It is infusible alone; but forms, with *borax*, a white glass. It is not soluble in the *pure alkalies*, but is in the *alkaline carbonates*.

The *oxalic acid* also separates it in a dull, thick precipitate, like the muriate of silver: and its precipitation is also produced by the *prussiate of pot-ash*. These last circumstances distinguish it from glucine.

It combines with acids, forming salts of a red colour; perhaps from its contamination with *manganese*.

The ALKALINE EARTHS are four in number.

1. MAGNESIA, when pure, is very light and white. Sp. gr. 2,3. It requires 2000 times its weight of water to hold it in solution: it will, however, combine with a considerable proportion of *water*, and still preserve a solid state. It changes delicate vegetable blues to green. It combines with all the *acids*, the *sulphuric* taking it from the *nitric*, or *muriatic*, without form-

ing a precipitate. It produces the most intense heat in its mixture with the concentrated acids, giving out a vivid red light.

It is infusible alone, but is fused when mixed with the *phosphate*, or *borate of soda*, and without effervescence. It does not combine with *barytes*, *strontia*, *lime*, the *fixed alkalies*, nor with any of the *simple combustibles*, except with *sulphur*. It enters into triple compounds with *ammonia*.

2. LIME, when perfectly pure, is termed *QUICK LIME*. To obtain it in that state, it must be long exposed to a strong heat. It is then white, moderately hard and brittle, and its specific gravity 2,3. It yields a hot burning taste, changes violets green, and corrodes animal and vegetable substances. It heats and bursts by the application of water, 100 grains absorbing and solidifying 28,7 of water, and thereby becoming *SLAKED LIME*; during this change a degree of light may be discovered in the dark.

It is less soluble in *water*, and has a weaker affinity with *acids* than *strontia* and *baryt*.

Water dissolves about 0,002 parts of its weight of lime: this solution, which is called *LIME WATER*, has rather an acrid taste; one ounce troy of lime water contains about one grain of lime.

Lime combines with all the *acids*, particularly with the *nitric* and *muriatic*: these solutions crystallize difficultly, and yield the lime to the *sulphuric*.

It has no attraction for *oxygen*, *nitrogen*, or *hydrogen*. It absorbs the *carbonic acid* of the atmosphere, slowly passing to the state of carbonate. It combines with *sulphur*, *phosphorus*, and the *metallic oxides*. It does not combine with the *alkalies*, nor with *barytes* nor *strontia*.

Lime, alone, is infusible, it may however be fused when joined with *silica* and *clay*. Mixed with *borate* or *phosphate of soda*, it is fused without effervescence. From the smell yielded by the slaking of lime, and from delicate vegetable blues being changed on being held over it, whilst this process is performed,

there seems to be reason to believe that the lime is, in a small degree, converted into vapour, whilst combining with water.

3. BARYTES, also termed from its high specific gravity *ponderous earth*, is more caustic than lime, and absorbs water eagerly, forming a very tenacious cement. When free from water, it is infusible in the strongest heat. It is about four times as heavy as water. When covered with *water* it is dissolved with a hissing noise, and crystallizes in long, transparent, four-sided prisms, forming a compages like beaten plaster. It unites with *phosphorus* and *sulphur*, but not with the other *simple combustible bodies*. It is soluble in *alcohol*, and gives a yellow colour to its flame; it is dreadfully poisonous.

It does not combine with the *alkalies*; but has the greatest affinity with the *acids* of all alkaline or earthy substances.

4. STRONTIA is obtained from its carbonate by intense ignition with charcoal; when it appears in greyish, ponderous, porous fragments, possessing an alkaline causticity. Sp. gr. 1,647. It greedily attracts *water*, which it employs in crystallization, and is specifically heavier than lime. It is visibly precipitated from its solution in 200 parts of water, yielding mostly compressed rhomboidal crystals. It does not separate lime from acids.

It dissolves readily in the *nitric* and *muriatic* acids, producing much heat, and forms by the addition of the *sulphuric*, an insoluble precipitate: it decomposes, in the moist way, all the saline compounds of the sulphuric acid.

It does not combine with the *alkalies*, *barytes*, nor with the *simple combustibles*, except with *sulphur* and *phosphorus*.

Alone it does not fuse, but glitters with a strong phosphoric flame; but it may be fused if it be mixed with most of the earths.

Either alone, or in combination, it gives a rose-coloured tinge to flames of bodies in combustion.

A new earth was supposed to have been found in the Saxon beryl, and in some other mineral substances; and which, from its saline combinations being supposed to be tasteless, obtained

the name of AGUSTINE: but from an analysis of the Saxon beryl, Vauquelin is led to conclude that the supposed Agustine is nothing but phosphate of lime.—*Annales de Chimie*, N° 144.

ALKALIES.

ALKALIES, whose general characteristics are, 1. an acrid taste; 2. changing the vegetable blues green; 3. solubility in water, both when pure and when combined with carbonic acid; and 4. rendering oils miscible with water; are divided into *volatile* and *fixed*.

The VOLATILE ALKALI or AMMONIA will be fully treated of, when examining the principles of which it is composed.

FIXED ALKALIES have for their peculiar characteristics, 1st, Their not being volatilized but by the most intense heat. 2dly, The forming of glass when fused with flinty substances.

1. POT-ASH is obtained by washing the ashes of burnt vegetables, or of the lees, or of the tartar of wine. When obtained from the two latter substances it has been called the *Salt of Tartar*, and when it has become fluid by imbibing moisture, which it does eagerly, it has improperly been termed *Oil of Tartar, per deliquium*. Pot-ash, when heated, melts; and with a strong heat acquires a greenish tinge, and evaporates slowly. Sp. gr. 1,7085.

To obtain pot-ash pure it must be boiled with twice its weight of quicklime, to deprive it of carbonic acid; then, to free it from other impurities, it must be dissolved in spirits of wine, and the solution evaporated to dryness in a silver vessel. It is then pure and most powerfully caustic.

No action appears to take place between pot-ash and *oxygen*, *nitrogen*, or *hydrogen*; nor does it combine with *carbon* unless by the intervention of *hydrogen*. It acts but feebly on *phos-*

phorus, but promotes the decomposition of *water* when mixed with this substance. The action between it and *sulphur* is much more powerful. It combines with many of the *metallic oxides*, and with all the *acids*; and is rapidly dissolved in *water*. It dissolves *silex*, and *alumine*, even in the moist way; but it has no action on *zircon*, *glucine*, *lime*, or *magnesia*. Triturated with substances containing *nitrogen* combined with *hydrogen*, it promotes their union, and the formation of ammonia; it uniting with the other principles, which become more or less oily.

It crystallizes: and if spontaneously, in octahedrons; if with heat, in very thin, large transparent blades.

2. SODA is sometimes found in a formed state, but in general it is obtained by the combustion of maritime plants, particularly of the *salsula soda*. It differs from pot-ash in not being deliquescent, and in efflorescing in the air, from which it absorbs carbonic acid; but it resembles pot-ash in almost every other respect. It is obtained in a state of purity by the same method as pot-ash.

On the mixture of any of the alkalies with *sulphuric*, *nitric*, or *oxygenized muriatic acids*, a considerable degree of heat is produced, light being evolved at the same time.

Professor *Klaproth* has discovered *pot-ash* in the fossil called *leucite*. It has been found in *lepidolite*, *green feldspar*, *basaltes*, *lava*, *pumice*, and *zeolite*. Professor *Abilgaart* found that the *pot-ash* formed a constituent part of animal blood.

GLASS is a combination of *silica* with *fixed alkali*: Soda is the alkali in general employed. The mixture is first well calcined, when it is called *frit*; then after complete fusion it becomes *glass-metul*; and the extraneous salts which float on its surface are named *glass-gall*: When formed into the required shapes, it is *annealed* or *tempered* by being placed in a furnace of an appropriate heat.

The fineness of the glass depends on the purity and propor-

tion of the ingredients. A fine crystal glass may be obtained from 16 parts of quartz, 8 of pure pot-ash, 6 of calcined borax, 3 of flake white, and 1 of nitre.

By an over proportion of alkali, 4 to 1 for instance, the glass will become soluble in water, and even deliquescent. Thus dissolved, it is called *liquor silicum*, or *liquor of flints*. Professor *Siegling* having left a bottle of this liquor undisturbed eight years, found transparent rock crystals formed on it, which gave fire with steel. From this solution, pure silica may be precipitated by the addition of any acid.

Guyton has also shewn, that concentrated alkaline solutions of silica and alumine mixed in equal proportions produce a firm, gelatinous mass, perfectly insoluble in water, but soluble in concentrated or diluted acids, and even in distilled vinegar ; so altered is the silica.

An affinity, varying in its degree, exists between the different earths ; and between the earths and alkalies : and the mixtures which result from hence vary much in their degrees of fusibility, which however cannot be taken as the measure of their affinities ; several earths which have a strong affinity with each other, not forming mixtures that are fusible.

The ALKALINE EARTHS, like the alkalies, combine with *alumine* and *silica*, but shew no affinity for each other.

BARYTES combines with *alumine* by boiling in water, and two compounds are formed ; one, in solution, with barytes in excess : the other an insoluble powder with alumine in excess. *Barytes* and *silica* fuses in a friable apple-green mass, soluble in the acids, but insoluble in water. Being boiled together, a compound, in solution, with excess of barytes ; and another, an insoluble powder with excess of *silica* are formed. It is generally found *native* in combination with *acids*, but sometimes with *silica* ; its affinity for this earth is so great as to separate silica from pot-ash.

STRONTIA appears to possess similar affinities for the other earths with barytes. It is always found *native* combined with acids.

LIME also has a strong affinity for alumine and silica. *Alumine* unites with the lime of lime-water, and forms an insoluble compound; and being mixed with lime, the solution of both with the fixed alkali is facilitated. Lime-water being mixed with a solution of *silica* in pot-ash, a precipitate composed of the two earths is deposited, which is insoluble in water, but dissolves in the acids, even in distilled vinegar. It is most frequently found native with acid excepting in *tremolite*, which is a combination of silica and carbonate of lime: the earthy compounds containing lime generally consist of lime, alumine, and silica.

MAGNESIA has a strong affinity for *alumine*, but manifests none for the other earths. Unlike lime, it impedes the solution of alumina in pot-ash. It forms a fusible compound with *silica*; but its mixture with *barytes*, *strontia*, *lime* or *alumine* is not fusible in the heat of our furnaces.

ALUMINE has an affinity for the *alkaline earths*, *magnesia*, and *silica*. When solutions of *alumine* and of *silica* in *pot-ash* are mixed together, the mixture becomes opaque and gelatinous, and the precipitate contains both alumine and silica; insoluble in water, but soluble in acids, even in vinegar. Alumine facilitates the solution of silica in pot-ash. It will only enter into fusion with lime, except in the case of triple earthy mixtures.

SILICA, as already observed, has an affinity for the *alkaline earths*, and *alumina*. It has also an affinity for *zirconia*. Alumina is the only earth with which it does not fuse.

Some of the strong earthy combinations fuse, at a certain degree of heat; but under the same, or even a higher degree, become again solid, and undergo a second fusion at a much higher temperature. Sir James Hall has discovered an interesting fact. Some minerals if cooled rapidly after fusion become a vitreous substance, more easily fusible than the original substances; but if cooled slowly they approximate to the original substance in appearance and properties.

COMMON CLAY is a mixture of alumine and silica. It is chiefly with clay that *bricks* and *tiles* are made. With pure clay and fine sand, *stone ware* is made; such as English and Delft ware.

LIGHT.

LIGHT is a substance, the particles of which are small, repulsive of each other, and elastic: being *reflected* from bodies which they cannot penetrate, in an angle of reflection equal to the angle of incidence. It is projected in every direction from radiant bodies, passing through 167,000 miles in a second. In its passage near any other substance, it is affected by attraction, and suffers a greater or less degree of *inflection*. In its passage from one medium into another of a different degree of density, it suffers *refraction* or a change in its direction. Combustible bodies possess the greatest power of producing this refraction. From their possessing this refracting power, the immortal Newton concluded the diamond to be of a combustible nature, and that even water contained combustible matter.

Solar light is divisible by the prism into seven primitive rays, which are refrangible in the following order: red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, and violet, the red being the least, and the violet the most refrangible. It is also possessed of chemical affinities, by which it enters into combination with other substances, and becomes one of their constituent parts: sometimes occasioning their decomposition, and sometimes being itself extricated from its combinations.

The experiments of Mr. Canton, made long since with his phosphorus, manifested that light enters into the composition of bodies, as one of their constituent parts. Dr. Hulme has lately instituted a set of ingenious experiments on the natural

phosphori, such as fish passing into the state of putrefaction, rotten wood, &c. and shews that they part with this constituent principle, during their decomposition : the light becoming visible, on its extrication. Sea water, solution of Epsom salts, &c. appear to act as menstrua, by which its separation is promoted, and through which it becomes thoroughly diffused by agitation ; motion always rendering the light more vivid. This light may be extinguished by the addition of various substances, particularly by a *strong* solution of the salts, and may be again revived, in a moment, by a sufficient dilution. It is also extinguished for a time by cold, but is again restored by a moderate temperature. A certain degree of heat, he also found, would extinguish it. This escape of light produced no effect on the thermometer.—*Phil. Trans.* 1800.

The Doctor has since ascertained, that *oxygen gas* does not augment the splendour of this kind of light ; that *nitrogen gas* extinguishes the light of rotten wood, and prevents the flesh of fish from becoming luminous ; but promotes the splendour of the luminous matter when it is applied upon a cork ; that *hydrogen gas* prevents the emission of this light, and extinguishes it when shining ; that *carbonic acid gas* has also an extinguishing property, as well as *sulphuretted hydrogen gas* ; and that *nitrous gas* possesses this extinguishing power in a still greater degree. He also found that this light was extinguished in proportion as the air was diminished in the receiver of an air pump, and that it returned with the influx of fresh air.

The imbibed light in Canton's phosphorus became very splendid on immersion in water heated to about 110° , but in boiling water, and on iron heated just below shining, it glowed vividly for a moment, and then was extinguished. This imbibed light, he found, appears to be subject to the same laws, as to heat and cold, as the spontaneous light of fishes, glow-worm, &c.—*Phil. Trans.* 1801.

Most bodies are capable of absorbing light, although they do not thus emit it again. But the different coloured rays are

not indiscriminately absorbed ; but different bodies absorb different coloured rays, and reflect the rest.

It materially effects the crystallization of salts, and it reduces the metallic oxides. It is supposed to yield to vegetables their colour, and to contribute much to their odour, taste, combustibility, and resinous principle. It also enables vegetables to emit torrents of pure air. In fact, it possesses such numerous chemical affinities, that there hardly exists any substance, which does not undergo a change from its presence or absence.

If muriate of silver be exposed to the prismatic spectrum, its colour is altered by the violet rays in about one-eightieth part of the time in which it is changed by the red ; and it is remarkable that it is acted on most rapidly immediately beyond the violet rays, and out of the spectrum of the prism. This circumstance has been noticed by Messrs. Ritter and Bockmann, and by Dr. Wollaston. It would appear from it, that, besides the colorific rays, by which bodies are rendered visible, invisible rays exist, possessed of chemical agencies, and of the highest degree of refrangibility, but which are incapable of producing heat. But, in the next section, it will be seen that besides the *colorific* and *deoxidizing* rays, there are rays which may be regarded as *calorific* rays.

Light is evolved during the combination of oxygen with certain combustible bodies ; of the mineral acids with fixed alkalis ; of sulphur with the metals ; and of sulphuric acid with oxygenized muriates. It is indeed emitted in most instances of combustion. It is also manifested by all bodies except the *gases*, at a particular degree of temperature. The grand source of light is the sun and the stars.

Brugnatelli thinks that light is either, 1st, chemically united with bodies ; and in that case separates itself from them in consequence of its affinity with caloric, occasioning what has been termed the *phosphorism of bodies* ; thus, oxide of manganese, calcareous salts, sugar, feathers, cotton, wool, and many other substances shine when placed on a plate of iron heated, but not

to redness. 2dly, Merely accumulated in bodies, and rendered free by an approximation of their parts: thus quicksilver becomes luminous in the barometer; salts shine at the moment they crystallize; sugar, crystals of tartar, borax, and alum, when struck. Light appears also to be thus considerably accumulated in quartz, and in certain plants. 3dly, Accumulated in bodies in a visible state, as in the substances called *light magnets* which imbibe it, and then become luminous in the dark, such are the diamond, blende, the carbuncle, bologna, and Canton's phosphorus, putrid animal matters, decayed wood, &c.—*Annali de Chimica*, 1800.

Some think with *Epicurus*, that LIGHT is a continual emanation of the luminous body, which throws to a distance a portion of its substance: and this is the emission of light adopted by *Newton*. Others, with *Euler*, think it is diffused throughout infinite space, and is thrown into an undulatory state, as air is by sonorous bodies. Some believe it to be an elementary body, and others confound it with fire. *Richter* believes it to be composed of the inflammable principle and caloric. *Prevost*, and others have even endeavoured, but in vain, to estimate its gravity. *Monge*, *Fourcroy*, and Dr. *Leslie*, believe light and caloric to be modifications of the same body: and many connect them as cause and effect. Dr. *Leslie* has adduced many curious experiments in proof of the individuality of light and heat.

Dr. *G. Pearson* describes fire as consisting of caloric and light; and considers light, not as a distinct species of matter, but as a state of caloric, which is manifested by its producing the sensation termed *vision*.—*Phil. Journal, and Phil. Trans.* 1797. *Count Rumford* concludes from his experiments, that the visible changes produced in bodies by the action of the sun's rays, are effected, *not by any chemical combination* of the matter of light with such bodies, but merely by the heat which is generated, or excited, by the light that is absorbed by them.—*Essays on Heat.*

CALORIC.

HEAT, with the various changes produced by it in bodies, is considered, by some, as merely the consequence of certain mechanical changes in bodies; but it is most generally supposed, that these effects depend on a certain matter called CALORIC, or the *Matter of Heat*.

CALORIC appears to be an highly elastic and imponderable substance; and it is so very subtle, that neither has its gravity been yet ascertained, nor its existence, in a simple and uncombined state, been shewn. There can be very little doubt that it radiates with light from the sun: and experiments shew, that, like light, its absorption is affected by the difference of colour and of surface possessed by different bodies. It combines chemically with all bodies, in a quantity proportioned to their affinity with it. By its elastic power, or power of repulsion, it constantly tends to separate the particles of matter; in which it is opposed by the attraction of cohesion: hence attraction of cohesion predominating, the body exists in a *solid* form: caloric existing in such a proportion as to weaken the attraction of cohesion to a certain degree, the body assumes a *liquid* form; and when the quantity of caloric is increased still farther, the body takes a *gaseous* form.

That heat moves, like light, with vast velocity, is inferred from caloric being always found to accompany the rays of light.

Dr. *Herschell* has discovered that the coloured rays of light are possessed of a heating power, and that the least refrangible rays possess this power in the highest degree: this power diminishing as the refrangibility increases; the red rays possessing therefore the greatest, and the violet the smallest power. This property is directly opposite, in this respect, to the property described in the last section, which the rays of light possess, of deoxidizing substances exposed to their action: this

property existing in the rays of light in proportion to their degrees of refrangibility. It is likewise remarkable that as the *deoxidizing power* exists in the highest degree of all at a certain distance beyond the violet ray, and out of the spectrum, so the calorific power is found to exist, at its *maximum*, at about half an inch beyond the termination of the spectrum, by the red rays.

These calorific rays, and which are even regarded as rays of caloric itself, suffer refraction and reflection similar to the rays of light; possessing generally, however, less refrangibility than the rays of light; and having the angle of their reflection equal to the angle of their incidence. This is supposed to be the case not merely with the caloric immediately derived from the sun, but with that which proceeds from common fires, candles, and even hot water, and iron heated not so much as to become lucid. It appears by the experiments of Professor *Pictet*, that the radiation of heat, and even its reflection, takes place independent of light: thus a piece of iron heated, but not so high as to emit any light, being placed in the focus of a concave mirror, will very sensibly affect a thermometer placed in the focus of another mirror opposed to the former. On the same principle, if ice be employed instead of heated iron, the thermometer will be affected in a contrary direction. From this latter experiment it has been conjectured that cold, as a body, is emitted from the ice, and reflected by the mirror. This opinion however appears to be entirely unfounded.

On a lighted candle being thus employed, and a plate of clear glass being placed between the mirrors, the caloric appeared to be intercepted, although the light passed with its usual facility; the thermometer sinking 14° , in nine minutes, and rising 12° , in seven minutes after its removal. Caloric is transmitted through some bodies with unabated rapidity, whilst its passage through others is very considerably retarded; and hence bodies have been named either *good* or *bad conductors*. The cause of this difference has never yet been satisfactorily ascertained. All bodies appear to be capable of conducting

caloric, and fluids also possess the property of conducting it slowly.

Heat constantly tends to form an equilibrium, by passing from bodies of an higher, and diffusing itself through bodies of a lower temperature.

Two bodies of the same nature, unequally heated, on being brought into contact, soon arrive at an equal temperature, the caloric becoming equally divided between them. But when two bodies, differing in their nature, and differing in the quantity of caloric they possess, are thus allowed to form one common temperature by communication, this will not be found to be an arithmetical mean between the two original temperatures; but the one will be found to have required a greater or less quantity of caloric than the other, to render it of the common temperature.

In this way it is found that the quantity of caloric which raises mercury 38° , raises water only 12° ; consequently the caloric which raises the temperature of water 1° , will raise that of the same weight of mercury $3,16^{\circ}$ *. The quantity of caloric which a body thus requires to heat it to a given temperature, is called the *specific caloric* of that body. Thus the quantity of caloric which heats water 1° , heats the same quantity of mercury $3,16^{\circ}$; the specific caloric of water is, therefore, 3,16 times greater than that of mercury; and consequently, if the specific caloric of water be $=1$, that of mercury must be $=0,31$. It is fully established that the specific caloric is different in different bodies. As when bodies manifest the same temperature by the test of the thermometer, the relative quantity of caloric which they contain is, we discover, very different; much ingenuity and acute investigation have been employed to ascertain the absolute quantity of caloric which they contain. These endeavours have not perhaps been, as yet, completely successful.

* The observations here made, are such as Dr. Thompson deduced from his own experiments; and although their result differed from Dr. Crawford's, they differ less than his does from those obtained by others.

Dr. Black discovered, that whenever a *solid becomes a fluid*, a great portion of heat enters into it, which does not affect the thermometer; and that on its *again becoming solid*, this portion of heat quits it, without a diminution of its temperature taking place. Snow at 32° , being mixed with an equal quantity of water at 172° , the snow melts and the mixture is only 32° , so that the water has parted with 140° , which has disappeared, and has combined with the snow, shewing that snow or ice during its change into water, absorbs and indeed combines with 140° of caloric. It also appears that water though cooled down to 32° , does not freeze until it has given out 140° of caloric; on the absorption, or the parting with this dose of caloric, depends therefore the fluidity or solidity of water. Not only the fluidity of such bodies as liquefy, but the softness of such bodies as acquire this state by heat, depends also on the quantity of heat which thus combines with them. The malleability and ductility of metals likewise depends on the same cause. The quantity of heat thus imbibed, Dr. Black calls *latent heat*; since it does not manifest itself by its effects on the thermometer. It has been called by others the *caloric of fluidity*.

At the moment of the chemical union of two different substances, the new compound, not perhaps having the same capacity for caloric as its constituents, must either yield a part to neighbouring bodies, or receive it from them; producing thereby a change in their temperature, which is increased in the former, and diminished in the latter case.

Ice, we have seen, imbibes the caloric of surrounding bodies, until it has imbibed sufficient to render it fluid: the temperature of those bodies descending proportionally. On this principle may be explained the effects of freezing mixtures, of snow and different salts, but particularly of muriate of lime. During the liquefaction of these mixtures, so rapidly and so considerably is the caloric absorbed, as to produce a most extraordinary degree of cold, such as even to solidify quicksilver.

Another change in bodies is effected by the presence of heat:

all liquids, and many solids, assume a gaseous form when heated to a certain temperature; thus water is made to assume the form of vapour, and become 1800 times more bulky than water itself. This change Dr. Black discovered also to depend on a certain portion of heat combining with the liquid, without producing any increase of temperature. The latent heat of steam was ascertained to be at least 940° . The Doctor proved that all liquids, during their change into vapour, combine with a portion of heat without undergoing a change of temperature; and that on their reduction to a liquid state a portion of heat is given out, and likewise without manifesting any change of temperature.

Thus it appears that by a certain dose of caloric solid bodies become liquid, and that by a farther dose they acquire a gaseous form. Hence the general law discovered by Dr. Black, *Whenever a body changes its state, it either combines with caloric, or separates from caloric.*

Dr. Irvine admitted the importance of the facts discovered by Dr. Black; but supposed, that the quantity of heat absorbed by different substances depended on the *capacities* which those substances possessed for heat; and which he ascertained was different, in different substances; and, in the same substance, under different forms. He also believed that the heat thus absorbed does not exist in any peculiar state: he therefore objected to the term *latent heat*, when intended to imply such a circumstance.

It has been also ascertained, that on salts which contain much water in their composition, as muriate of lime, &c. being dissolved in water, the temperature sinks considerably; but if previously deprived of their water the temperature rises. This is to be explained by this law—that when the compound formed by the union of two bodies is more dense or fluid, than the mean density or fluidity of the two bodies before mixture, then the temperature is diminished: but when the fluidity or density becomes less, then the temperature is increased. Thus when

the solution of a mixture of salt and snow is completed, the temperature rises. The whole of these phenomena, as Dr. Thompson observes, as well as the evolution of heat during putrefaction or fermentation, are readily explained by Dr. Black's theory of latent heat.

Setting aside certain particularities of a very few bodies, it may be assumed, that every addition to a body of caloric is succeeded by the expansion of that body; and every abstraction of caloric by a diminution of bulk. Gaseous bodies in general expand most: common air expands 8 times more than water, and liquids expand more than solids, thus the expansion of water is about 45 times greater than that of iron.

Mr. Dalton of Manchester has ascertained, by a simple apparatus, consisting of a graduated glass tube open at one end, at which end mercury is introduced to a given point, the rest of the tube being filled by gaseous matter, the dilatation of which is measured by the quantity of mercury, which is forced out by the application of heat to the gas. Thus he ascertained, that all gaseous bodies suffer the same degree of expansion from the same addition of caloric, under the same circumstances: and that the increase of bulk is $\frac{1}{483}$ part, for 1° elevation of the mercury in the thermometer. M. Gay Lussac also made a series of experiments, the result of which coincided with that of Mr. Dalton's. From these experiments it appears that the expansion of all elastic fluids, including steam of water, vapour of ether, &c. is equal and uniform, and nearly equable.

On this property, the dilatation of bodies by heat, are CALORIMETERS, or THERMOMETERS, formed; the point at which the mercury in the thermometer rests, when placed in contact with any body, shows the degree of dilatation or contraction the mercury has suffered, during the establishment of an equilibrium between it and the body to which it is applied. The temperature of the body being said to be higher or lower according to the effect thus produced.

When graduated in the ordinary way, the thermometer does not give the *exact* measure of the increase of heat; since the

expansion of the mercury for each degree of temperature, increases with the temperature.

Mr. *Wedgwood* constructed a PYROMETER on another principle. It is composed of pieces of nicely ganged clay, which contract by the higher degrees of heat. The scale begins at visible redness, and the extreme heat of a good air-furnace of the ordinary construction is 160° of his scale, or a little more.

At a certain temperature, $42,5$ F. water appears to be at its *maximum* of density, and if heated above or below that point, it undergoes an expansion in both cases: it has been also ascertained that this expansion takes place in the same rate for any number of degrees above or below the point which marks its maximum of density: thus its expansion at 32° , and at 53° , is the same, and it is even the same at 80° , as it is 5° , as has been proved by Mr. Dalton who discovered this curious fact.

Scheele conceived that heat and light were compounds of oxygen and *phlogiston*; but differing in the proportion of their ingredients. Some suppose heat to be a substance of extreme subtilty, penetrating the hardest and densest bodies; whilst its particles repel each other, the more strongly, the nearer they are made to approach. The existence of caloric, as a *distinct species of matter*, seems to be rendered probable by the experiments of Dr. *Herschell*, by which he has appeared to separate heat from light in the solar beams. Dr. *Leslie* on the other hand, believes light and heat to be essentially the same, and that heat is conveyed not by radiation, but by pulsations from the sudden rarefaction of the portion of air next the hot substance. somewhat similar to the vibrations produced by a sonorous body. Heat has by others been supposed to depend merely on certain peculiar vibratory motions among the particles of matter. Dr. *Gibbes* regards it as a compound of *positive* and *negative electricity*.

OXYGEN.

OXYGEN is found only in its combinations, which, from its almost universal agency in the operations of nature, are necessarily numerous. It is absolutely necessary to respiration and combustion; and likewise possesses the property, from which its name is derived, of forming acids by combination with certain substances, which are therefore termed *acidifiable bases*.

OXYGEN GAS is the result of the combination of *oxygen* with *caloric*. This substance was one of the important discoveries of Dr. *Priestley*, who called it *dephlogisticated air*. It is elastic, and has neither smell, taste, nor colour; it renders combustion exceedingly rapid and splendid; and is capable of being respired three times as long as common air. Water absorbs about a twelfth part of oxygen gas, which is exposed to its action.

It exists in atmospheric air, in the proportion of 28 to 100, and is more ponderous than the air of the atmosphere, in the proportion of 45 grains in the cubic foot; its specific gravity being to that of common air, as 1103 to 1000.

Black oxide of manganese, red oxide of lead, nitrate of mercury, yield this gas very freely by a strong heat, and even by a very moderate degree of heat, if an equal part of sulphuric acid be added. 1lb. of the oxide of manganese will yield 40 quarts of this gas. It is also plentifully yielded by the nitrate of pot-ash, exposed to a strong heat, nitrous gas being however first yielded. It is obtained in great purity from oxygenated muriate of pot-ash, heated in a small glass retort over a lamp. It is yielded plentifully by the water, in which a vegetable, a sprig of mint, for instance, is immersed.

The power of oxygen gas in accelerating combustion is beautifully shewn by its effects on the flame of a taper; or its wick, immediately on the flame being extinguished; on the flame of alcohol, or of ether, and on red-hot iron, or charcoal, phosphorus, and sulphur, in a state of combustion.

According to Lavoisier the *combustion, oxygenisement, or oxidizement* of combustible bodies is effected by the absorption of oxygen by these bodies, which suffer a change in their nature, and an increase in their weight according to the quantity of oxygen thus imbibed.

COMBUSTION is a process in which this gas is decomposed, the oxygen being absorbed and fixed by the burning body, which has its weight thereby increased, and its nature changed, whilst the caloric, which gave a gaseous form to the oxygen, being disengaged, passes off in a state of sensible heat, and sometimes with such a portion of light as gives the form of flame, or the appearance of red heat. From the absorption of oxygen during combustion, acids are formed.

Ignition is said to take place when a red heat accompanies this process, without the appearance of flame; *inflammation*, when light is evolved in the form of flame; *detonation*, when inflammation occurs with great rapidity and noise; and *deflagration*, when the flame is more lasting, and the noise less sudden and violent. So high a degree of temperature may be produced by the access of oxygen, that by a stream of inflamed oxygen gas, substances, otherwise extremely refractory, may be easily fused.

The application of a body, already ignited, is in general necessary to commence the process of combustion in another; but in some cases inflammation is the result of the mixture of two cold fluids.

Some substances, by some hitherto inexplicable action of their constituent parts on each other, undergo a spontaneous inflammation. This has been found to be the case with hemp, lamp-black, or wool, with linseed oil; also bran of rye, torrefied root of succory, saw-dust of mahogany, pyrites, &c.—See *Nicholson's Chemistry*, B. II. Sect. 5.

Heat is produced in some instances in which it does not appear to depend on any combination of oxygen. Thus it is occasioned by the *percussion*, as well as by the *friction* of hard

bodies; but the principles on which this change is effected, has not been satisfactorily explained. Considerable changes of temperature also result from different instances of chemical union; independent of any agency of oxygen, these however, in general, agree with Dr. Black's theory of latent heat.

All substances by their union with oxygen become either *acids* or *oxides*.

ACIDS, the result of this combination, are characterised by a sour taste, by the powers of uniting with alkalis, and of changing vegetable blues red. By their union with other substances hereafter mentioned, they form peculiar *SALTS*. The general characters of these are sapidity, ready solubility in water, and incombustibility.

Substances may exist in three states of combination with oxygen—1st, When their bases are *not saturated* with oxygen, which is designated, according to the present nomenclature, by the termination *ous*. 2dly, When *completely saturated* with oxygen, which is pointed out by the termination *ic*; and 3dly, When possessing an *excess of oxygen*, when they are said to be *oxygenized*.

In some of the combinations of oxygen with other bodies no actual acidity exists. The substances are then called *OXIDES*, to denote their being in a state approaching to acidity, and the process may be termed *OXIDIZEMENT*. It is recommended by *Haiüy* to adopt the term *OXIDULES* to describe those bodies which have undergone this change in the slightest degree.

Dr. Thompson ingeniously proposes to mark the degree of oxidizement, by prefixing to the word *oxide*, the first syllable of some one of the greek ordinal numerals. *Protoxide* marking the first oxide, or that containing the *minimum* of oxygen; *deutoxide* the second, *tritoxide*, third, &c. *Peroxide* distinguishing that combination in which there is as much oxygen as possible.

The oxides are either acidifiable or not; among the latter is water and several of the metallic oxides. Nitrogen, sulphur,

and phosphorus, are all combinable with a smaller portion of oxygen than is necessary to render them acid, and are thus brought to the state of oxides. The oxides, in general, possess but little taste or smell, and are insoluble, or sparingly so, in water.

From Oxygen Gas being absolutely necessary to respiration, it has been termed *VITAL AIR*; it being absorbed, during respiration, by the blood in the lungs, which thereby acquires an augmentation of its vital powers, and becomes of a vermilion colour. Oxygen is plentifully emitted by vegetables during their exposure to light. But both these processes will be more fully examined, when the other constituents of air and of water have been treated of.

It may be disengaged from its bases by the action of light, and by the application of such substances as have a superior degree of affinity with those bases, as will be shown when treating respectively of each.

HYDROGEN.

HYDROGEN, as its name imports, contributes to the formation of water. It has only been obtained in combination.

HYDROGEN GAS, sometimes termed *Inflammable Gas*, is formed by the union of *Hydrogen* and *Caloric*. It was discovered by Mr. *Cavendish*. It is about twelve times as light as common air, being the lightest of all the gases we know. When perfectly pure, it is pellucid, and without taste or smell. It is injurious, but not suddenly, to animals; but is favourable to vegetable life. Although inflammable itself, it extinguishes the flame of a taper plunged into it. If it be mixed with an equal quantity of atmospheric air, or with half its quantity of oxygen

gas, it burns with a sudden and violent explosion on an inflamed body being applied to it. The electric spark will also inflame it; hence it is employed in the electric cannon of Volta. This may be termed its rapid combustion. When unmixed with atmospheric air or oxygen, it burns, on the application of a lighted taper, until it is consumed. If pure, the flame is white; but from different admixtures it becomes variously coloured: and is generally reddish, from its holding a little charcoal in solution. The water formed during its combustion may be conveniently manifested on the sides of an inverted jar held over the flame.

This gas is obtained very freely from a mixture of iron or zinc filings with water and sulphuric acid. It is extricated during the resolution of vegetable and of animal substances, of which it is a constituent principle. By the addition of diluted nitric acid these substances yield it very freely.

It is generally mixed with certain impurities, proceeding from the different substances from which it is obtained, and which communicate to it different odours; that which proceeds even from the presence of aqueous vapour is peculiarly disagreeable. It is obtained most pure from zinc, either with, or without the use of acid.

From its great levity, 100 cubic inches not weighing 3 grains, whereas the same quantity of atmospheric air weighs 31 grains, this gas is used to inflate *balloons* for the purpose of aerostation. Soap bubbles inflated with this gas ascend rapidly, and burst with a slight explosion if a lighted taper be applied to them; and with a tolerably loud report if a little *oxygen gas* have been combined with the *hydrogen*. It has been shewn, by *Biot*, that a mixture of hydrogen and oxygen gases, may be made to inflame and explode by sudden compression.

Hydrogen unites only with three simple substances besides *oxygen*; with *nitrogen*, *sulphur*, and *phosphorus*. *Carbon* requiring a small portion of oxygen to promote its union with it. The different results of these combinations are very striking. With oxygen, water is formed; with nitrogen the volatile alkali;

with sulphur an acid, as it seems, independent of oxygen; and with phosphorus a gas exceeding all others in inflammability.

WATER is an unflammable fluid, and when pure, is transparent, colourless, and void both of taste and smell. Mr. Cavendish made the discovery that it is formed by the union of *hydrogen* and *oxygen*. It may therefore be considered as an *oxide of hydrogen*: oxygen and hydrogen appearing to unite, only in that certain proportion of which water is the result. The proof of its composition is thus obtained: water in a state of vapour, being made to pass over iron wire twisted and made red hot, the iron is oxidized, a considerable portion of the water disappears, and hydrogen gas is produced; the iron depriving the water of its oxygen, by which it becomes an oxide, whilst the hydrogen combining with caloric forms the hydrogen gas. Again, 15 parts of hydrogen gas being burnt in a close vessel with 85 parts of oxygen, water is formed, nearly of the same weight as the gases employed. It appearing that, at a temperature lower than that of ignition, the attraction of the respective bases of the two gases to caloric, is stronger than their attraction to each other, which prevents their decomposition: but that at the degree of ignition, the attraction of the bases are stronger to each other than to caloric; hence they unite and form water, the caloric and light, their imponderable parts, being disengaged with flame.

The composition of water by the *ponderable* part of these gases is beautifully evinced by the experiments of Dr. Pearson, by means of the electric spark. Water may be decomposed also by the influence of the galvanic pile. Fresh leaves also being immersed in water and exposed to the sun, the water will be decomposed: the oxygen gas will rise in bubbles, and the hydrogen will enter into combination in the plant.

The ingenious Mrs. *Fulhame* teaches that water is essential to the oxygenization of combustible bodies. Thus, in the reduction of metals, she supposes the water suffers decomposition, the reducing substance attracting the oxygen of the water, whilst

its hydrogen, uniting in its nascent state, with the oxygen of the metal, effects its reduction, by a double affinity. Hence, and from a series of well-adapted experiments, she infers that 1. The hydrogen of water is the only substance that restores bodies to their combustible state. 2. Water is the only source of the oxygen, which oxygenizes combustible bodies. 3. No case of combustion is effected by a single affinity.

At the temperature marked by 32° F. water parts with caloric, has its volume increased by a confused crystallization, formed by crystalline needles crossing each other at 60° , or 120° , and assumes a *solid* form, when it is termed *ICE*. The temperature being increased, it reassumes the *liquid* form of water, in which a considerable quantity of caloric becomes fixed, and is prevented from passing into a state of vapour, by the pressure of the atmosphere. But if, in the most common state of the atmosphere, the water be heated to the temperature of 212° F. it then boils, and is converted into an *elastic* fluid, or *AQUEOUS VAPOUR*, or *STEAM*, which occupies about 1800 times the space that water does, and is an invisible fluid lighter than common air, as 10 to 12 according to *Kirwan*, and as 10 to 14 according to *Saussure*.

Water absorbs *hydrogen* and *nitrogen*, although but slowly: it absorbs them, however, more freely when combined: on *carbonic acid gas* and *oxygen gas* it acts more powerfully, and even separates and absorbs the oxygen gas of *atmospheric air*, from which it derives its agreeable taste, so different from the insipidity of boiled water; it parting with the gas it has imbibed, on freezing or boiling. Dr. *Priestly* had supposed that *atmospheric air* was absorbed by water; but the experiments of *Berger* prove that the atmospheric air, in fact, suffers a decomposition by its contact with water, and that its oxygen only is thus absorbed. *Journal de Physique*, Tome 57. It is not decomposed by *heat* alone, nor is it affected by the action of *light*. It acts very feebly on *carbon*, in the cold; but at a red heat it acts on it very powerfully. It does not unite with

phosphorus at any temperature, nor does it have any discoverable action on *sulphur*. It does not dissolve, but after a considerable time it decomposes the *phosphuretted hydrogen gas*. The more combustible *metals*, especially when aided by heat, fix the oxygen of the water; and separate the hydrogen, in a gaseous form.

When, in consequence of cooling or compression, the caloric separates from the finely divided particles of water, which formed the bases of the vapour, and which now approximate to form a liquid again, the appearance termed *FOG*, or *MIST*, takes place, and in the higher regions, *CLOUDS* are formed from the decomposed vapour, the still nearer approximation forming *RAIN*. Thus also may be explained the formation of *DEW*, and of water on the walls or windows of crowded rooms. By the more rapid subtraction of caloric the production of *HAIL* and of *HOAR-FROST* may be also easily accounted for.

Water has been supposed to exist in the atmosphere in a decomposed state, in a permanent compound gas, unchangeable, but by an elective attraction superior to that which unites its ingredients.—*Essays of the Exeter Society*.

Mr. *Astley* considers it as entering into the atmosphere, decomposed into the *two original permanent gases* belonging to its constitution, and not as a *permanent compound gas*.—*Nich. Jour.*

A curious circumstance is observable respecting the expansion of water. Being put into a thermometer tube, and the ball held in water at about 40° , until the contained water has acquired the same temperature, the ball may then be plunged into water at 36° and 32° , and at each immersion the water will expand and rise in the tube.

Water generally contains foreign substances, and when these belong to the mineral kingdom, the waters so impregnated are termed *MINERAL WATERS*. The following table from

Dr. Saunders's excellent treatise on Mineral Waters points out, in a general way, the contents of those which have excited most notice by their medicinal properties.

Simpler cold waters.....	{ Malvern. Holywell.
Simpler thermal	{ Bristol. Matlock. Buxton.
Simple saline, containing chiefly neutral purging salts	{ Sedlitz. Epsom. Sea.
Highly carbonated alkaline.....	Seltzer.
Simple carbonated chalybeate.....	Tunbridge.
Hot, carbonated chalybeate.....	Bath.
Highly carbonated chalybeate.....	{ Spa. Pymont.
Saline, carbonated chalybeate.....	{ Cheltenham. Scarborough.
Hot, saline, highly carbonated chalybeate	{ Vichy. Carlsbad.
Vitriolated chalybeate.....	Hartfell.
Cold sulphureous.....	{ Harrowgate. Moffatt.
Hot, alkaline, sulphureous	{ Aix. Borset. Barege.

NITROGEN.

NITROGEN, or *Azote*, the *Nitric Radical*, or *acidifiable basis* of nitric acid, has only been obtained in a state of combination.

NITROGEN GAS, which has also been termed *azotic gas*, or *atmospheric mephitic*, is formed by the combination of

nitrogen with *caloric*. It was discovered by Dr. *Rutherford*. It forms more than two-thirds of the air of the atmosphere; but alone, destroys animal life, and stops combustion. It is lighter than common air, in the proportion of, according to Kirwan 985, and to Lavoisier of 942,6 to 1000, and is not absorbed by water. It may be obtained from the atmospheric air, when by the oxidation of metals, by combustion, or by any other process, the other constituent of air, the oxygen gas, has been absorbed. A solution of alkaline sulphuret, or a paste made with equal parts of sulphur and iron filings moistened with water, will answer this purpose. It is obtained from most bodies in the vegetable and animal kingdom, nitrogen existing in these as a radical principle. It may be readily obtained from animal substances by the action of weak nitric acid. It dissolves *phosphorus* in a small proportion, forming with it PHOSPHURETTED NITROGEN GAS. When *sulphur* is melted in this gas, it is also dissolved, and forms SULPHURETTED NITROGEN GAS. It also dissolves a small portion of *carbon*.

NITRIC ACID is composed of nitrogen and oxygen, as was proved by Mr. *Cavendish*, who formed it by taking reiterated electric sparks through a mixture of oxygen and nitrogen gas. NITRIC ACID, in the state of *gas*, continues so at common temperatures, 100 cubic inches weighing about 76 grains, and when pure is composed of $29\frac{1}{2}$ *nitrogen*, and $70\frac{1}{2}$ *oxygen*. It is extremely soluble in water, forming the *nitric acid*, or *aqua fortis* of commerce, which is thus obtained.

Nitre being distilled with half its weight of acid of sulphur, a yellow acid liquor, yielding reddish fumes, is obtained; as these fumes are separated the liquor loses its colour, and ceases to smoke. This change is effected in less time by the addition of heat or of water, the fumes being dispersed rapidly in both cases, and in the latter the liquor becomes green, then blue and white, as the water is added, or abstracted.

NITRIC ACID, or *Aqua Fortis*, is the colourless liquid just described, in which the acid exists in a state of complete

oxygenizement. In proof of which, nitric acid being passed through a red-hot glass tube, is resolved into *nitrogen* gas, and nitrous acid. A part of its oxygen is expelled even by the action of *light*, the liquor becoming of a yellow colour.

The nitric acid unites with *oils*, and forms with them a sub-resinous substance, somewhat resembling musk, and sometimes produces inflammation. It rapidly corrodes *organic bodies*, staining skin, hair, and other animal matters, of a permanent yellow. It oxidates *iron, zinc, copper, &c.* very speedily, nitrous gas being at the same time formed. When poured on *essential oils*, it sets them on fire. With *hydrogen gas*, at a high temperature, it produces a violent detonation. If poured on dry powdered *charcoal*, it occasions its combustion with the emission of an immense quantity of fumes.

From the facility with which nitric acid parts with its oxygen, it is employed as a proper vehicle in which the oxygen may be applied to certain acidifiable bases, to procure the peculiar acids of those radicals. For this purpose the nitric acid is added to the substance, containing the radical or base, and distilled from it, it passing over in the state of nitrous acid, nitrous gas, or even nitrogen, according to the quantity of oxygen which has been substracted from it by the acidifiable bases, now rendered a peculiar acid. Thus are acids obtained from sugar, arsenic, &c. as will be hereafter shown.

NITROUS ACID, or *Glauber's fuming Spirit of Nitre*, is the yellow smoking liquor above mentioned. The nitric acid is here impregnated with nitrous gas, which flying off assumes a reddish colour on meeting with oxygen, which it does in the air of the atmosphere; becoming by this access of oxygen, NITROUS ACID GAS, and on being absorbed by water it changes to nitric acid. The acid from which it has escaped also becoming more perfect nitric acid.

NITRIC OXIDE, or NITROUS GAS, is a combination in which the nitric radical exists in a yet lower state of oxidation. It is produced by mixing with the nitric acid, charcoal, oil, iron, copper, or any other substance which will attract its

oxygen, the atmospheric air being carefully excluded. The gas thus obtained holds so small a portion of oxygen as to manifest no acid properties. It will not support animal life; nor, except in very few instances, combustion. It is capable of being absorbed by water, from which it may be again expelled by boiling. It is colourless, but on meeting with the atmospheric air, it is converted into the reddish yellow vapours already described, as convertible into nitric acid by the contact of water, evincing that by the combination of oxygen and nitrous gases nitric acid is generated. Being mixed with hydrogen gas it gives to it the property of burning with a green flame. All the salts containing the green oxide of iron absorb nitrous gas unaltered. This property is possessed by several other metallic salts. Sp. gr. 0,001343.

Its composition is proved by burning *pyrophori* in it, the oxygen being absorbed during combustion, leaving unmixed nitrogen gas. *Phosphorus* also burns in it, if introduced in a state of vivid inflammation.

NITROUS OXIDE, or GASEOUS OXIDE OF NITROGEN, appears to be the result of a still lower degree of oxidation of this radical. It is obtained by exposing nitrous gas to wetted zinc or iron filings, muriate of tin, alkaline sulphites, or moist sulphuret of alkali; or any other substance which abstracts a portion of the oxygen.

Mr. *Davy* obtains this **NITROUS OXIDE** by decomposing nitrate of ammonia at temperatures below 440°. If a higher degree of heat is employed, a detonation succeeds. Nothing is yielded by the process but the nitrous oxide and water. It is heavier than air, its Sp. gr. being 0,00197; it does not diminish on being mixed with nitrous gas, is soluble in double its quantity of water, and when given out again possesses its former properties. It yields a sweet taste, and a slight but agreeable odour, and does not manifest actual acid properties. It is decomposable by ignited combustible bodies, which burn in it with a vivid light; a taper burning in it with an additional flame of a blue colour: and a mixture of it with hydrogen

detonates on the application of a lighted taper. It is combinable with alkalis in its nascent state, but is insoluble in most of the acids. If an acid, Mr. *Davy* says, it is the weakest of the acids; but ought rather to be considered as a body *sui generis*. He found it to be respirable, producing most extraordinary effects on the nervous system.

If *sulphur* be introduced into it whilst burning with a blue flame, it is directly extinguished; but if burning with a white flame, the rapidity and brilliancy of its inflammation is increased, and the flame obtains a fine red colour. *Phosphorus* being touched, in this gas, with a wire at a white heat, detonates with violence: and *charcoal* burns in it with great brilliancy.

From Mr. *Davy's* experiments it appears that NITRIC ACID contains oxygen in the proportion of 2,389 to 1 of nitrogen; bright yellow nitrous 2,344; orange coloured 2,292; and dark green 2,230.

NITROUS ACID, he thinks with Dr. *Thompson*, is *nitric acid holding nitrous gas in solution*, and that the salts, termed *nitrites*, must be ternary combinations, consisting of nitric acid, nitrous gas, and salifiable bases.

NITRIC OXIDE, or NITROUS GAS, he finds, is composed of 56 oxygen, and 44 nitrogen.

NITROUS OXIDE, he says, consists of 37 oxygen to 63 nitrogen.—*Researches Chemical and Philosophical*, 1800, and *Lectures*, 1802.

ATMOSPHERIC AIR, that transparent, colourless fluid, which every where invests this globe, possessing permanent elasticity and gravity, is composed of 78 parts of *nitrogen* and 22 of *oxygen gas*, in bulk; and in weight of about 74 *nitrogen*, and 26 *oxygen*; and is soluble in about 30 times its bulk of water. 100 cubic inches weigh 31 grains. On the surface of the earth it is compressed by the weight of the superincumbent atmosphere; its density therefore diminishes according to its height above the earth. It is dilatible by heat: at 60° of temperature, its bulk is increased about $\frac{1}{82}$ part.

The constituent principles of atmospheric air are rendered evident by the following experiment: Quicksilver being enclosed in a proper vessel of atmospheric air, on heat being applied, the air will be diminished, and the quicksilver lose its splendor, and gradually change to a reddish powder; acquiring, at the same time, an augmentation of weight. When neither the air nor the quicksilver suffers any farther change, the separation of the principles has taken place: the one, the gas remaining in the receiver, is now unfit for supporting flame, or maintaining respiration, and is nitrogen gas; the other is absorbed by the quicksilver, whilst reducing to the state of an oxide, and may be extricated from it on the application of heat: when the powder, to which the quicksilver is reduced, will be restored to its metallic state, but will have lost the weight it had gained during its oxidation; this deficiency being exactly equal to the weight of the evolved gas, which is oxygen gas.

These separated gases, thus differing in their properties from each other, and from atmospheric air, being again mixed, form atmospheric air of the ordinary degree of purity.

It must, however, be acknowledged, that in thus forming respirable air, an aëriform fluid is obtained, differing in some trifling respects from the ordinary air of the atmosphere.

M. Humbolt is of opinion that the composition of atmospheric may so vary, that the oxygen may exist in it in the proportion of from 0,23 even to 0,29.

He also supposes, that our not being able to form an aëriform fluid, perfectly similar to that of the atmosphere, does not proceed from our ignorance of the quantity or quality of the gaseous bases, but from a difference in their union; that in the atmosphere they may be considered as in a state of chemical combination, but in the artificial, merely as a mixture.—*Journal de Physique*, 1798.

Respiration and combustion depending on the presence of oxygen, these processes will always be affected by the proportion in which the oxygen gas exists in the air in which they are

performed. The atmosphere also contains foreign matters, such as other gaseous bodies, water which it holds in solution, minute detached particles of bodies, &c. It commonly contains about 0,01; or, according to Humboldt, from 0,005 to 0,01 of *carbonic acid gas*.

Mr. *Davy* states, that the atmospheric air differs very little in the proportion of its ingredients in different parts of the world, that of Europe, Asia, America, and Africa, being all found to contain 0,22 of oxygen in volume.—*Journal of the Royal Inst.* No. 3.

Mr. *Dalton* considers the general atmosphere as composed of *four fluids principally, or four particular atmospheres: nitrogen gas, oxygen gas, aqueous vapour, and carbonic acid gas, mechanically mixed*. These, he supposes, to be totally unconnected with each other; the particles of the one not acting on the particles of the other: agreeable to his opinion, that in a mixture of two or more different elastic fluids, the particles of the one fluid neither attract nor repel the particles of the others, differing in this from the particles of homogeneous elastic fluids, which repel each other with a force reciprocally proportionate to the distance of their centres from each other.

Applying this principle to the atmospheric air, he supposes, that the density and elastic force of each gas, at the earth's surface, are the effects of the weight of the atmosphere of that gas solely, the different atmospheres not gravitating one upon another.

Proceeding on this principle to determine the weight of each simple atmosphere abstractedly, or what part of the weight of the whole compound atmosphere is due to nitrogen, what to oxygen, &c. &c. he presents us with the following tables as the result of the inquiry.

Table of the weights of the different gases constituting the atmosphere :

	Inches of Mercury.
Azotic gas	23.36
Oxygenous gas.....	6.18
Aqueous vapour.....	.44
Carbonic acid gas.....	.02
	<hr style="width: 100%; border: 0.5px solid black;"/>
	30.00
	<hr style="width: 100%; border: 0.5px solid black;"/>

Table of the proportional weights of the different gases in a given volume of atmospheric air, taken at the surface of the earth :

	per Cent.
Azotic gas.....	75.55
Oxygenous gas.....	23.32
Aqueous vapour.....	1.03 variable.
Carbonic acid gas.....	.10
	<hr style="width: 100%; border: 0.5px solid black;"/>
	100.00
	<hr style="width: 100%; border: 0.5px solid black;"/>

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Mr. *Gough* controverts the opinion of Mr. Dalton, and believes that the gases forming the atmosphere exist in the state of chemical mixture and not of mechanical mixture, and that uncombined elastic vapour is not mixed with the atmosphere.

But in proof of the air being the result of a chemical combination of the two gases, Dr. *Thompson*, among others, adduces the circumstances of—the constancy and exactness of the proportions of the nitrogen and oxygen in air;—the difference between air and the artificial mixture of the two gases: the latter supporting flame and animal life longer, and flame even better than air itself.

That the air contains water observation has long shewn: but philosophers have been divided respecting whether the water is held in the air in a state of solution, or in the state of steam or vapour. The arguments of Mr. *Dalton* however on this subject appear to be almost decisive in favour of this latter

opinion. Water in an exhausted receiver is diminished even faster than in open air, its disappearance being here proved to proceed from its conversion into vapour; hence it is probable that it is converted into a state of vapour, and exists so in the open air. But the strongest proof is, that as Mr. Dalton has shewn the waters in the atmosphere possesses the same degree of elasticity which it does when in a state of vapour, in a vacuum, at the same temperature, we may conclude safely from these observations that almost all the water contained in the atmosphere is in a state of vapour; and most probably mechanically mixed with it. A certain portion of moisture seems indeed to be essentially necessary to a due constitution of the air. The atmosphere therefore seems to consist of three elastic fluids, in the following proportion: air 98; carbonic acid 1; water 1.

From the avidity with which *nitrous gas* absorbs oxygen to form nitric acid, it has been employed by *Priestly*, *Ingenhousz*, and *Fontana*, as an EUDIOMETER to measure the quantity of oxygen in the atmosphere; the diminution of volume in a given quantity of atmospheric air, to which the nitrous gas is applied, giving the quantity of oxygen absorbed, and the quantity which the given quantity of atmospheric air contained.

But the results of these experiments are not always the same, nor can it be said how much of the diminution is attributable to the concentration of the nitrous gas itself.

Combustion with *hydrogen gas* has also been employed for the same purpose by *Volta*, and with more precision; but it requires a more complicated apparatus, the results are not constant, nor can it be ascertained how much of the diminution is to be attributed to the hydrogen, and how much to the oxygen gas.

By the exposure to a *liquid sulphuret of alkali*, a more correct comparison of different airs is obtained, the whole diminution being attributable to the oxygen gas; but this acts very slowly, nor can it be known even after several days that the

process of diminution is completed. *Guylon* proposes to employ dry and heated sulphuret of alkali.

Gren and *Berthollet* recommend the measure of the oxygen to be obtained, by the combustion of phosphorus in the air intended to be examined.

Mr. *Davy* employs for endiometrical experiments a fluid, made by transmitting nitrous gas through green muriate, or sulphate of iron, dissolved to saturation in water. This fluid rapidly condenses the oxygen gas without acting upon nitrogen. As the oxygen is absorbed the solution becomes brown, and when the impregnation is completed, almost black. The process is apparently owing to a simple electric attraction; in no case is the gas decomposed, but under the exhausted receiver assumes its elastic form, leaving the fluid, with which it was combined, unaltered in its properties.

A graduated tube, filled with the air to be examined, is introduced in the solution, when the air is rapidly diminished, and the whole of the oxygen is condensed by the nitrous gas, in the solution, in the form of nitrous acid.—*Journal of the Royal Institution*, 1801.

The gravity or pressure of the atmospheric air varies in different situations, and at different times. To mark this variation an instrument called the BAROMETER is employed. This instrument is a tube containing a column of mercury, which is exactly in counterpoise of a column of air of the height of the atmosphere, and corresponding with the base of the column of mercury. This tube being open at the lower end, and having a vacuum above, the mercury rises and falls in it according to the varying pressure of the circumambient fluid: the mean height of the column of mercury, at the level of the sea, being 30 inches, and lessening as it is carried above that level, the column of air by which the mercury is supported, becoming shorter.

AMMONIA, or the *Volatile Alkali*. This has been proved, by the experiments of *Berthollet* and of *Dr. Austin*, to be a compound of *nitrogen* and *hydrogen*. It seems to owe its

origin to animal and vegetable decomposition. It is distinguished from the other alkalis by its pungent smell, and great degree of volatility. 100 parts of pure gaseous ammonia consist, by weight, of 20 *hydrogen* and 80 *azote*.

Ammonial gas is transparent as air, and like it elastic, but is not much more than half as heavy. Its smell and taste is sharp and caustic. It destroys animal and vegetable life, and extinguishes flame, the volume of which it first enlarges. *Light* does not change it, nor does its exposure to a *red heat*; but the *electric spark* separates it into its constituent principles, *nitrogen* and *hydrogen*, and each of these in the state of gas. It is decomposed by *oxygen gas* at a red heat; water and nitric acid being formed. It does not appear to be altered by the exposure to *nitrogen* or *hydrogen gas*. Passed through *red hot charcoal* it forms prussic acid: at a red heat its principles separately combine with *phosphorus*, and aided by heat it also unites with *sulphur*. *Water* will dissolve half its weight of this gas, having its volume thereby increased and its specific gravity diminished in the proportion of 897 to 1000. On being mixed with *acid gases* clouds are produced by the formation of neutral ammonial salts; this is particularly the case with the *muriatic acid gas*. With the *oxymuriatic gas* a mutual decomposition takes place with the disengagement of light, from the inflammation of the hydrogen by the oxygen, water and muriate of ammonia being at the same time formed. The *boracic acid* does not absorb the ammonial gas.

LIQUID AMMONIA is formed by the solution of ammonial gas in water, which takes place very rapidly. Its properties may be inferred from those of its gas.

NEUTRAL SALTS are formed by the union of the several acids with certain bases. When the acids in these compounds are completely saturated with oxygen, it is designated by the word which describes them, terminating in *ATE*, and

when containing a more limited proportion of oxygen, by the termination of *ITE*.

NITRATES are *Neutral Salts*, formed by the combination of nitric acid, with certain bases. They are not changed by the action of *light*, of *oxygen* or of *nitrogen gas*; but are acted on in a very rapid manner by *combustible bodies* in the act of combustion; deflagrating and even detonating with most. The nitrates are here ranged according to the degree of attraction of their bases for the acid.

NITRATE OF BARYTES, has not yet been found native. It crystallizes difficultly in regular octahedrons, and though deliquescent, requires a considerable quantity of water for its solution. Neither alkalies, nor the other earths, decompose it. But the sulphuric acid is detected in any mixture by this salt, since by uniting with the baryt, it forms sulphate of baryt, which is precipitated. By exposing this salt to a violent heat, pure baryt is left more caustic than quick-lime. This salt gives to alcohol the property of burning with a whitish yellow flame. It contains of acid 38 parts, of baryt 50, and of water 12.

NITRATE OF POT-ASH, *Nitre*, or *Saltpetre*, is produced spontaneously in various situations, sometimes efflorescing on the surface of the earth, and on the walls of old buildings; it is also found in some vegetables, in mineral waters, dunghills, &c. It may be artificially produced by the concurrent corruption, not strictly, putrefaction, of animal and vegetable substances. Light earths, such as lime and marle, the refuse of soap manufactories, ashes, &c. being stratified for this purpose with straw, dung, and animal and vegetable substances; wetted with urine, blood, dunghill-water, and the mother waters of saltpetre; and turned and exposed to the current of air.

When putrefaction takes place, the nitrogen uniting with hydrogen forms ammonia; but in this stage of corruption, in which nitre forms, the nitrogen as it is extricated combines

with oxygen, which is also separated, and forms nitric acid. This on its formation meeting with some earthly or alkaline base, instead of escaping, becomes fixed in a neutral salt. It is also met with in various plants, such as borage, tobacco, &c.

Nitrate of pot-ash crystallizes in *prismatic octahedrons*, generally *six-sided prisms, terminated by two-sided summits*. It yields a pungent taste, and impresses the sensation of coldness on the tongue. It is soluble in seven parts of cold and one of hot water. By distillation, it yields 12000 cubic inches of oxygen gas for every pound of nitre, caustic or pure alkali being left behind. Thrown on burning coals it yields a white flame, and fuses at a moderate heat, from the water of crystallization it contains. If fused until its water of crystallization is dissipated, and cast into moulds, it becomes a nitrite of pot-ash, which has been called *crystal mineral*, or *sal prunel*. Mixed with an equal quantity of sulphur, and fused in a red hot crucible, the substance called *sal polycrest*, a sulphate of pot-ash, is formed.

Charcoal at the temperature of ignition totally decomposes the nitric acid. Nitrate of pot-ash and charcoal therefore being mixed in a state of ignition, this decomposition takes place with detonation. This experiment being made by detonating one part of charcoal and three of nitre, in a proper vessel, the nitric acid disappears; the carbon takes from it oxygen, forming the carbonic acid, part of which is found in the form of gas, and the other part is united to the pot-ash of the nitre, forming a carbonate of pot-ash, which remains, and was formerly called *fixed nitre*, and in a state of solution in water, *liquid fixed nitre*, or *Glauber's universal alkahest*: the acidifiable base or the nitrogen forming nitrogen gas.

100 grains of nitrate of pot-ash contain 30 of acid, 63 of pot-ash, and 7 of water; and a mixture in this proportion, will, on evaporation, yield crystals of the purest nitre, formerly called *regenerated nitre*.

ACIDULOUS NITRATE OF POT-ASH, or *Nitrated Nitre*, is formed, if the nitric acid be employed beyond the point of saturation.

GUNPOWDER is formed of 75 parts of *nitre*, 16 of *charcoal*, and 9 or 10 of *sulphur*. The sulphur renders it more readily ignited. These ingredients, duly moistened, are ground together, in *gunpowder-mills*. The *powder paste* is afterwards *grained*, and for nice purposes *glazed*. Its excessive power appears to proceed from the sudden extrication of carbonic, hydrogen, and nitrogen gases, with immense quantity of caloric.

The matter which remains after the explosion of gunpowder, consists of *pot-ash* united with a small proportion of *carbonic acid*, *sulphate of pot-ash*, a very small quantity of *sulphuret of pot-ash*, and unconsumed *charcoal*, 100 grains yielding 53 of this residuum.—*Cruickshank*, 1800.

NITRATE OF SODA, *Cubic* or *Rhomboidal Nitre*, so called from the form of its crystals, which have the shape of *rhomboids* or *rhomboidal prisms*, is produced by the artificial combination of *nitric acid* with *soda*, it not having been found in a native state.

It has a cool bitter taste, slightly attracts the humidity of the atmosphere, is soluble in three parts of cold water, and but little more soluble in hot water. It fuses on burning coals with a yellow flame; its other properties resembling those of nitrate of pot-ash. 100 grains contain 29 of acid, 50 of alkali, and 21 of water.

NITRATE OF STRONTIA forms octahedral crystals, and gives to the flame of alcohol a bright carmine red. It contains 48,4 of acid, 47,6 of strontia, water 4,0.

NITRATE OF LIME, formerly termed *Nitrous Selenite*, is found adhering to, and embodied in, calcareous stones, and dissolved in various mineral springs. It is formed near inhabited places, and is yielded by the lixiviation of old plaster, and by the mother waters of saltpetre, as they are termed by the manufacturers. It forms hexahedral acicular crystals of a sharp and bitterish taste, which readily deliquesce, and are very soluble in water. It fuses when exposed to heat, parting with its acid in the form of nitrogen and oxygen gases; the earth which remains, after the fire has been considerably urged, is

phosphorescent, and is called **BALDWIN'S PHOSPHORUS**. The fixed alkalies and barytes precipitate the lime. Sulphuric acid unites with the lime, and disengages the nitric acid. 100 parts contain 43 of acid, 32 of lime, 25 water of crystallization.

NITRATE OF AMMONIA, is formed either by the combination of the nitric acid gas with ammoniacal gas, or by adding nitre to a saturated solution of sulphate of ammonia, which evaporated twice at about 250° , deposits sulphate of pot-ash in crystals, and leaves a solution of nitrate of ammoniac, which at 212° forms beautiful flexile needle-like crystals, or larger crystals in six-sided prisms, terminated with long six-sided pyramids, of a cooling but acrid taste. Exposed to the fire, it fuses, dries, forms a vivid flame, and detonates in a temperature of 600° , with considerable noise. 100 parts contain 46 of acid, 40 of ammonia, and 14 of water. It is from this salt, by decomposition by heat, that the *nitrous oxide* is generally obtained. Its composition varies, with the degree, and the management of the heat employed in its evaporation.

NITRATE OF MAGNESIA is found in decayed walls, &c. It forms tetrahedral columnar crystals, with obliquely truncated ends, which taste acrid and bitter, are deliquescent and readily soluble, either in water or spirit of wine. It is decomposed by lime, barytes, and fixed alkalies, and by the sulphuric and fluoric acids. In 100 parts are 36 of acid, 27 of magnesia, and 37 of water.

NITRATE OF AMMONIA AND MAGNESIA is best formed by mixing a solution of the two nitrates. It forms a salt of a sharp, bitter, and ammoniacal taste, which crystallizes in fine needle-like prisms.

NITRATE OF GLUCINE is obtained in a pulverulent form, and has a sweetish taste. It fuses readily, and is very soluble in water.

NITRATE OF ALUMINE forms in thin ductile plates, which are deliquescent, and give an astringent taste. In the fire they swell, and are decomposed, losing their oxygen.

NITRATE OF ZIRCON forms in small silky needle-like

crystals, of a styptic taste. It is very soluble in water, and most easily decomposable by heat.

NITRATE OF YTTRIA is sweet, very deliquescent, and not crystallizable; instead of drying, by the fire, it becomes soft like honey, but when dried it is as solid and as hard as a stone.—*Vauquelin*.

NITRITES have been very little attended to. They are formed by depriving the nitrates of a portion of their oxygen by a partial decomposition by the action of heat. Thus nitrate of pot-ash is rendered a nitrite of pot-ash after fusion.

SULPHUR.

SULPHUR is a simple, inflammable, acidifiable, brittle, yellow substance, yielding a peculiar odour when heated, and manifesting electric powers on being rubbed. Its Sp. gr. is about 2.

It is found in and on the surface of the earth, both pure and in a state of mixture. It is said also to exist in certain vegetables, and to be separated during the putrefaction of animal and vegetable substances. It is cleared from its impurities by sublimation, the external air being excluded to prevent its inflammation, when it is termed *sublimed sulphur*, or *flowers of sulphur*.

It melts at 185° or 190°, and at 220° is completely fluid, and may be poured into moulds; it congealing into a mass formed of acicular crystals. If kept in a melted state for some time, it assumes a red colour, and, having thus combined with a small portion of *oxygen*, it is considered, by Fourcroy, as an *oxide of sulphur*, and appears to contain only 2,4 *per cent.* of oxygen. But Dr. Thomson found by passing a current of oxymuriatic acid through flowers of sulphur, an oxide was formed, containing 6,2 *per cent.* of oxygen. The Doctor thinks, and with great reason, that it is this oxide, and

not pure sulphur, which exists in sulphuretted hydrogen, and probably in all the hydrosulphurets.

It does not enter into a binary combination with *hydrogen* or *carbon*; nor is it acted on by water; but that *hydrogen* may enter into union with it will appear from the combination next mentioned.

Sulphur combines with the fixed and volatile alkalies, and with all the earths, except alumine; the compounds being termed ALKALINE, or EARTHY SULPHURETS. It also combines and forms sulphurets with *phosphorus* and with the *metals*, which will be described when the latter substances are treated of.

SULPHURET OF POT-ASH AND OF SODA, or *Alkaline Liver of Sulphur*, is obtained by melting two or three parts of the alkali with one of the sulphur; or by the decomposition of alkaline sulphates by charcoal, at a high degree of heat: the sulphuret in this case being formed, without either of the substances assuming a fluid form. This compound burns when intensely heated; and with vividness, under a stream of oxygen gas. It is a hard substance, of a brown liver-colour, which soon imbibes moisture from the atmosphere; emitting an odour resembling putrid eggs. This odour, which proceeds from a gas formed in consequence of the decomposition of the water, is also produced on its solution in water; for sulphur thus combined with alkalies or earths, is enabled to attract the oxygen of the water, and form with it sulphuric acid, which combining with the alkali produces sulphate of alkali. The hydrogen of the water thus relinquished by the oxygen, takes up another part of the sulphur, and forms with it sulphuretted hydrogen, the basis of this gas; which is retained by the dissolved sulphuret, and converts it into *hydroguretted sulphuret of pot-ash*, requiring the addition of an acid, and the aid of heat, to produce the separation of the gas. The sulphur itself is then precipitated very pure in a white powder, which has been called *milk of sulphur*. This is found

by Dr. *Thompson* to be formed by sulphur united to a little water.

SULPHURET OF LIME, formerly called *Hepar of Lime*, is formed either in the dry or moist way. When recent and dry, it absorbs light, and shines in the dark; and when equal parts of pulverized oyster-shells, and of sulphur, are kept in a covered crucible for an hour or two in a strong heat, a sulphuret is obtained, which if first exposed to the day-light, will appear luminous if conveyed to a dark place. This is termed, from its inventor, **CANTON'S PHOSPHORUS**. It speedily loses its taste and smell, by exposure to the atmosphere; and suffers decomposition by acids, like the other sulphurets, sulphureted hydrogen gas being disengaged.

SULPHURET OF BARYTES. This combination also absorbs light; and shines in the dark; and is the **BOLOGNIAN PHOSPHORUS**. Ponderous spar, or *Sulphate of Barytes*, made into little balls, with mucilage of tragacanth, are heated with charcoal in a crucible, for this purpose; the sulphate being deprived of its acid, the sulphur, which it leaves, combines with the earth, and forms the sulphuret of barytes.

SULPHURET OF MAGNESIA, or *Hepar of Magnesia*, is formed by the digestion of equal parts of sulphur and magnesia in water. The magnesia is precipitable by fixed alkali, which has a stronger affinity with the sulphur. It affords small crystalline needles by spontaneous evaporation.

Sulphurets combined with nitre, in the proportion of one part of the former to two of the latter; or one part of sulphur, two of dry carbonate of pot-ash, and three of nitre, form *fulminating powder*, which being placed in a small quantity on a shovel, and gradually heated until it melts, the mass swells, a slight flame is perceived, and, in that instant it explodes with much violence, by the inflammation of an extremely inflammable fulminating gas, formed by the hepatic gas from the sulphuret and the oxygen from the nitre.

SULPHURETTED HYDROGEN GAS, or *Hepatic Gas*, which

is evolved during the decomposition of sulphurets, and which is also formed by exposing hydrogen gas to the action of melted sulphur, or by adding a little water and muriatic acid to a sulphuret of iron made by melting equal parts of iron filings and sulphur together, is distinguished by a peculiar disagreeable smell. It blackens most of the metals, and their oxides, destroys life, reddens vegetable blues, combines with *alkalies*, and is soluble in *water*, appearing to be a true acid, and supposed to be formed without the influence of oxygen. Though it extinguishes the flame of a lighted candle, it will itself burn with a light blue flame, in contact with oxygen: depositing, at the same time, sulphur, and forming water. It is also decomposed by the electric spark. It is to common air as 1106 to 1000, according to *Therrard* 100 parts contain 70,857 sulphur, and 29,143 hydrogen.

The *mineral sulphureous waters* are formed by saturation with this gas.

SULPHURETTED HYDROGURET OF POT-ASH, of *Chcvenix*, *Hydrogenated Sulphuret*, &c. of *Berthollet*, and *Hydrosulphuret*, &c. of others, is formed by impregnating a solution of the basis with sulphuretted hydrogen, during the solution of sulphuret of pot-ash and soda. The compound is crystallizable in transparent crystals; the solution, whilst recent, being colourless. If sulphuric, muriatic, or any other acid which does not act upon hydrogen, be added to this solution whilst recent and colourless, the sulphuretted hydrogen exhales, but no precipitate is formed: but when, by standing, decomposition has taken place, and the solution is become of a greenish colour, hydrogen having escaped in union with the oxygen of the atmosphere, the sulphur thus abandoned by hydrogen, is increased in its proportion, and is gradually converted into sulphurous acid: if then sulphuric or muriatic acid be added, sulphuretted hydrogen gas is exhaled, and sulphur is thrown down.

SULPHURETTED HYDROGURET OF SODA is obtained in a similar manner, and possesses similar properties.

SULPHURETTED HYDROGURETS OF LIME, BARYTES, STRONTIA, MAGNESIA, &c. may also be formed; possessing analagous properties.

SULPHURETTED HYDROGURET OF AMMONIA is formed by passing sulphuretted hydrogen through ammonia. It does not possess the fetid odour of sulphuretted hydrogen, and is capable of crystallization.

By pouring hydrosulphuret of pot-ash gradually into muriatic acid, a portion of the sulphur combines with the sulphuretted hydrogen, and forms a substance, resembling a yellow oil, which falls to the bottom, and is a *super-sulphuretted hydrogen*, or the HYDROGURETTED SULPHUR of *Cherenix*. Immediately on the solution of sulphurets taking place in water, a decomposition of the water commences, and *sulphuretted hydrogen* is formed: and this acquiring an additional dose of sulphur, forms the *hydroguretted sulphur*, which, by uniting with the base, forms an *hydroguretted sulphuret*: the *sulphurets* being thus changed, by solution, into *hydroguretted sulphurets*. On this principle are formed *hydroguretted sulphurets of the different alkalies and earths*.

HYDROGURETTED SULPHURET OF POT-ASH may be obtained by boiling the alkali and sulphur together in water. The solution is of a greenish colour, of an acrid and bitter taste. It rapidly absorbs oxygen, and in close vessels deposits sulphur. It acts powerfully on the metals, it often reduces them to the state of sulphuret, being capable even of dissolving gold.

HYDROGURETTED SULPHURET OF SODA is obtained in a similar manner.

HYDROGURETTED SULPHURETS OF BARYTES AND OF STRONTIA are yielded by the solution of their sulphurets after exposure to the air. Their powers are much less than those of the other similar compounds.

HYDROGURETTED SULPHURET OF LIME is formed by boiling lime with sulphur in water. The solution is the only liquid capable of dissolving nitrogen gas in a notable quantity.

HYDROGURETTED SULPHURET OF AMMONIA, or, as it

was formerly called, *Boyle's* or *Beguine's fuming Spirit*, or *Volatile Liver of Sulphur*, is obtained in the form of a yellow fuming liquor, by the ammonia and sulphur uniting, whilst in a state of gas, during distillation, from one part of sulphur, two of ammonia, and six of quick-lime. Like the other sulphurets it may be decomposed by acids: and if the concentrated sulphuric acid is employed, a dangerous degree of heat, and explosive effervescence will be produced.

Thus it appears that the simple union of *sulphur*, with an *alkaline or earthy base*, forms **SULPHURETS**: the union of *sulphuretted hydrogen* with *such bases* forms the **HYDRO-SULPHURETS**, or **SULPHURETTED HYDROGURETS**; and by the union of the *supersulphuretted hydrogen*, or *hydroguretted sulphur*, with similar bases, the **HYDROGURETTED SULPHURETS** are formed.

Sulphur at 140° or 150° Fahr. begins to attract oxygen, and at 180° or 190° manifests a faint blue light; but the heat accompanying this combustion is so weak, that the sulphur may thus be burnt out of gunpowder without inflaming it. At 300° the combustion is accompanied by a reddish light. At about 290° it is converted into vapour. In oxygen gas it burns extremely rapid, and with a most vivid light. During its combustion, oxygen combining with its acidifiable base, forms an acid more or less perfect, according to the greater or less rapidity of the combustion.

SULPHURIC ACID, formerly called *Spirit* or *Oil of Vitriol*, is formed by the combination of the full portion of oxygen with its basis. It is obtained by the combustion of sulphur in oxygen gas, or with nitrate of pot-ash, which furnishes oxygen abundantly. It is also obtained by distillation from sulphur and nitric acid, in the proportion of 48 ounces of the acid to two ounces of the sulphur. 100 parts contain 55,56 of sulphur, and 44,44 of oxygen, according to *Thenard*; or rather, according to Mr. *Chevenix*, of 61,5 of sulphur, and 38,5 of oxygen.—*Transact. R. I. Acad.* 1801.

It is nearly twice as heavy as water. It suffers congelation by intense cold, is unctuous to the touch, attracts moisture from the atmosphere with great avidity, and when mixed with water, produces heat beyond that of boiling water. It is not acted on by *light* nor *caloric*, nor will it combine with a larger dose of *oxygen*. It acts rapidly on all inflammable substances, especially if heat be employed, rendering them black: the acid itself becoming brown or even blackish; by the addition of the carbon of the inflammable substance; whilst the acid is robbed of a portion of its oxygen, which unites with the carbon, and flies off as carbonic acid gas.

SULPHUROUS ACID is formed in the above instance, the proportion of oxygen being less, and of sulphur greater, than in the sulphuric.

SULPHUROUS ACID GAS may be obtained in all those processes in which the sulphuric acid is deprived of a part of its oxygen. It is obtained for the purpose of experiment, by exposing *sulphuric acid* to *charcoal* and to *mercury*, or any of the metals, which act on it by abstracting a portion of its oxygen. It is a compound of sulphur and oxygen, the latter being in a less proportion than in the sulphuric acid, with a certain quantity of caloric. This gas has an acid taste, and the acrid and penetrating smell of burning sulphur. It destroys animals, and extinguishes ignited combustible substances. It unites rapidly with ice, which melts by the heat disengaged during its fixation. Sp. gr. 0,00251.—*Lavoisier*.

The composition of this acid is proved by passing the sulphurous acid gas, with hydrogen gas, through a heated porcelain tube, when sulphur will be found to be separated.

The sulphuric and sulphurous acids being combined in distillation, the first product is in a glacial form, and is called *glacial sulphuric acid*. It is shewn by *Fourcroy* to be a compound of sulphuric and sulphurous acids. *Fourcroy* considers the sulphurous acid as consisting of sulphur 85, and of oxygen 15 parts.

SULPHATES are neutral Salts, formed by the sulphuric acid with certain bases. They are not changed by *light*, *oxygen gas*, or *nitrogen gas*; but are acted upon by *combustible bodies* if aided by heat. The *nitric* and *muriatic acids* partially decompose them, assisted by heat; but the *weaker acids* have no action on them.

SULPHATE OF POT-ASH, formerly called *Arcanum Duplicatum*, *Sal de Duobus*, *Vitricated Tartar*, *Vitriol of Pot-ash*, &c. forms in crystals of hexahedral prisms, terminating in hexahedral pyramids. It gives a penetrating bitter taste, and is soluble in 16 parts of cold water. 100 grains contain 30,21 of acid, 64,61 of alkali, and 5,18 of water. It decrepitates on hot coals; but with greater heat it fuses, and is volatilized without decomposition.

A total decomposition of the sulphurous acid, an entire separation of its oxygen, and the reproduction of its base, sulphur may be obtained by fusing together equal parts of sulphate of pot-ash, and fixed alkali, with a fourth of the whole of charcoal: the ignited carbon seizes the oxygen of the sulphuric acid, and forms with it carbonic acid gas, the regenerated sulphur combining with the alkali, and forming an alkaline sulphuret.

ACIDULOUS SULPHATE OF POT-ASH, is produced by supersaturation with one-third of its acid. This salt effloresces in the air, and strongly retains the superadded acid.

SULPHATE OF SODA, formerly called *Glauber's Salt*, *Sal Mirabile*, *Vitriol of Soda*, &c. is found in various mineral waters, and is yielded very plentifully by the *tamarix gallica*, on the sea-coasts, in the south of France.

It has a very bitter taste, and crystallizes in octahedral prisms, the pyramids of which are truncated near their base. It swells upon heated coals, effloresces in the air, and is soluble in less than its own weight of boiling water, and in three parts of cold. 100 parts contain 27 of acid, 15 of alkali, 58 of water. It is decomposed by pot-ash and barytes.

SULPHATE OF AMMONIA, called formerly *Glauber's Secret*

Ammoniacal Salt. It is very bitter, and forms into thin hexahedral prisms, terminating in hexahedral pyramids. It contains acid 55, alkali 14, water 31. It is dissolved in its own weight of boiling water, and twice its weight of cold water. It yields its acid to fixed alkali, barytes, and lime.

Mr. *Hatchet* observes, that as well as all, or most of the other ammoniacal salts, it may be decomposed merely by heat. Mr. *Davy*, by passing it through a tube heated red-hot, resolved it into sulphur, nitrogen, and water.

SULPHATE OF BARYTES, or *Ponderous Spar*, or *Barose-lenite*, is generally found in rhomboidal plates, refracting double. It requires for its solution 43,000 times its weight of water; when heated it becomes luminous, and by violent heat vitrifies. Neither the alkalis nor acids have any action on this sulphate. It is however decomposable by carbonate of pot-ash. 100 parts contain 30 of acid, 67 of barytes, and 3 of water: the native containing much more acid than the artificial. That which comes from *Mount Paterno*, in *Bologna*, in *Italy*, has been called the *Bolognian stone*, which, when heated, becomes the BOLOGNIAN PHOSPHORUS.

SULPHATE OF STRONTIA is earthy, has no taste, contains 54 of strontia and 46 of acid, and is scarcely soluble in 3,840 parts of water.

SULPHATE OF LIME, *Selenite*, or *Gypsum*, is mostly of a white colour, and is found either in foliated, fibrous, or laminated irregular masses, or in crystals, deriving their form from the straight quadrangular prism. It is insipid and inodorous. Its decomposition is effected by charcoal, and by the alkaline carbonates. Exposed to the influence of a red heat, it is reduced to a white powder, called *burned gypsum*, or *plaster of Paris*. Water is speedily absorbed by this powder, rendering it a paste, which soon hardens. In this state it is employed as a *mortar*, and for *stucco works*.

It is difficultly fusible *per se*, but melts at 130° on clay. It requires 500 parts of cold water to hold it in solution. 100 parts contain 32 of lime, 46 of sulphuric acid, and 22 of wa-

ter. It is considered as of posterior formation to the primitive mountains, and sometimes is obviously produced by the decomposition of pyritical matter in the neighbourhood of calcareous substances.

ANHYDROUS SULPHATE OF LIME. A sulphate of lime, destitute of water, has been found in several parts. Its analysis yields 44,88 acid, 55,12 base.

SULPHATE OF MAGNESIA, also called *Epsom Salts*, is found in various mineral waters, and even in a solid form in the fissures of rocks. Its crystals are tetrahedral smooth prisms, terminating in dihedral and tetrahedral prisms: their taste is very bitter. 1000 parts of cold water dissolve about 800 of this sulphate, but 1000 parts are dissolved in only 666 of boiling water. It is decomposed by lime and barytes, and by the fixed alkalis; but not by ammonia, unless heat is employed. It effloresces in the air.

Magnesia is obtained generally by decomposing this sulphate, by the addition of fixed alkali to its solution; the magnesia which is precipitated in a state of combination with the carbonic acid, being afterwards cleared from its impurities by repeated ablutions, and if required to be perfectly pure, by exposure to a considerable degree of heat. By the addition of a small quantity of sal soda to the vegetable alkali, the magnesia is obtained beautifully light.

100 parts of this sulphate contain 33 of acid, 19 of magnesia, and 48 of water. So much heat is excited on pouring concentrated sulphuric acid on magnesia, that in a dark place, sparks may be perceived.

SULPHATE OF AMMONIA AND MAGNESIA forms in brilliant crystals, deriving their figure from the regular octahedron. Its taste is bitter and sharp. It is a real triple salt or *trisule*, and is less soluble than either of the salts which form it. 100 parts contain 68 of sulphate of magnesia, and 32 of sulphate of ammoniac.

SULPHATE OF GLUCINE has a sweet subastringent taste;

is very soluble in water, and crystallizes difficultly. It is yet but little known.

SULPHATE OF ALUMINE is divided, in consequence of the discoveries of *Vauquelin*, into the following kinds :

I. *Sulphates, containing the acid and alumine only* ; of this species there are two varieties, 1. that in which the acid prevails ; 2. that which is saturated with alumine.

II. *Acid Sulphate of Alumine, and of Pot-ash, or of Ammonia.* ALUM, formerly considered only as a compound of sulphuric acid and alumine, is really a triple, or even a quadruple salt ; formed by alumine, with a little pot-ash or ammonia, or both, and a portion of acid, a little exceeding the quantity necessary for the saturation of the bases. These three varieties of alum, agreeing in their specific properties, crystallize in various forms derived from the regular octahedron ; the integrant molecules of which are regular tetrahedra.

Its taste is astringent and yet sweetish, and it reddens vegetable blues. Native alum almost always contains pot-ash, and is perhaps generally derived from argillaceous earths, blended with pot-ash and sulphur, or sulphuret of iron, by the action of volcanoes. When it does not naturally exist in the sulphate, the addition of pot-ash converts it to alum. It soon melts, swells, and loses its water of crystallization, by heat becoming a very light, spongy, acid substance, called *burnt alum* ; but if the heat is continued, the acid is dissipated, and the tasteless earth is left. The alum of commerce is formed by 0,49 of sulphate of alumine, 0,07 of sulphate of pot-ash, and 0,44 of water. This triple or quadruple salt possesses the property which the former species does not, of dissolving a farther portion of alumine. Thus a solution of alum remaining on alumine forms a salt less sharp, as well as less fusible and soluble, and which crystallizes in cubes, whence it is called *cubic alum*. If the solution be boiled on alumine a pulverulent salt precipitates, which is the triple or quadruple salt, saturated with alumine.

Five parts of calcined sulphate of alumine and one of charcoal intimately mixed; or three parts of alum with one of sugar, honey, or flour melted together, and kept over the fire until it has become blackish, being put in an earthen bottle, about two-thirds full, and kept in a red-hot state, surrounded with sand in a crucible, until a blue flame is perceived at the mouth of the bottle, and then after a minute or two removed from the fire, the PYROPHORUS of HOMBERG is obtained, which burns on being exposed to the air. Mr. *Bewley* obtained *pyrophorus* by nearly filling the bowl of a tobacco-pipe with two parts of burnt alum, one of charcoal, and one of salt of tartar, pressing it down and filling up the bowl with fine sand, and exposing it to a red heat for three quarters of an hour: a longer time doing it no injury. He also obtained it from powdered charcoal, with double or treble its weight of calcined blue or green vitriol, or of sulphate of zinc; and from a mixture of charcoal, and well-calcined sulphate of pot-ash, or of soda: and from pot-ash and vegetable or animal coal.—*Priestley on Air*, vol. III.

One part of sugar and two of charcoal, treated as above, also forms a *pyrophorus*.

The *pyrophori* thus formed contain an *hydroguretted sulphuret of pot-ash and of alumine*, mixed with extremely divided charcoal.

A *pyrophorus*, it is said, is immediately formed by rubbing together in a mortar 54 grains of sulphur, 36 of very dry willow charcoal, and 3 of common phosphorus.—*Journal de Physique*, 1780.

The above experiment was made to shew that the combustibility of *pyrophori* depended on their containing a small quantity of phosphorus. *Savigny* attributed it to the sulphuric acid heated by the moist air, and inflaming the disengaged sulphur. *Proust* denied the presence of sulphuric acid; and Mr. *Bewly* imputed it to the attraction of the nitrous acid from the air, and the heat generated by its union. Dr. *Gren* accounts for it by supposing a sulphuret formed, the alkali of

which rapidly attracts moisture, by which heat, and the subsequent combustion is produced.

SULPHATE OF GLUCINE is so soluble, that on evaporation it assumes the form of a syrup, without yielding any crystals.

SULPHATE OF ZIRCONIA becomes soluble by excess of acid, and gives tetrahedral prisms of an astringent taste.

SULPHATE OF YTTRIA forms in brilliant grains, and requires 50 parts of cold water for its solution. It has a sweetish taste, with some degree of astringency, like the salts of lead.—*Vauquelin*.

Of the other Sulphates but little has been noticed.

SULPHITES are neutral salts, formed by the union of *sulphurous acid* with certain bases. *Fourcroy* and *Vauquelin*, examining the properties of sulphurous acid and its combinations, observe that the sulphites differ very much from the sulphates, and that they possess, 1. A sulphureous taste, similar to that of the acid. 2. They are decomposable by fire, either by the escape of their acid, without alteration; or by losing a portion of sulphur, and becoming converted into sulphates. 3. They are converted into sulphates, by the contact of air, or of any substance capable of affording oxygen, and their weight is increased by this conversion. 4. They are decomposed by most acids, which expel the sulphurous acid with effervescence, and the production of a strong penetrating odour. 5. They burn rapidly and with flame, when heated with hyperoxygenated muriate of pot-ash and with salt-petre, and become sulphates. 6. Lastly, the sulphite of lime is not decomposed by the alkalies, like the sulphate.

Thenard and *Vauquelin* discovered that sulphite of soda and hydrosulphuret of the same base, would unite and form a complicated salt, a true hydrosulphuretted sulphite of soda.

Professor *Lampadius* obtained from one pound of pyritous wood, by distillation with a white heat, two ounces of a fluid substance, to which, until it is better known, he gives the name of *Alcohol of Sulphur*. This substance comes over in

drops, which fall to the bottom of the water contained in the receiver, its sp. gr. being 1,300. It has a penetrating smell; is extremely volatile, and so inflammable as to be inflamed directly by the smallest electric or galvanic spark; burning with a blue flame without smoke, and leaving no residuum: the product of its combustion being sulphuric acid and a small quantity of water. It possesses an uncommon refractive power; and dissolves its own weight of phosphorus with great rapidity. It is very soluble in spirits of wine; but very triflingly so in water. The professor believes it to be chiefly composed of sulphur and of hydrogen, and has not yet discovered that carbon exists in it. In the same manner he obtained this substance from pyrites with one-fourth of its weight of bituminous wood; also from pyrites mixed in the same proportion with fossil wood, coal, shavings of box, and anthracite: and in every instance, except when this last substance was employed, a great quantity of sulphuretted hydrogen gas, and a small portion of empyreumatic oil was obtained.—*Annales de Chimie*, chap. 147.

- This substance was first obtained by Lampadius in 1796, and a little while after by *Clement* and *Desormes*: after which it could not be again produced until the year 1804, when, as here described, it was again obtained by *Lampadius*.

CARBON.

CARBON, or the *Radical of Carbonic Acid*, has not, unless the *diamond* be admitted as such, been yet obtained in a separate state: charcoal, which was once so esteemed, appearing to be a compound substance. Nor is it ever found united with caloric, in a gaseous state, unaccompanied by some third principle. Its taste, smell, and colour is unknown. It is infusible and indissoluble by *caloric*, and is hence esteemed the most refractory substance in nature. It has no evident attrac-

tion for *nitrogen* alone, but combines with it by the intervention of other principles. With *hydrogen* it has a strong affinity, uniting and forming a gas termed carburetted hydrogen; *hydrogen gas* having the power of holding it in solution. It also enters into union with *sulphur* and *phosphorus*.

THE DIAMOND, which exceeds all other gems in hardness, density, and refraction of the rays of light, crystallizes in two tetrahedral and trihedral pyramids, united base to base; or in hexahedral prisms terminating in trihedral summits; or in irregular polyhedral grains. At a very high temperature it burns, becomes black and opaque, and is converted into gas. Sp. gr. about 3,5.

Newton conjectured the diamond to be a combustible body. *Guyton* in 1785 inferred its similarity to charcoal, from its leaving an effervescent alkali, after combustion in fused nitre. *Lavoisier* found that on burning it in closed vessels, it yielded carbonic acid. This has also been proved by Mr. *Tennant*, who performed the combustion in a crucible of gold. *Berthollet* considered it as *crystallized charcoal*.

Since this, *Guyton* having burnt the diamond in oxygen gas, by the solar rays, and thereby having obtained carbonic acid without residue, he presumed that he had ascertained the diamond to be *pure carbon*, or the *pure combustible matter of the carbonic genus*, yielding the *pure acidifiable basis of the carbonic acid*. He found its combustion required a much higher temperature than charcoal; but this, he observes, takes place with other acidifiable bases, their first degrees of oxidation being difficultly produced, although their subsequent acidification is easy. It also required more oxygen for its complete combustion than charcoal; one part of diamond absorbing four of oxygen, and producing five of carbonic acid; this he remarks is not to be wondered at, since being pure carbon, it contains none of the oxygen principle, and therefore demands more. In proportion therefore as substances contain pure combustible matter, will, in fact, be the difficulty of their combustion, their first degrees of oxygenizement proceeding so

slowly. Thus he accounts for plumbago, or black lead, which is a carbonic combustible, richer in combustible matter than charcoal itself, not burning, but at a very high degree of temperature: and thus he accounts for the incombustibility of Anthracolite, Kilkenny coal, the brilliant charcoal of certain vegetables, &c. The diamond is therefore to be considered as pure carbon—plumbago, carbon oxygenized in the first degree;—charcoal, an oxide of the second degree, and carbonic acid, the result of the complete oxygenation of carbon.

M. *Guyton* having also heated some alumine and lime with diamond, the alumine, notwithstanding repeated edulcorations, still retained some sulphuric acid, hence sulphuret of lime was formed, and the diamond was encrusted with a black matter (carbon) formed at the expence of the diamond, which had lost above a third part of its weight.—*Ann. de Chem.* No. 93.

CHARCOAL is black, tasteless, inodorous, and brittle; and is obtained from various substances in the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms; and generally by volatilizing their other constituent parts. When obtained in a state of purity, it resists the strongest heat in closed vessels. It decomposes sulphuric acid, from its affinity with oxygen exceeding that of sulphur. It decomposes nitric acid with great rapidity, and if the charcoal be first powdered, and the acid strong, and allowed to run down the side of the vessel, to mix with the charcoal, it burns with rapidity, with a beautiful flame, throwing up the powder so as to resemble a beautiful fire-work. With nitrate of pot-ash, it detonates in a hot crucible, leaving a fixed alkali behind. It is dissolved by the alkalies, and by the sulphurets of alkali, both in the dry and moist way. It does not unite with metals, but restores their oxides to a metallic state.

Charcoal possesses the power of absorbing the atmospheric air and several gases, which thus condensed retain their properties, and even exert them in some instances more powerfully.—*Roupe, Ann. de Chem.* No. 93.

M. *Morozzo* could not find, that any other body possessed

a similar power. He ascertained that this power is developed in the highest degree by heat and light: and extending his experiments with an improved apparatus, part of which was a tube 18 inches long, in which the pieces of charcoal, each weighing 36 grains, were exposed to the gaseous matters, he found that

	I. lines.
of the air of the Privy, there were absorbed	8 . 0
House.....	8 . 6
Garden.....	7 . 6
of Carbonic acid gas	16 . 6 or $\frac{11}{12}$
Hydrogen gas.....	3 . 1
Nitrogen.....	6 . 1
Oxygen	12 . 3 in the

first four hours, and on the eighth day the gas was wholly absorbed.

M. Morozzo found that charcoal lost much of this power by passing through mercury: and that the pieces of charcoal acquired from half a grain to two grains, according to the absorption.—*Journal de Physique*. An. XII.

Charcoal, in its common state, contains so much hydrogen, that carburetted hydrogen may be obtained from it even after it has ceased to yield carbonic acid. Perhaps in its purest state it may become so imbued with hydrogen gas as to explain its yielding carburetted hydrogen gas even after it has ceased to yield carbonic acid. It is indeed by some supposed that the hydrogen enters into its composition as one of its principles, and that therefore it ought not to be considered, as it has been by some, as a *pure* carbonous oxide. Thus was Mr. *Hatchett* almost led to consider it, in consequence of some observations he made; but farther observations made him feel on this subject very considerable doubt.—*Phil. Trans.* 1805.

It decomposes water at the common temperature, carbonic acid and carbonated hydrogen being separated.—*Lampadius*.

It powerfully resists the putrefaction of animal substances;

even restoring them to sweetness when tainted. By charring the inner surface of the casks in which water is kept at sea, it is prevented from becoming putrid.

If burnt in contact with common air, its acidifiable base attracts oxygen, and a peculiar acid is formed, which, with a certain portion of caloric, assumes a gaseous form.

If burnt in *oxygen gas*, its peculiar acid is more plentifully formed, the charcoal burning with considerably increased rapidity and brilliancy; and if the lighter charcoal made from bark is used, a still more brilliant effect is produced, from numerous vivid corruscating sparks.

CARBONIC ACID GAS, formerly termed *fixed air*, or *aërial acid*, the real nature of which was first ascertained by Dr. *Black*, is formed during the combustion of diamond, charcoal, and other carbonaceous matters, in contact with oxygen gas, or in mixtures of it with other gases, such as the common atmospheric air. It may also be separated from limestone, chalk, &c. by the addition of sulphuric acid. Its composition appears to be 17,88 of pure carbon or diamond, with 82,12 of oxygen: 100 parts of carbonic acid, according to *Lavoisier*, containing 24 of charcoal. Pure charcoal being burnt in a vessel of oxygen gas, carbonic acid is directly formed, in a quantity precisely equal to that of the charcoal and oxygen employed. It is about twice as heavy as the air of the atmosphere, as is shown by pouring it into an open vessel, in the bottom of which a taper is burning, the taper being directly extinguished. Sp. gr. is about 0,0018. It has a penetrating odour and sour taste, and will serve neither for respiration nor combustion. It is found in a gaseous and pure state in many subterraneous places. It is generated during the decomposition of animal and vegetable substances, particularly during the fermentative process. It is also produced during the respiration of animals. The air of the atmosphere, especially near the surface of the earth, contains about $\frac{1}{100}$ part of this gas. No action takes place between the carbonic

acid and *oxygen*, nor between it and *hydrogen*, *nitrogen*, *sulphur*, *phosphorus*, or the *hydrogen gas*, impregnated with either of these two latter combustible substances. Exposed to the air it is slowly dissolved by it, layer after layer. It is condensed and liquefied by water, which absorbs it most freely at two or three degrees above the freezing point, and especially if the gas be condensed by pressure, or much agitated with the water. This liquid yields a peculiar pungent taste, and is manifestly acid. Heat or congelation again separates the gas from the water.

It exists in a concrete state, in combination with alkalies, and the earths, particularly with the former; causing these substances to exist in a mild state, which always, when perfectly pure, manifest a considerable degree of causticity. It also renders them effervescent with acids, from its liberation in a gaseous state, in consequence of the new combination. It is frequently obtained in this way. It is also procured copiously by heat, from carbonate of ammonia, the gas being passed through water.

By its ready combination with the lime held in solution in *lime-water*, and the precipitation of the carbonate of lime, thus formed, lime-water becomes a ready test of the presence of this acid.

The superior degree of attraction of carbon for oxygen, renders this gas very difficult of decomposition, neither *phosphorus* nor *sulphur* having any direct action on it. Mr. *Smithson Tennant*, however, by exposing carbonic acid gas to phosphorus, and calcareous earth, in a red heat, obtained a decomposition of the gas. The oxygen united with the phosphorus, and composed the phosphoric acid, which united with the calcareous earth; the carbon which was deposited resembled the charcoal yielded by vegetable matter. Iron, zinc, and other metals, are also capable of effecting this decomposition.

Dr. *Pearson* made several experiments by which the car-

bonic acid was decomposed, and resolved into respirable air and charcoal.—*Phil. Trans.* 1793.

Professor *Göttling* informs us that, by heating over a charcoal fire, in a glass vessel, a mixture of phosphorus and carbonate of soda, or carbonate of pot-ash, the phosphorus will be kindled, and its greatest part consumed, and that the residuum is of an uniform black colour, the salts of which being dissolved in water, there remains an insoluble carbon, of a deep black colour.—*Göttling's Almanack*.

Dr. *Thompson* reckoning carbonic acid to contain 28 *p. cent.* of charcoal, supposes charcoal, which he considers as an oxide of carbon or diamond, to be composed of 63,85 diamond, and 36,15 oxygen. But Mr. *Henry* reckoning upon *Lavoisier's* latest experiments, which give 24 *p. cent.* only of charcoal in carbonic acid, supposes 100 parts of charcoal to be composed of 74,5 carbon, and 25,5 oxygen.—*Epitome of Chemistry*, P. 115.

Its combination with other simple combustible bodies are termed carburets.

CARBURET OF SULPHUR has been formed by *Desormes* and *Clements*. It is a transparent, and, when pure, a colourless fluid, possessing a pungent but cooling taste, and a strong and peculiar odour. Sp. gr. 1.3. It is immiscible with water, and assumes a gaseous form *in vacuo*, and when mixed with oxygen gas or common air. With *oxygen* it forms a gas, which on a taper being applied to it, takes fire instantly, and explodes with violence: but with common air, it burns quietly without detonation. It dissolves *phosphorus* freely: it will also dissolve a small portion of *sulphur*; but it has no action on *charcoal*.

This appears to be, and has already been described in this work as, *alcohol of sulphur*; but M. *Lampadius*, believing the substance obtained by *Clement* and *Desormes* to differ from that which he obtained, the description of it is, as obtained by them, here admitted.

CARBURETTED HYDROGEN, or *Hydrocarbonate Gas*, consists of *carbon*, united with or held in solution by *hydrogen*, with a small portion of oxygen, and converted into the gaseous state by *caloric*. There are several varieties of this gas, which are formed by different processes, and contain different proportions of carbon and hydrogen. They are all inflammable, but in different degrees: burning rapidly when fired with oxygen or common air, and are all much lighter than common air, but even in their weight they vary much. They require much more than an equal quantity of oxygen for their saturation, during their combustion; some however requiring much more than others: the product of their combustion being carbonic acid and water. On the *vapour of water* being brought into contact with *charcoal*, this species of gas is formed, together with carbonic acid. 100 measures of this gas require for their saturation 60 measures of oxygen gas. The weight of this gas is to common air as 480 to 1000. It burns with a faint blue light.

The gas yielded by *stagnant water*, requires 200 measures of oxygen gas, and its Sp. gr. 666.

The gas obtained by the distillation of *coal* requires 170 measures of oxygen gas, and its Sp. gr. 666. This gas burns with a great degree of brilliancy.

The gas produced by the burning of *alcohol* or *ether* in a porcelain tube is in its weight as 520 to 1000 to common air. It yields a brilliant flame, but less bright than that of the former gas.

The gas yielded by distillation from one part of *alcohol*, and three of *concentrated sulphuric acid*; and which, as will be hereafter seen, is an olefiant gas, requires for saturation 284 measures of gas. Its gravity is to common air as 909 is to 1000; and in brilliancy, its flame far surpasses that of the others. This gas is absorbed by water in the proportion of 1-8th the bulk of the water. The gas from stagnant water in the proportion of 1-64th, and the others in less proportion. From the difference observed in their gravities, some of these

gases have been termed *light*, and others *heavy carburetted hydrogen*.

One of the most remarkable properties of these gases is, that when mixed with about two-thirds of their bulk of *pure oxygen*, and fired by the electric spark, instead of a diminution, there is considerable increase of volume, notwithstanding carbonic acid is at the same time produced. This increased gas is found to differ from the original carbonated hydrogen, requiring, bulk for bulk, only about one-quarter of the quantity of oxygen to saturate it. But if the same carburetted hydrogen be exploded with about twice its bulk of the *oxymuriatic acid gas*, we have a great diminution, much charcoal, and only a small proportion of carbonic acid gas; the remaining small quantity of gas is inflammable, and appears to be the gaseous oxide. Thus with the same inflammable gas, equal quantities of oxygen, under different circumstances, produce very different effects.—*Nicholson's Journal*.

Mr. *Henry* has shewn that this increase of volume proceeds from hydrogen, disengaged by the decomposition of the water contained in the gas. The carbon, by the high temperature produced by the electric explosion, unites with the oxygen of the water, and forms carbonic acid; and the hydrogen, thus set at liberty, occasions the dilatation. A small portion of wood will yield a vast quantity of this gas. It is this gas which produces the flame in ordinary wood fires.

These gases are found in nature, and are very favourable to vegetation, being probably absorbed without any alteration; and are perhaps caught up in their nascent state, whilst separating from different manures. They are highly noxious to animals. The *coal damp* of coal mines is a mixture of carburetted hydrogen with atmospheric air.

According to Mr. *Cruikshank*, the gas obtained from camphor, stagnant water, and vegetable substances, contains 52,35 carbon, 9,60 hydrogen, 38,05 water, in state of vapour: from ether, 45 carbon, 15 hydrogen, 40 water: from alcohol, 44,1

carbon, 11,8 hydrogen, 44,1 water : from charcoal, 28 carbon, 9 hydrogen, 63 water.

But according to the *Edinburgh Review*, this estimate of the elementary constituents of these gases is erroneous, the constituents of the carbonic acid produced not being calculated, and the whole of the water produced being supposed to exist in the gas, in a state of solution, whereas it is most probable that the whole of the water precipitated was formed at the moment of decomposition. It is therefore concluded that these gases are not carburetted hydrogen, but hydro-carbonous oxides. This is exemplified by Mr. *Cruikshank's* third experiment. 16 grains of carburetted hydrogen were detonated with 40 of oxygen, and the product was 36 grains of carbonic acid gas, and 20 of water. Now 36 grains of carbonic acid gas are composed of 29,56 oxygen, and 6,44 carbon ; and 20 of water are formed of 17,12 oxygen, and 2,88 hydrogen. From the total quantity of oxygen in the product, 46,68, deduct the 40 added, and we have 6,68 oxygen, 2,88 hydrogen, and 6,44 carbon, as the elementary constituents of the 16 grains of carburetted hydrogen.

The gas obtained by the destructive distillation of pit-coal has been successfully applied to the purpose of affording light by Mr. *Murdoch* in 1792, when he ascertained that it could be employed as a substitute for lamps and candles. It has been since used for similar purposes in France, forming what has been termed the *thermo-lamp*. Mr. *Henry* pursuing Mr. *Murdoch's* experiments, found that hydrogen gas, carburetted hydrogen gas, obtained by passing water over ignited charcoal, and the carbonic oxide, burnt with a very trifling production of light ; and was induced to inquire into the cause of the difference between these gases and that derived from pit-coal. The latter gas, when recently prepared, evidently contains inflammable matter suspended in it, which then increases its illuminating property ; but this is subsequently deposited : still however the gas possesses the property of burn-

ing with a bright compact flame. The inquiries of Mr. Henry led him to the conclusion, that the light is in proportion to the quantity of combustibile matter, and consequently to the quantity of oxygen consumed in the combustion. He therefore went through a series of experiments, by which he ascertained the quantity of oxygen gas required to saturate 100 measures of each gas, as well as the quantity of carbonic acid gas produced, as is shewn in the following table :

Kind of gas.	Measures of oxygen gas required to saturate 100 m.	M. of carbonic acid produced.
Pure hydrogen.....	50 to 54	
Gas from moist charcoal...	60	35
wood (oak).....	54	33
dried peat.....	68	43
coal, or cannel...	170	100
lamp oil.....	190	124
wax.....	220	137
Pure olefiant gas.....	284	179

Now reckoning that for the production of each measure of carbonic acid gas, an equal measure of oxygen gas is employed, then by deducting the numbers in the third column from the corresponding ones in the second column, we find the number of the remaining measures, which have disappeared in saturating the hydrogen of each gas : and as one measure of oxygen saturates two of hydrogen, double that number of measures is the volume, which the hydrogen contained in that gas, would occupy if expanded to its usual state. Thus in the combustion of the gas from coal, of 60 measures of oxygen gas, employed 35 m. has gone to the formation of carbonic acid gas, and 25 m. has disappeared with the hydrogen, double this

quantity, 50 m., is therefore the quantity of hydrogen contained in this gas. Agreeable to Mr. *Henry's* opinion, that the degree of illumination depended on the quantity of inflammable matter contained in the gas, he found that the quantity of light evolved by each gas was, as nearly as could be judged, in proportion to the quantity of oxygen required for its combustion and detonation in a close vessel. So that, agreeable to the foregoing table, the gas from moist charcoal manifested least splendor, whilst the olefiant gas exceeds all the rest, in brilliancy as well as in violence of detonation.

Mr. *Henry* also concludes that the inflammable gases are mixtures of a very few simple ones. Gas from coals he supposes to be hydro-carburet with some carbonic oxide, and a small portion, perhaps of olefiant gas: from charcoal; carbonic oxide, with hydrogen and a little hydro-carburet: from oil and from wax, pure hydro-carburets: except that the first contains one-eighth, and the latter one-fourth, of olefiant gas. The hydro-carburets from ether and alcohol he also found contained this gas; from the various admixtures of which, he thinks, proceeds that difference which induced Mr. *Cruikshank* to suppose so many different species of carburetted hydrogen. —*Nicholson's Journal*, No. 42. 1805.

GASEOUS OXIDE OF CARBON, or CARBONIC OXIDE. Dr. *Priestley*, whose numerous and valuable discoveries have so much enriched the science, discovered that a peculiar inflammable gas was yielded by grey oxide, finery cinder, or forge scales of iron, mixed with charcoal, and concluded, as no water was present, this production ought to be considered as confirming the phlogistic theory.

Mr. *Cruikshank* repeated the Doctor's experiments, and ascertained that this gas did not resemble, as the Doctor thought, the gas from moistened charcoal, or any of the carburetted hydrogen gases; being much heavier, and yielding a greater proportion of carbonic acid when combined with a given quantity of oxygen.

This gas, which he names the *gaseous oxide of carbon*, he

considers as *carbon*, united with or dissolved by *oxygen*, and deriving a gaseous form from *caloric*: the oxygen and carbon existing in it, nearly in the proportion of 21 to 9.

This gas has an offensive smell. Its gravity is to that of common air as 966 is to 1000, 100 cubic inches weighing 30 grains. It is inflammable, burning with a blue flame, alone and with common air; but detonating with oxygen gas. It yields no water whilst burning, is sparingly soluble in water, is not absorbed by liquid alkali, nor does it precipitate the lime in lime water. It does not expand with the electric spark, and is extremely noxious to animals. 100 measures being fired with 45 of oxygen gas, the 145 measures are diminished to 90, which consist of carbonic acid only.

A small additional quantity only of oxygen being required to convert it into carbonic acid: he concludes it to hold the same relation to pure carburetted hydrogen and carbonic acid, as the nitrous gas does to pure nitrogen and nitrous acid. He obtained it from mixtures of charcoal, in the driest possible state, with the metallic oxides, and particularly from the oxide of zinc, the metal being revived, having parted with its oxygen to form gaseous oxide and carbonic acid. He likewise obtained it by an analysis, or a partial decomposition, of the carbonic acid itself. He also obtained the gaseous oxide without the aid of metals, their oxides, or even the carbonic acid, from a mixture of oxygenated muriatic acid gas with the pure hydrocarbonates. Here the oxygenated acid gave out its excess of acid to the carbon and hydrogen of the inflammable gas, from a superior affinity: in consequence of which were formed four new compounds, viz. common muriatic acid, water, carbonic acid, and gaseous oxide of carbon. One part of the gaseous oxide being mixed with two of oxy-muriatic gas, both carbonic acid and gaseous oxide is produced, the excess of oxygen not being sufficient to convert the whole into carbonic acid: but if one of the gaseous oxide is mixed with four of the oxygenated muriatic gas, the whole is converted into carbonic acid and water, the excess of oxygen being sufficient

for this purpose. When mixed with nitrous gas no diminution or sensible change is perceived, which proves that its oxygen is in a combined, and not in a disengaged state.

Berthollet distinguishes inflammable gases containing carbon into *carburetted hydrogen* and *oxy-carburetted hydrogen*, and of this latter species supposes this gas to be; and calculates the proportion of hydrogen in carbonic oxide to be about $\frac{1}{5}$ of the whole. On the other hand, *Guyton*, *Clement*, and *Desormes*, agree with Mr. *Cruikshank* that it contains no hydrogen.

CARBONATES are neutral salts, composed of the *carbonic acid*, and certain *bases*. Owing to the weakness of this acid, the characters of their bases are generally most predominant.

The carbonates are not acted on by *light*, *oxygen*, or *nitrogen*. Nor do they deliquesce with the moisture of the atmosphere. Although *charcoal* decomposes the phosphoric acid alone, the carbonates are decomposed by *phosphorus*; this difference arises from the attraction which the phosphoric acid exercises on the base of the carbonate; from similar causes the effects of different combustible bodies on them vary much. All the other acids having a greater attraction for the earthy and alkaline bases than the carbonic; that acid being disengaged from the carbonates by their addition. So feeble is this acid that it is separated from most of its bases by heat only.

CARBONATE OF POT-ASH, formerly called *aërated Pot-ash*, or *aërated vegetable Alkali*, is made by exposing a solution of alkali to the carbonic acid gas until saturated, when it will crystallize in tetrahedral prisms, terminating in dihedral truncated summits. It is also left after the distillation of ammoniacal gas from a mixture of 2 parts of carbonate of ammonia, and 4 parts of the common carbonate of pot-ash. Silica and alumine decompose this carbonate with effervescence.

Its taste is mild in proportion to its saturation. It does not

attract moisture from the air, but rather parts with its water of crystallization. By exposure to heat, it loses its acid, and is rendered capable of uniting with silex and forming glass; it is decomposed by quick lime, and by all the acids. Four parts of cold water are required for its solution. 100 parts contain 23 acid, 70 alkali, and 5 water.—*Bergman*.

In consequence of the carbonic acid having a greater affinity with lime than with alkalis, the former being added to a solution of the latter, it seizes the carbonic acid, and the *pure alkali* is left.

The *pot-ash of Commerce* is a SUB-CARBONATE OF POT-ASH, containing muriate of pot-ash, with a considerable proportion of indissoluble matters.

CARBONATE OF SODA, formerly termed *aërated mineral Alkali* and *Natron*, when completely saturated with carbonic acid, yields crystals in the form of rhomboidal plates, or of dodecahedrons, formed by two tetrahedral pyramids with truncated apices, and applied base to base. This salt yields an urinary taste. It is more easily decomposable by phosphorus, than the other carbonates; for in passing the volatilized phosphorus through the heated carbonate in powder, a phosphate of soda is formed, and a pure light charcoal deposited. It soon parts with its water of crystallization; contains in 100 parts, 16 acid, 20 alkali, and 64 water; and for solution requires two parts of cold, but only its own weight of hot water.

CARBONATE OF AMMONIA, or *concrete volatile Alkali*, may be obtained from many animal substances. It may be formed, by passing the carbonic acid gas through a solution of ammoniacal gas; by exposing the ammonia in a vessel of the carbonic acid gas; or by distilling it from a mixture of ammonia and the carbonate of pot-ash, or carbonate of lime, or other neutral salts containing this acid. It dissolves in its own weight of cold water, and contains in 100 parts, 45 acid, 43 alkali, and 12 water. Its crystals are tetrahedral, or octahedral prisms, from having four angles truncated, with dihedral summits. It is very volatile in the fire, and changes in its

composition, with every change of its temperature ; giving out carbonic acid when heated, and absorbing it again as it cools : when passed through a tube heated red, it is decomposed into water, carbon, nitrogen, and carburetted hydrogen gas. Its component parts vary with the temperature employed in making it. When formed at 300° of heat, it contains more than 50 p. cent. of alkali, and when formed at 60° it contains only 20 p. cent.

CARBONATE OF BARYTES, *Barolite*, *Kirw. Witherite*, *Werner*. This combination has no taste, is not altered in the air, is almost insoluble in water, and retains its acid even at a high temperature. It is found either in striated, compact, semitransparent, white, or greyish white masses, or in hexahedral crystals. Sp. gr. 4,3 to 4,33. 100 parts contain 0,80 pure barytes, 0,20 acid. Dissolved in water impregnated with carbonic acid, it is the most effectual test of the presence of sulphuric acid.

CARBONATE OF STRONTIA, is found at *Strontian*, in Scotland, formed in small striated hexahedral prisms, of a light green, and not quite opaque. By heat it loses a part of its acid, and melts into a green glass. It gives the flames of coals a purple hue. Sp. gr. 3,658. It contains acid 0,30, strontian 0,62, water 0,08.

CARBONATE OF LIME, also called *mild calcareous Earth*, exists in the form of *chalk*, *marble*, *lime-stone*, *calcareous spar*, *stalactite*, &c. It has not been crystallized by art, except by the late experiments of Sir *James Hall*, and in one experiment of Mr. *Mushet*, but is found variously crystallized in its native state, in different modifications of the obtuse rhomboid. It has then a laminated texture, separates into rhomboidal fragments, and yields a double refraction. It contains 0,55 lime, 0,34 acid, water 0,11. By intense heat, the acid is disengaged, and *pure lime* remains ; this, by exposure to air, falls to pieces ; but in time recovers its original hardness, by re-absorbing carbonic acid gas. It is decomposed by almost all the acids, by their superior degree of attraction

for lime ; when other calcareous salts are formed, the carbonic acid, escaping in a gaseous form, and occasioning effervescence.

CARBONATE OF MAGNESIA, not fully saturated, or the magnesia of the shops, is not found in this combination ; but is obtained by precipitation with the carbonates of alkali from the sulphate of magnesia. It is soluble in water, in the proportion of several grains to an ounce. It loses its water and acid by calcination, the residue being *pure magnesia*, sometimes called *calcined magnesia*. Cold water dissolves more than hot, it is therefore precipitated by heating the solution.

When fully saturated with carbonic acid, it becomes more soluble, and by slow evaporation will crystallize in eight-sided prisms, truncated at their ends.—*Gren*.

Magnesia, in powder, not saturated, contains magnesia 0,40, acid 0,48, water 0,12. In saturated crystals magnesia 0,25, acid 0,50, water 0,25.—*Tab. de Fourcroy*, 1800.

CARBONATE OF GLUCINE is a light, white, soft, and insipid powder, unchangeable in the air, which soon loses its water and acid in the fire, and is insoluble in water even though aided by its proper acid.

CARBONATE OF ALUMINE has been said to have been found near *Halle*, in Magdebourg.

Saussure asserts, that alumine will not form with carbonic acid a concrete carbonate of alumine : the supposed artificial concrete carbonate of alumine being the result of the union of alumine with alkali and carbonic acid ; and native clays did not appear to him in the state of carbonates.

CARBONATE OF ZIRCONIA is insipid, and indissoluble in water. It contains 55,5 of zirconia, and 44,5 of acid and water.

AMMONIACO-MAGNESIAN CARBONATE forms when the two salts meet ; it is crystallizable, and less soluble than the salts by which it is formed.—*Fourcroy, Tableaux Synoptiques*, 1800.

PHOSPHORUS.

PHOSPHORUS was discovered by *Kunckell* in Germany, and by *Boyle* in England. The mode of obtaining it will be described whilst examining the substances by which it is chiefly yielded. It is a solid, inflammable, and hitherto undecomposed body, obtained chiefly from substances of the animal kingdom. It is at first transparent and of a light yellow colour, but after some time keeping it becomes opaque and white; and if kept in the sun, it becomes of a deeper yellow. Its mean specific gravity is 1,770. It assumes a liquid form at 100° Fahr. and becomes æriform at 554°. In the ordinary heat of the atmosphere, it yields a faint but beautiful light, and a white smoke: and may be set on fire merely by friction. It burns with a blue feeble flame in atmospheric air, at even below 50°, and with an intensely vivid flame at 122°. It burns with increased splendour in *nitrous oxide*, as well as in *oxy-muriatic gas*. In *oxygen gas* it burns, on the application of heat, with the most vivid flame that can be conceived. The residue after combustion is a red caustic substance, which liquefies by attracting humidity from the air. Its most generally interesting property is, that of its being luminous in the dark.

It is soluble in *oils*, more especially in volatile oils, which then become luminous: every time the bottle is opened a phosphoric flash is seen.

It dissolves in *hydrogen*, and may be then united with *oxygen*. It separates the oxygen from the oxy-muriatic acid. *Water* does not dissolve phosphorus, but only holds small atoms of it suspended in it. *Atmospheric air* dissolves it at the moment of burning, and becomes phosphorescent. *Fourcroy* observes, that it undergoes no change in pure *oxygen*, unless heat be applied. *Nitrogen* gas dissolves it, and becomes luminous on the admission of a portion of oxygen. Its affinity with *carbon* is such, that a portion is believed, by *M.*

Steinacher, to be retained by what has been supposed to be the purest phosphorus, (*Ann. de Chemic.* N° 139.) *Brugnatelli* observes, that it shines better in carbonic acid gas, to which a little oxygen is added, than in atmospheric air.

Phosphorus surrounded by cotton rubbed in powdered rosin, and placed under a receiver, takes fire after exhaustion; and displays very beautiful phenomena, especially on the gradual admission of the air.—*Van Marum*.

A very thin slice of phosphorus being placed on an anvil with a few grains of nitrate of silver, and smartly struck with a hammer, a strong detonation is produced. The lapis infernalis and all the metallic nitrates being thus treated, violent detonations are produced. The experiment also succeeds with the common nitrate of pot-ash, but the hammer requires to be heated.—*Brugnatelli*.

Two grains and a half of oxygenated muriate of ammonia, with four grains of phosphorus, being gently crushed on the anvil, will produce a most terrible detonation.

Phosphorus precipitates some metallic oxides from their solutions, in a metallic state, and the phosphoric acid is formed; the oxygen quitting the metal to unite with the phosphorus.

PHOSPHORIC ACID may be obtained directly from calcined bones, but as it then contains also sulphate and phosphate of lime; being, according to *Fourcroy* and *Vauquelin*, a superphosphate of lime, 100 parts of which contain only 30 of uncombined acid, and 70 of the phosphate; it is preferable to procure it by the action of nitric acid on phosphorus in oxygen gas. When deprived of its water by exposure to a red heat, it is solid, colourless, and transparent, in which state it has been called *phosphoric glass*. Sp. gr. in this state of purity, is 2,8516. It is composed of oxygen 60. Phosphorus 40. The phosphoric acid is readily soluble in water, and is neither odorous nor volatile.

Light has no action on it. Being saturated it exercises no attraction for *oxygen*, neither does any action appear to take place between it and *nitrogen*, or *hydrogen*, but it slowly

oxidizes some of the *metals*. It combines, however, with the *metallic oxides*, and is decomposed by *charcoal* at a red heat, carbonic acid being formed by the union of charcoal with its oxygen, and phosphorus is sublimed.

PHOSPHOROUS ACID is produced by the slow combustion of phosphorus at the common temperature of the atmosphere. It is fluid, and yields a smell like garlic. On heat being applied, a gas is yielded, which takes fire on coming in contact with the air. The water in which phosphorus is kept, contracts acidity in time, the water yielding oxygen to the phosphorus.

The nitric acid being digested on phosphorus, phosphorous acid is formed, and a gas escapes, which takes fire in the receiver, affording the appearance of flashes of lightning striking through the cavity of the vessels.

PHOSPHURET OF SULPHUR may be formed, in different proportions, by fusing sulphur and phosphorus together, but this should be done with a moderate degree of heat, and under water; lest an explosion take place from the too rapid evolution of phosphuretted hydrogen. It is more fusible than sulphur, and so combustible as to inflame in the atmosphere by mere friction. It inflames with great rapidity in oxygen gas, and spontaneously in muriatic acid gas, even when containing about a sixth part only of phosphorus. It is employed for forming phosphoric bottles, which inflame merely by friction. This purpose is also accomplished by melting and spreading dry phosphorus on the inside of a phial, which being kept close, the phosphorus ignites on the friction of a common sulphur match.

By putting a piece of phosphorus the size of a pea into a phial, and adding boiling oil, until the bottle is a third full, a luminous bottle is formed; for on taking out the cork, to admit atmospheric air, the empty space in the phial will become luminous. If care be taken to keep it, in general, well closed, it will preserve its illuminative power several months.—*Sonini's Journal*.

PHOSPHURET OF CARBON is a light, flocky powder, of a lively orange red; being the red substance which remains behind, when new-made phosphorus is strained through leather.

When exposed in a retort to a red heat, the phosphorus comes over, and the charcoal remains.

Phosphorus combines with the *fixed alkalies* and with the *earths*.

PHOSPHURET OF LIME is formed by putting some fragments of phosphorus at the bottom of a glass tube, coated with clay, over which five times its weight of lime is to be placed; and that part of the tube containing the lime is to be first heated, and then that in which the phosphorus is placed. The phosphorus subliming will directly unite with the heated lime, and form a solid brown mass, which on the addition of water gives out phosphuretted hydrogen gas. If the phosphorus be diffused through a larger portion of lime it affords a powder which burns with a phosphoric light on being dispersed in a warm air.

Oxygenated muriate of pot-ash and phosphuret of lime being put into a glass of water, and sulphuric acid added, the phosphuret is seen to burn under the water; fire at the same time bursting from its surface.

PHOSPHURETTED HYDROGEN, or *Phosphorised Hydrogen Gas*, discovered by *Gingembre*, is obtained from the decomposition of *water*, by heating *caustic alkalies*, or *quick lime*, with phosphorus and a very small quantity of water. This gas may also be obtained by the action of water upon phosphuret of lime. Mr. *Davy* obtains this gas by putting into a wine glass pieces of phosphorus, some filings of zinc and water, and adding to them sulphuric acid: the hydrogen uniting, at the moment of its formation, with the phosphorus, this gas is produced.—*Mr. Davy's Lectures*.

This gas has a very fetid odour. It is the most combustible known substance: its combustion taking place merely from its coming in contact with the oxygen of the atmosphere, as is the case, when its bubbles rise to the surface: it then detonating and burning with a brilliant flame; occasioning, when the air is calm, an undulating and increasing ring of smoke. It burns with vast splendour in oxygen gas, with which also it suddenly unites, the two gases seeming mutually to penetrate each

other, and are totally converted into water and phosphoric acid. On being mixed with *oxy-muriatic* gas or *oxygen* gas, a loud explosion and a brilliant flash is produced, water and phosphoric acid being formed. It is decomposable by the electric spark, and is soluble in four times its weight of water.

When bits of phosphorus are kept for some hours in *hydrogen* gas, part of the phosphorus is dissolved; and bubbles of this gas, (which contains a less dose of phosphorus than the gas just treated of) being made to pass into oxygen gas, a brilliant bluish flame is produced, which pervades the whole vessel of oxygen gas.

Sulphuretted hydrogen gas possesses the property of dissolving a small quantity of phosphorus, if suffered to remain in it. When common air is admitted to this compound, a voluminous bluish flame is produced, and the hands being plunged into it, continue luminous for some time after.

PHOSPHATES, the result of the union of phosphoric acid with certain bases, are generally crystallizable, slightly pungent, and of considerable gravity. They are unchanged by *light*, by *oxygen*, by *nitrogen*, or even by *heated hydrogen* and *charcoal*, which are capable of decomposing the phosphoric acid itself. The alkaline and earthy phosphates are the following.

PHOSPHATE OF POT-ASH forms a very soluble salt, in a gelatinous form. It swells on hot coals, and forms a transparent vitreous mass.

PHOSPHATE OF SODA forms in rhomboidal crystals which effloresce in the air. Its crystallization is improved by its holding an excess of soda. This like the former phosphate melts into a glass when ignited. It has been introduced into medicine by Dr. *Pearson*, as a useful and almost tasteless cathartic. It enters into a state of vitrification with the metallic oxides, and with most of the earths.

PHOSPHATE OF AMMONIA forms in tetrahedral crystals, easily soluble in water. It readily fuses into a transparent glass, when it parts with its ammonia.

PHOSPHATE OF AMMONIA AND SODA exists in human

urine. The ammonia is by degrees dissipated, and leaves an acid phosphate of soda. Its composition is phosphoric acid 32 parts, soda 24, ammonia 19, water 25.

PHOSPHATE OF BARYTES is tasteless and insoluble, and convertible by fire into a glass. It is obtained in a pulverulent state.

PHOSPHATE OF STRONTIA is soluble, when the acid is in excess, and forms tabular crystals. In fire it fuses into a mass like porcelain, shining with a phosphoric light.

PHOSPHATE OF LIME is white, friable, insipid, opaque, and insoluble in water. It exists in the bones, the urine, and in several other parts of animals. It is formed by phosphoric acid 41 parts, and lime 59 parts.

Pure phosphate of lime is best obtained by dissolving calcined bone in muriatic acid, and precipitating by ammonia, in its state of greatest causticity.—*Cherenix*.

This salt, *apatite* or *phosphorite*, has been found in an amorphous state in Hungary, and forming entire mountains in Spain. It is also found in truncated hexhedral, longitudinally striated prisms, laminated in their transverse fracture, and generally with tin and fluor. *Klaproth* found it to contain acid 45, lime 55. The *chrysolite* is also considered as a saline combination of this species. Its composition is 54 of phosphoric acid, and 46 of lime.

PHOSPHATE OF MAGNESIA is difficult of solution, but becomes more easily soluble, crystallizable, and fusible, the more it contains of phosphoric acid.

PHOSPHATE OF AMMONIA AND MAGNESIA has been found in the intestinal concretions of horses, and in the urinary concretions of the human race. It forms in spathose semitransparent lamellæ.

PHOSPHATE OF GLUCINE forms in a white powder, or a mucilaginous mass. It is tasteless. It is not decomposable, but is fusible, by heat.

PHOSPHATE OF ALUMINE forms in thin flattened needle-like crystals, obliquely truncated at both ends. It deliquesces in the air, and, in a melting heat, fuses into a glass.

SILICA combines with the phosphoric acid in a vitreous combination, which, being very transparent, hard, dense, insoluble, and fusible, is often employed in the formation of artificial gems. It is indecomposable by the acids, and even the alkalis with intense heat combine with it without altering it.

PHOSPHITES, or combinations of phosphorous acid with various bases, are never found native. They differ from the phosphates in yielding a foetid alliaceous odour. They are decomposable by all the *acids*, whilst the phosphates yield only to the strongest. But like these, they are not decomposed by *combustible bodies*. They are fusible, and when fused yield a portion of phosphorus, and become phosphate.

PHOSPHITE OF AMMONIA appears to be the only one requiring to be particularized.

It is obtained by uniting the phosphorous acid with ammonia or carbonate of ammonia, and evaporating the solution slowly.

By distillation it is decomposed, part of the ammonia comes over in a liquid form, and another part in the form of gas, holding phosphorus in solution, which does not inflame instantaneously, but gives a phosphoric light in contact with oxygen gas, the vitreous phosphoric acid remaining in the retort.

If this phosphite be melted with the blow pipe on charcoal, it emits a bright phosphoric light, vitrifies, and darts forth bubbles of gas, which inflame in the air with a bright flame, and form a white ring of vapour of phosphoric acid; vitreous phosphoric acid remaining on the charcoal.

If this salt be heated in a retort, the end of which is plunged under mercury, bubbles of phosphuret of hydrogen are yielded, which spontaneously inflame in the air, and give the white circular coronet which characterizes the inflammation of this gas, and which in this case is formed of phosphate of ammonia. The ammonia, the phosphorus, and the water of the phosphite, are raised in vapour, and the water is decomposed, its oxygen uniting with a part of the other two principles, and its hydrogen with another part. The latter combination is that on which these phenomena depend.

MURIATIC ACID.

MURIATIC ACID, formerly termed *Marine Acid*, or *Acid of Sea Salt*, &c. has never been yet decomposed, and is conjectured, from analogy, to consist of *oxygen*, in combination with a peculiar, but hitherto *unknown basis* *, which has the strongest degree of attraction for the acidifying principle. It is obtained by distillation from a mixture of muriate of soda, or of muriate of ammonia, with half its weight of sulphuric acid.

MURIATIC ACID GAS is a permanent gas, at all known temperatures; it has a strong smell, is caustic, and is exceedingly pungent to the taste. It is nearly twice as heavy as common air, and extinguishes flame; first enlarging it, by a greenish or bluish circumambient flame: the flame manifesting a similar tinge, when the taper is next lighted. It suffocates animals by its strong action on the glottis. It is unchangeable by *light*, *caloric*, or *combustible bodies*. It acts on *metals* only by the water it has attracted, and unless it obtains an union with water, it does not displace the carbonic and other weaker acids. It forms a white cloud with the *water* contained in the atmosphere, uniting with water with great rapidity and

* *Girtanner* supposed this radical to be *hydrogen*; *Berthollet* thinks the muriatic acid is a triple compound of *oxygen*, of *hydrogen* in small quantity, and *nitrogen* in a greater proportion; and *Armet* thought it to be the metal *zinc*.

Mr. *W. Lambe* supposes that *sulphuretted hydrogen* is the base of muriatic acid, he having obtained oxy-muriatic gas by dropping sulphuric acid on the residuum left, after evaporating water impregnated with hepatic gas, in which iron and manganese had been digested.—*Manchester Mem.* vol. v.

We are informed that water being exposed to the action of the two wires of the *galvanic* battery, *muriatic acid* and *soda* have been produced. These experiments are particularly noticed in the section allotted to galvanism.

heat, and forming the *liquid muriatic acid*. By taking the electric spark in this gas, the acid is not affected, but Mr. Henry found that the water it contained was completely decomposed. This gas has been successfully employed in neutralizing and destroying the injurious powers of putrid miasma.

On being mixed with ammoniacal gas, muriate of ammonia, in the form of white vapours, is directly formed.

LIQUID MURIATIC ACID, when pure, is colourless; and when fully charged with gas, its weight to that of water is as 1200 is to 1000. The muriatic acid of commerce derives a yellow colour, either from a small quantity of oxymuriatic acid, or of muriate of iron, which it contains. It has a peculiar suffocating smell, and copiously emits vapours, which are rendered more visible by their mixture with the moisture of the atmosphere. It takes part of its oxygen from nitric acid. It does not act on *the simple combustible bodies*, nor on *oxygen gas*, but readily seizes the oxygen of oxidized bodies. It absorbs the carbonic acid, and its affinities with barytes, pot-ash, soda, strontia, lime, ammonia, magnesia, and alumine, appear to be in the order they are here placed.

MURIATES are neutral salts, formed by the *muriatic acid* and certain *bases*. *Light* does not act sensibly on them, nor does *oxygen* or *nitrogen*. With heat they decrepitate, melt, and sublime; but very rarely suffer the separation of their acid: and a distinguishing characteristic of these salts is, that they are not acted on by *combustible bodies*, even with increased temperature.

Sulphuric Acid being poured on them, muriatic acid rises in white fumes. *Nitric Acid* occasions exhalations of the oxymuriatic kind.

MURIATE OF POT-ASH, the *febrifuge Salt of Silvius*. It contains in 100 grains, 29,68 acid, 63,47 alkali, and 6,85 water. It is found in sea water, in old plaster, and in vegetable and animal fluids. It crystallizes in cubes, or rectangular parallelepipeds, which have a strong, bitter, disagreeable taste.

MURIATE OF SODA, *Marine Salt, Common Salt, Rock*

Salt, Bay Salt, or Sal Gem, contains in 100 grains 43 acid, 46 alkali, and 11 water. It is found native, in mines, in many places, but particularly in Poland and Hungary. These mines appearing, from the shells, madrepores, &c. which are found in them, to have been formed by the drying up of vast lakes. It is also obtained by extracting it from sea water, by evaporation, putrefaction, &c. It is not decomposed by silica, and but slightly by clay. It however occasions clay to fuse readily, and is thus employed in glazing *pottery*: it assists the fusion of *glass* also. It has a penetrating pleasant taste, decrepitate on hot coals, and by great heat, is volatilized without decomposition. It crystallizes in cubes, and in hollow tetrahedral pyramids, soluble in 2,5 their weight of cold water. It is very slightly deliquescent; the deliquescence of common salt depending on that of the earthy muriates it contains.

The soda is advantageously obtained from it by the addition of nitric acid, and the oxides of lead. The soda is also separable by barytes, pot-ash, and particularly by the vegetable acid combined with lead; the muriatic acid uniting with the lead, and forming a muriate, whilst the soda combines with the vegetable acid, from which it may be afterwards freed by evaporation and calcination.

Proust has discovered mercury in the *muriatic acid*, in the state of corrosive sublimate, arising from mercury which is naturally contained in sea salt.—*Journal de Physique*.

MURIATE OF AMMONIA, or *Sal Ammonia*, is found native in many parts, particularly in the neighbourhood of volcanos. It is obtained artificially, by distillation from the soot formed by the combustion of the excrements of animals which feed on saline plants. 100 parts contain 52 acid, 40 ammonia, and 8 water. It crystallizes in quadrangular prisms, or in rhombic or octahedral crystals; of a sharp, acid, urinous taste, showing a slight degree of ductility under the hammer. It dissolves in three parts and a half of water, at 60°. It is not decomposed by clay, nor entirely by magnesia: but is completely

decomposed by lime, and fixed alkalies, the ammonia being disengaged in the state of gas, leaving a muriate of lime or of alkali. If the lime or fixed alkali be pure, *pure ammonia* is obtained, but if the carbonate of lime or of alkali be employed, then a *carbonate of ammonia* is the result of the process.

MURIATE OF BARYTES does not seem to exist native. When obtained artificially, it forms generally in tabular octagonal crystals, which do not suffer any change in the air, and but little in the fire, and have a nauseous and burning taste. The sulphuric and nitric acids decompose it very readily; hence this salt is highly useful to detect the presence of these acids in any mixture; one drop of its solution producing an evident precipitate from water holding only 0,0002 of sulphuric acid. This salt produces the same effect on the flame of alcohol as the nitrate of barytes does, giving it a yellowish white hue. 100 parts contain 64 of baryt, 20 of acid, and 16 of water, according to Kirwan.

MURIATE OF STRONTIA forms small hexahedral prisms. It dissolves in alcohol, and gives to its flame a bright red colour. Its composition is strontia 36,4, acid 23,6, water 40.

MURIATE OF LIME, *Calcareous Marine Salt*, or *Glauber's fixed Sal Ammonia*, is found in mineral waters, but particularly in the waters of the sea, to which it contributes to give their bitter taste. It constitutes the residue of the distillation of 3 parts of lime, 1 of water, and 1 of muriate of ammonia. It speedily deliquesces, and therefore crystallizes with difficulty, in hexahedral prisms, with hexahedral summits. 100 parts of lime take up 86 of real muriatic acid. It fuses with a moderate heat, loses a large portion of its acid, and becomes the *Phosphorus of Homberg*, which gives light when struck upon or scratched. A very strong solution, being mixed with the concentrated sulphuric acid, a solid precipitate is formed, and the acid disengaged in vapours; the two liquids appearing to be instantly transformed into a solid. An inspissated solution being agitated concretes into a solid mass, giving out a consi-

derable portion of caloric. The salt produces the lowest degree of cold on mixture with snow of any saline substance.

MURIATE OF MAGNESIA exists in the mother water of salt works, in springs, and in the waters of the sea. It forms acicular, but deliquescent crystals, of an acrid and bitter taste. 100 parts contain 34 of acid, 41 of magnesia, 25 of water. This muriate suffers decomposition by heat.

MURIATE OF AMMONIA AND MAGNESIA forms very readily in polyhedral crystals, whose figure is not yet ascertained. It is decomposable by heat. Its composition is muriate of magnesia 73, muriate of ammonia 27.

MURIATE OF ALUMINE crystallizes with difficulty, leaving generally, after evaporation, a saline astringent mass, of a gummy consistence.

MURIATE OF GLUCINE forms in sweet and very small crystals. It is decomposed by heat and by the sulphuric and nitric acid.

MURIATE OF ZIRCON forms in indeterminate acicular crystals, deliquescent, easily decomposed by fire, and possessing a sharp, austere taste.

MURIATE OF SILICA is obtained by the action of this acid on the silica in a state of division with alkali. It may, by slow evaporation, be rendered a transparent jelly, but by boiling the earth is precipitated.

MURIATE OF YTTRIA resembles, in its properties, the nitrate of this earth.

OXY-MURIATIC ACID GAS, discovered by *Scheele*, is formed by the addition of *oxygen* to the *muriatic acid*, with which it readily unites when in a nascent state. It is therefore obtained by distillation of the muriatic acid from substances containing much oxygen; such are the oxides of metals, particularly the native oxide of manganese. It is of a greenish yellow colour. It is much heavier than atmospheric air. Its vapour irritates the larynx violently, and produces a defluxion from the nostrils, &c. It destroys the colour of most substances. It is composed of muriatic acid 84, and oxygen 16.

It retains its gaseous form at common temperatures, but is condensable by cold, and absorbable by water, 1 part of water absorbing 5 of gas.

It is not altered by exposure to *light*, and is so little affected by *heat* as to pass through a red hot tube unchanged. It has no action on *nitrogen* or *oxygen gas*, nor on *hydrogen* in the cold. It inflames *phosphuretted hydrogen* gas, and pure *hydrogen* also, at a red heat. Being mixed with hydrogen in the proportion of 4 to 3 common muriatic acid gas is formed, the superabundant oxygen uniting with the hydrogen, and forming water. The electric spark being passed through a similar mixture, a detonation and the absorption of the whole of the gas will be produced. It inflames melted *sulphur*, and forms *sulphuric acid*. It acts not at all on *carbon*. If mixed with an equal quantity of *hydrogen* gas only, the latter burns on the application of a taper. Similar effects follow if *carburetted hydrogen* be employed instead of simple hydrogen. If the oxy-muriatic gas be added to the *gaseous oxide of carbon*, the latter attaches to itself oxygen sufficient to render it carbonic acid. This mixture is not inflammable. If the *carburetted hydrogen obtained from alcohol and sulphuric acid* be mixed with oxy-muriatic gas, it is directly diminished in bulk, and a thin film of oil forms on the surface of the water, hence this carburetted hydrogen is termed *the olefiant gas*. Oxy-muriatic acid being added to *ammoniacal gas* a rapid combustion with a white flame is produced; a decomposition of both gases taking place. It reddens *nitrous gas*, and changes it to nitrous acid. It also imparts its oxygen to the *sulphurous* and *phosphorous* acids, converting them to *sulphuric* and *phosphoric* acids.

It does not inflame *sulphur*, although it promotes its combustion when commenced. It will however slowly oxygenize sulphur exposed to its action. It effectually destroys all vegetable colours, and is therefore highly useful in the operation of bleaching.

It burns all, and inflames several of the *metallic substances*,

on their being thrown into it in fine filings; as well as some of the metallic sulphurets. Phosphorus, charcoal, camphor, alcohol, ether, and other *inflammable bodies*, burn spontaneously in it, and yield phenomena different from those proceeding from their combustion in common air. Camphor burns with a vivid light, but a large portion of dense black smoke is evolved.

It displaces the *carbonic acid* from its combinations, and is itself displaced from water to which it has been united, by the simple muriatic acid gas.

The agencies of this acid appear to resemble those of the atmosphere, except in degree; it effecting that with rapidity which the air does slowly.

LIQUID OXYGENIZED MURIATIC ACID is formed by the absorption of this gas by water, which is much assisted by pressure. Its colour is a yellowish green, its taste is more astringent than acid, if quite free from the common muriatic acid. Its purity may be ascertained by a solution of nitrate of mercury, which is precipitated by muriatic, but not by oxy-muriatic acid. Its smell is exceedingly strong and disagreeable; its vapours irritating the larynx violently, and producing a flow of thickened mucus from the neighbouring glands. It destroys the colour of most substances, combining with the colouring matter, itself suffering decomposition. It rapidly oxidizes *metals*, and thickens *oils*. When about the freezing point, it crystallizes in quadrangular spiculæ, or separates in a liquid, heavier than water.

Exposed to the *light*, oxygen gas is separated, and ordinary muriatic acid is left: as its loss of oxygen is in a direct *ratio* of the quantity of light, the oxy-muriatic acid has been proposed as a *PHOTOMETER*.

It does not suffer decomposition at the heat of boiling water, since it may be distilled unchanged. But whether in the gaseous or liquid form, the oxygen appears to be but weakly retained.

When it is mixed with *ammonia*, decomposition with great effervescence takes place; no neutral salt is formed; but the

hydrogen of the ammonia, combining with the superabundant oxygen of the acid, forms water; the nitrogen escapes in the form of gas, and common muriatic acid is left.

Phosphorus immediately unites with its oxygen, and forms phosphoric acid.

It removes the stain of common ink, though it does not affect printers' ink. It is therefore recommended for cleaning old books and prints. Half an ounce of minium being added to three ounces of common muriatic acid, will render it fit for this purpose.—*Fabroni Giornale Litt. di Napoli.*

Guitand discovered that *sulphuret of ammonia* and *prussiate of pot-ash* revives writing effaced by this acid. 1800.

It also powerfully bleaches linen, cotton, cloths, and paper.

The HYPER-OXYMURIATIC ACID has not yet been examined in a separate state, although its existence, and some of its peculiar properties, are known. Mr. *Chevenix* has ascertained that muriatic acid does exist in the form of oxygenized and hyper-oxygenized muriatic acid, and that in either state it is capable of entering into saline combination. The muriatic acid, he observes, has acid properties of the strongest kind, and is therefore supposed, though perhaps too hastily, to contain oxygen; since for all that we know it is a simple body. The oxygenized acid, he finds, is composed of 84 parts of muriatic acid and 16 of oxygen: the hyper-oxygenized acid, of muriatic acid 35 parts, and of oxygen 65; and the hyper-oxygenized muriate of pot-ash, of oxygen 38,3, and muriatic acid 20, forming hyper-oxygenized acid 58,3, with pot-ash 39,2, and water 2,5. In the formation of the hyper-oxygenized muriates, he supposes that the acid combines with the alkalies in the state of oxygenized muriatic acid; and that the separation into muriate and hyper-oxygenized muriate, is produced by a subsequent action among the elements of oxygenized muriate of pot-ash, which genus of salts he thinks does really exist previous to the formation of the hyper-oxygenized muriate.—*Philos. Trans.* 1802.

The HYPER-OXYGENIZED MURIATES are formed by the

union of the oxygenated muriatic acid with the alkaline and earthy bases. This combination only takes place when the acid is employed in its gaseous form; its union with water lessening its attraction to the base. The base, it must be observed, does not partake of the acid uniformly; but one portion becomes saturated with the acid in a simple state, whilst another portion becomes united, not merely with the oxygenized acid, but with that portion of oxygen which has quitted that part of the acid which forms the simple muriate, and which hyper-oxygenizes this portion of the acid, and consequently the muriate it forms.

They scintillate, with noise, by simple trituration. They are decomposed by a low red heat, and give out oxygen as they become simple muriates, never retaining that proportion of oxygen which would constitute oxygenized muriates. They inflame all *combustible bodies* with violence, and if acted on, in contact with them, by trituration or percussion, decrepitation, or detonation with deflagration, is produced. They are soluble in water, and some of them in alcohol. The acid is expelled, without heat, with particular phenomena, by the *sulphuric, nitric, and muriatic* acids; and a little below boiling heat by *phosphoric, arsenic, oxalic, tartarous, and citric* acids, the three latter producing the evolutions of a gas of a peculiar nature, not yet examined. The stronger acids disengage the acid, with a flash of light, more frequently from the earthy than from the saline hyper-oxygenized muriates. All the hyper-oxygenized muriates are, indeed, decomposed by the acids, and often with violent decrepitation, disengagement of a yellowish green vapour, and a powerful smell. This vapour, according to *Berthollet*, is HYPER-OXY-MURIATIC ACID. It is heavy, and falls in greenish drops, forming streams like oil.—*Mr. Chevenix*.

HYPER-OXY-MURIATE OF POT-ASH is formed by introducing the oxygenized muriatic gas into a solution of pot-ash; the common muriate being formed at the same time. But as the hyper-oxygenized muriate is less soluble than the other,

and its crystals form speedily, they are therefore easily separated. Its crystals are flat hexahedral prisms, obliquely truncated at their ends, and of a silvery hue. They give a faint taste, with a sensation of coldness in the mouth, and crackle and sparkle on being rubbed.

If concentrated *sulphuric acid* be poured on this salt, and the slightest heat be applied, a violent explosion and sometimes a flash takes place, and a thick heavy vapour of a greenish yellow colour is disengaged, smelling something like nitrous gas, but more fœtid. At the bottom of the vapour may be seen a bright orange-coloured liquor, the hyper-oxygenized acid, but impure, though as pure as it has yet been obtained. If the acid be diluted, the heat may be applied with more safety. It is also decomposed by the other stronger acids. If a few grains of the hyper-oxy-muriate of pot-ash be dropt into sulphuric acid in a deep vessel, the upper part of the vessel becomes filled with oxy-muriatic gas, which immediately inflames rosin, alcohol, and various combustible substances, if dropt into it.

It appears to contain more oxygen than an equal weight of oxygenated muriatic acid in water: hence the acid, combined in the muriate, is supposed to be super-oxygenated.

Heat and light separate its oxygen from it, in the form of oxygen gas, 100 grains yielding 75 cubic inches of oxygen gas.

On being brought into contact with *inflamed* bodies it detonates with more violence than nitre. When mixed with half its weight of *sulphur* it explodes, by sudden pressure; and sometimes spontaneously. If the mixture be rubbed hard, reports as loud as those of a pistol are made, with flashes of light. If the mixture be struck with a hammer on an anvil, a very loud explosion ensues. These effects, but in a less degree, may be produced if *charcoal* be employed instead of sulphur; but if three parts of the hyper-oxygenized muriate be rubbed with a sixth of sulphur and as much charcoal the detonations are more violent, and the light more vivid. This salt being rubbed with an equal quantity of *phosphorus*, a violent explosion fol-

lows with a flash of light; with *pit-coal*, sparks, and some small reports are produced; and with *sulphuret of pot-ash*, and *of the metals*, the same effects follow, but in a higher degree. Detonations in various degrees are occasioned by its being rubbed with *loaf sugar*, *oils*, *camphor*, *rosin*, *gum-arabic*, *indigo*, &c. Most of the *metals* being mixed with it will de-flagrate in the same manner.

If any of the *preceding mixtures* are dropt into *concentrated sulphuric acid*, a most vivid flame is produced, with detonation. The oxy-muriate alone being thrown into concentrated sulphuric acid, a violent detonation with a red flame ensues, and a brown vapour, smelling of the oxygenized acid, is separated, which sometimes will explode on the application of flame with more violence than the original mixture. If a small piece of *phosphorus* be added with the muriate to the sulphuric acid the explosion takes place still more rapidly: heat also increases these effects to a very high degree.

Phosphorus may, by means of this salt, be made even to burn under water, it being introduced in its divided state into water, in which hyper-oxygenized muriate of pot-ash has first been put; sulphuric acid being then added, the hyper-oxygenized muriatic acid is separated, and acting in its nascent state on the phosphorus, immediately inflames it. In this manner also may the inflammation and detonation of different *combustible bodies* be produced. A grain or two of phosphorus being dropped in a solution of the oxygenized muriate in nitric acid, a great number of vivid flashes appear in the liquor. It is hardly necessary to observe, that in making all these experiments, mischief may be occasioned, if the greatest caution be not observed.

Being employed in the fabrication of gun-powder instead of nitre, the effects produced by its ignition are augmented to a fourfold degree; but the mixture exploding by mere trituration, the first attempt to make it was attended with fatal consequences to two by-standers.

The hyper-oxygenized muriate of pot-ash increases the blackness of ink, used in the proportion of 1 to 5 of the sulphates

contained in the ink. The colours of logwood, weld, cochinnelle, and archil, are improved by it, if no heat be employed. Being blended with soap, the soap is improved in its qualities.—*A. J. Forsyth, Nicholson's Journal, July 1799.*

HYPER-OXYGENIZED MURIATE OF SODA differs from that of pot-ash, in being more disposed to effervescence, and to solution in alcohol.

Of the other hyper-oxygenized muriates there is but little remarkable. *Van Mons* says, he formed the HYPER-OXYGENIZED MURIATE OF AMMONIA; but *Gren* asserts that such a combination cannot exist, he arguing from the property which oxygenized muriatic acid possesses of decomposing ammonia; but *Mr. Chevenix* observes that the affinity of the hyper-oxygenized acid may favour the quiescent affinities, and he says, that if carbonate of ammonia be poured into any earthy salt of this genus, a double decomposition takes place, and hyper-oxygenized muriate of ammonia is formed. *Mr. Chevenix* has never perceived that any portion of *silica* has been dissolved by this acid.

NITRO-MURIATIC ACID, or *Aqua Regia*, is formed by the mixture of the *nitric* and *muriatic* acids, in the proportion of two parts of the former, and one of the latter. Four ounces of sal ammonia, dissolved gradually in the cold, in one pound of nitric acid, forms an *aqua regia*. The muriatic acid, in these processes, attaches to itself a portion of the oxygen from the nitric acid, and thus oxygenized escapes in a yellow fume; whilst the nitrous gas, which belonged to the nitric acid, thus deprived of its oxygen, is absorbed by the unaltered portion of nitric acid, which it discolours and changes to nitrous, thus forming a mixture of muriatic and of nitrous acid.

The nitro-muriatic is of a yellow colour, and its specific gravity is less than that of either of the acids employed. It readily dissolves *gold*, which is not done by either of the acids of which it is composed. It is employed by the dyers for the solution of *tin*, which nitric acid corrodes, and oxidizes without dissolving.

BORACIC ACID.

BORACIC ACID is an undecomposed acid, formerly called *Homborg's Sedative Salt*. It has been found naturally formed in several parts, but it is generally found in combination with soda, forming *borax*, from which it is obtained by sublimation, or crystallization. The nitric and muriatic acids may be employed for this purpose; but half its weight of sulphuric acid poured on borax, yields the acid by sublimation, in a beautiful state. It is also obtained by crystallization, by adding sulphuric acid to a solution of borax in hot water. The acid is deposited on the sides of the vessel, of a white, scaly, glittering appearance, as the mixture cools: it is also separated by the vegetable acids. The process by sublimation should be adopted only for the indissoluble borates; and the other, by which the acid is obtained most pure, should be employed for the more soluble.

It is a solid substance, which is without smell, and which yields a saline cool taste, and reddens the blue vegetable infusions. It requires one pound of boiling water for the dissolution of 183 grains, but is dissolved more easily in alcohol; the solution being of a beautiful green, and burning with a green flame. Aided by heat it dissolves in oils. Exposed to the fire, it becomes a vitriform and transparent substance, if dry; but if moist, it sublimes, being mechanically raised up with the aqueous vapours. But its fixity in fire greatly distinguishes it from the other mineral acids.

Neither the composition, nor origin of this acid, is known. It is not acted on by *light*, *oxygen*, nor *nitrogen*; nor by *hydrogen*, *carbon*, nor the other *combustible bodies*. It is among the weakest acids, and acts least powerfully on the *metals* and their *oxides*.

BORATES are combinations of boracic acid with various

bases. The earthy and alkaline borates have in general an acid taste, and are unchanged by oxygen, nitrogen, or by combustible bodies. They combine with and form coloured glasses with the metallic oxides. The carbonic acid is the only acid which manifests no action on them, and although so weak an acid, yet from its fixity it will remain attached to its bases, whilst the stronger acids are driven off by a high temperature.

BORATE OF SODA, or *Borax*, is formed by the combination of *acid of borax* and *soda*. The borax of commerce is a borate supersaturated with soda. It is found in a crystallized state, at the bottom of certain salt lakes, in a barren, volcanic district of the kingdom of Thibet, invested in a greasy covering, and is called *brute borax*, *tincall*, or *chrysocolla*. It is also found in a purer state in the mines of Riquintipa, and of Escapa. A still purer kind comes from China. When purified, it is white and transparent, with somewhat of a greasy fracture. It has a pleasant acid taste, renders the blue vegetable infusions green, and forms in hexahedral prismatic crystals, two sides of which exceed the others in breadth, terminated by three sided summits. It requires twelve times its weight of cold water to dissolve it; but is dissolved in six times its weight of boiling water. On rubbing two pieces together a phosphoric light is produced. Exposed to a moderate heat, it melts with its water of crystallization, and is reduced into a white opaque light mass, when it is commonly called *calcined borax*. In a more violent heat it is fused into a transparent greenish yellow glass, soluble in water, and efflorescing in the air. Baryt, magnesia, and lime, decompose borax. It serves as a flux to vitrifiable earths; it also vitrifies clay, but less completely. It is employed in forming reducing fluxes. It unites with the metals, and forms with them coloured glasses. It may also be used in re-producing the fusion of glass; and in soldering metals it is highly useful, cleansing the surface of the metal, and assisting the fusion of the solder.

BORATE OF POT-ASH, formed by the combination of the *acid of borax* with *pot-ash*, is obtained either by adding pot-

ash to a solution of borate of soda, or by directly combining the acid with the pot-ash. It crystallizes in paralleloepidons.

BORATE OF AMMONIA forms in small rhomboidal crystals, easily decomposed by fire.

BORATE OF MAGNESIA is of very difficult solution in water. It yields crystalline grains by evaporation, and is decomposed by lime.

BORATE OF ALUMINE is not very soluble, and melts in the fire into a glass. Lime, magnesia, and the alkalis decompose it.

BORATE OF LIME, or *Boracite*, has been found in the *gypsum of Lunenburg*, in crystals whose form appears to be a cube truncated all round on its corners and edges. It is insoluble in water; cuts glass, and strikes fire with steel.

BORATE OF BARYT, and of STRONTIA, have not yet been sufficiently examined.

With SILEX, in the dry way, borax forms a vitreous substance by fusion: but does not unite with it in the humid way.

FLUORIC ACID.

FLUORIC ACID, discovered by *Scheele*, is derived from the spar, formed by this *acid*, and *calcareous earth*, and which, from its property of accelerating the fusion of other stones, is termed FLUOR SPAR. It is thus obtained: the stone is distilled in a leaden retort, with its own weight of sulphuric acid, when a permanent gas, termed fluoric acid gas, is detached, and which should be received in receivers coated with wax, and containing water, with which it unites and forms the liquid fluoric acid; the sulphuric acid, at the same time, forming gypsum, by combining with the calcareous earth. Being distilled in glass, it seizes the siliceous earth of the glass, and volatiliz-

ing it with itself, renders it æriform; changing the solid substance of flint to an invisible gas, and then depositing it as a siliceous crust on the surface of the water in the receiver. If it be received under water, the upper hemisphere of the bubble becomes a siliceous crust, and thus rises to the surface. In smell and taste it resembles the muriatic acid. It is heavier than air; it extinguishes flame, and kills animals. *Morichini* and *Gay Lausac* state that they have found the fluoric acid in the enamel of teeth.—*Annales de Chimie*. cap. 165.

It does not act on *metals*, but combines with their oxides. No action takes place between it and *oxygen*, nor with *hydrogen*, *carbon phosphorus*, *sulphur*, or other *combustible bodies*. With *water* it unites eagerly, and aided by its oxidizing power, it acts on some of the metals, which resist its direct action.

From its power of dissolving siliceous earth, it is employed for the purpose of etching on glass. For this purpose the distilled acid is employed; but for common experiments the sulphuric acid may be poured on the powdered spar, strewed over a glass properly prepared with wax; the fluoric acid acting directly as it is disengaged.

The fluoric acid presents an excellent means of detecting the presence of lime, it taking it even from the sulphuric acid and immediately precipitating with it.

FLUATES are formed by the fluoric acid and certain bases. The alkaline and earthy fluates in general have a slight salt, bitter, but not disagreeable taste. Some of them, when heated, decrepitate and shine with a phosphoric light. They are decomposable in the cold by sulphuric, nitric, and muriatic acids, and, with heat, even by the phosphoric and boracic.

FLUATE OF POT-ASH is a gelatinous substance, which readily dissolves in water, deliquesces in the atmosphere, and is with difficulty crystallized. It is decomposed by lime, the lime uniting with the acid, and forming regenerated fluor: it is decomposable also by the sulphuric acid.

FLUATE OF SODA is not readily soluble in water. It forms

small cubic or oblong tetrahedral crystals, which decrepitate like common salt, and are decomposable in the same manner as the former.

FLUATE OF AMMONIA shoots into small columnar crystals, which have a bitter taste, and are deliquescent. It is perfectly sublimable by heat, and forms, when dry, a substance resembling flint.

FLUATE OF LIME is of a compact sparry texture, of various colours, hard and brittle. Sp. gr. 3,09 to 3,19. It is nearly insoluble in water, and becomes phosphorescent with a moderate heat. It is of itself fusible into a transparent glass, without loss of weight or change of principles. From this property, and its promoting the fusion of other earthy substances, it is also called *fluor spar*. Its general form of crystallization is that of the cube, and of its more simple modifications. It contains acid 16, lime 57, water 27.—*Scheele*.

The amorphous and earthy has, according to *Pelletier*, acid 28,5, lime 21, water 1, silex 31, aluminic 15,5, iron 1, muriatic acid 1, phosphoric acid 1.

This fluate is not acted on by the earths or alkalies, except combined with carbonic acid, when the decomposition may take place from a double attraction.

FLUATE OF BARYTES is a salt, rather soluble. The fluoric acid takes this base from the nitric and muriatic acids, but yields it with effervescence, to the sulphuric. FLUATE OF STRONTIA resembles that of barytes in its properties.

FLUATE OF MAGNESIA, according to *Bergman*, is unalterable by heat, or in the wet way by acids. But *Fourcroy* suspects his experiments were made on a triple salt, in the composition of which silex had entered, without his knowledge.

FLUATE OF SILICA is formed in every instance where this acid is distilled in vessels containing silica. The acid holds it in its gaseous form, and does not deposit it wholly when it comes in contact with water. This, however, must be considered as an acid fluate, the acid in general predominating. If kept a long time, and slow evaporation permitted, small, hard,

bright, and transparent crystals form, being the true fluatè of silica.

FLUATE OF ALUMINE has been found in Greenland. It is formed of whitish semitransparent laminæ, which subdivide themselves into right prisms, which, according to *Haüy*, appear rectangular. The combinations of this acid with the other earths have not been much attended to.

These fluates act on silica, and by dissolving it, become *siliceous fluates*.

As an examination of the different substances from which the acids are obtained, cannot but facilitate the knowledge of the nature of the acids themselves, the remaining acids will be treated of, when the respective substances from which they are produced, are described. This is the more necessary, since, as several of these acids appear to owe their existence to certain processes of animal and vegetable life; these can also be taken into consideration at the same time.

METALS.

METALS are simple bodies, characterized by their absolute opacity, great degree of gravity, peculiar brilliancy, and insolubility in water. Some of them possess a considerable degree of ductility; but this property is not common to them all. Almost all the metals seem to be capable of impressing the organs with a peculiar taste and smell.

The names of such metallic substances as are at present known, are,

1. Platina. 2. Gold. 3. Silver. 4. Quicksilver. 5. Copper. 6. Iron. 7. Lead. 8. Tin. 9. Zinc. 10. Antimony.

11. Bismuth. 12. Cobalt. 13. Nickel. 14. Manganese. 15. Uranium. 16. Tellurium. 17. Titanium. 18. Chrome. 19. Arsenic. 20. Molybdenum. 21. Tungsten. 22. Columbium. 23. Rhodium. 24. Palladium. 25. Iridium. 26. Osmium. 27. Tantalium. 28. Cerium.

They are concealed in the earth, and form *ores*, which existing in crevices of rocks, are called *veins*, and are distinguished into *level*, or into *inclined*, *direct*, or *oblique*, according to the angle they make with the horizon. The part of the rock resting on the vein, is termed the *roof*; and that on which the vein rests, the *bed of the vein*. When found in spherical parts, or masses, they are called *bellies* or *stockworks*.

METALS are *assayed*, and their species ascertained, by the *Docimastic Act*, or *DOCIMASIA*. The metallic part is first cleared, as much as possible, from the foreign, or stony substances, with which it is blended, and which is called the *gangue*, by first reducing the ore to powder, in which state it is called *slich*, and then by washing. It is then *torrefied* to dissipate the sulphur and arsenic; and lastly, *fused* by the addition of some flux, containing the coaly principle, to disengage the oxygen, with which the metal has been impregnated, during the previous calcination, or torrefaction. Two parts of tartar and one of nitre form what is termed the *black flux*, and with equal parts is formed the *white flux*.

They are found, 1. In the form of a native metal; 2. In the form of oxides; 3. Combined with arsenic, or sulphur. When nature has bestowed on them their proper metallic appearance, or they are only alloyed with other metals, or semi-metals, they are said to be *native*. When combined, as they commonly are in mines, with some unmetallic substance, they are said to be *mineralized*; the substance that sets them in that state, is called a *mineralizer*; and the compound of both, an *ore*; which term is applicable, when stones, or earths, contain metallic substances, whether native or mineralized, in a notable proportion. They are commonly mineralized by oxygen, in its concrete state, to which is often superadded the carbonic acid. Next

to these, sulphur, and arsenic, in its oxidized state, occur; these last generally communicate a metallic lustre. The sulphuric, muriatic, phosphoric, arsenic, and molybdenic acids, are less commonly met with.

They fuse at a certain degree of heat, and obtain a convex surface; and if suffered to cool slowly, they exhibit crystallizations of considerable regularity. If continued in a state of fusion, they lose their brilliancy, and become an opaque powder, or metallic *oxide*, acquiring weight, and absorbing a certain portion of oxygen, during the transition. If this be absorbed to saturation, the oxide may be called *perfect*, if not, *imperfect*. If urged by a stronger heat, all the oxides, except of quicksilver, are converted into a vitriform substance, or METALLIC GLASS.

These mixed with other glasses form *glass pastes*, and *artificial gems*, *pigments* for enamel and porcelain, *enamel* itself, and the *finer glazings*.

All the metals are combustible, but in different degrees of heat: burning with a flame tinted with various hues of green, blue, or red, according to the kind of metal. Zinc and tin burn at a little above a red heat, iron requires a white heat; but platina, gold, and silver, flame only with the intense heat produced by the electric or the Galvanic spark.

The metals are susceptible of union with oxygen in different degrees, by which they are rendered *oxides*, or even acquire actual acidity: the oxygen thus acquired being given out again on the reduction of the metal on its return to the metallic state. Some of the metals undergo oxidizement merely from exposure to the atmospheric air, in its ordinary temperature; as is the case with arsenic and manganese. Others, as zinc, copper, tin, &c. require also an increase of temperature. Some undergo oxidizement from the action of humidity: the water suffers decomposition, its hydrogen being dissipated, whilst its oxygen enters into combination with the metal. But certain acids are most generally employed for the purpose of thus communicating oxygen to the metals: they attracting

sufficient of this principle from the acids to occasion their oxidizement. The oxidizement of the metal must however always precede its solution; no metal being capable of uniting with an acid whilst in its metallic state. Some of the metals are acidifiable, or capable of affording an acid by their union with oxygen. The acids are decomposed, during their combination with metals, their oxygen combining with the metal, and forming a metallic oxide: this is either dissolved, and forms a metallic salt, or the metal is only corroded and the oxide precipitated.

Hyperoxygenized muriatic gas dissolves all the metals, and if it be applied in a nascent state inflammation ensues: but the salts thus produced are merely muriates. To form hyperoxygenized muriates, the metal must be taken in its fullest state of oxydizement.—*Chevenix*.

The quantity of oxygen required for their oxidation is different in different metals, and in different oxides of the same metal. Each metal is capable of oxidizement, according to *Proust*, in certain determinate degrees: whence proceeds a certain number of oxides, always bearing a certain proportion between the oxygen and metal. Thus some metals are capable of being formed into one oxide only, whilst others combine in two, three, or four proportions, according to their nature, by which so many different oxides are produced: between which no indefinite degrees of oxidizement exist.

Berthollet is however of opinion, that probably metals pass from the metallic state to the maximum of oxygenation, by passing through all the intermediate degrees of oxidation in such a manner, that for each metal there is a multitude of different oxides. *Thenard*, on the other hand, believes that the number of metallic oxides are much greater than chemists generally admit, but at the same time limited and constant.—*Bulletin de Sciences*. 1805. P. 223.

M. Haussman thinks with *Berthollet* that there exist in the oxidizement of many metallic, as well as of many other bodies,

intermediate degrees between the *minimum* and the *maximum*.
—*Annales de Chimie*. Vol. LVI. 5.

THE METALLIC OXIDES are decomposed by *carbon*, aided by *heat*; and *phosphorus* and *phosphuretted hydrogen* decompose several of them, even in the cold. *Hydrogen* decomposes all those whose metallic radicals do not decompose water, and, of those which do, it even sometimes takes up the last portions of their oxygen. *Sulphur* decomposes very few, but the *sulphuretted hydrogen* acts on the oxygen with its hydrogen, whilst the sulphur unites with the de-oxygenized metal.

The metallic oxides are affected by *liquid ammonia* in four different ways: 1. They are merely dissolved, and form saline compounds; this is the case with the oxides of zinc, tin, silver, &c. 2. A partial decomposition ensues; a part of their oxygen is taken up by the hydrogen of the ammonia to form water, whilst the other principle, nitrogen, is liberated, and the oxide approaches to a metallic state. 3. Some oxides, as those of silver and gold, may suffer entire decomposition by ammonia, the sudden union and expansion of the oxygen and hydrogen, and the disengagement of the nitrogen, producing a violent detonation. 4. Some oxides, as those of mercury, lead, and manganese, form, by the reciprocal decomposition of the oxide and ammonia, both water and the nitric acid.

If calcined, and not too volatile, the metals communicate a tinge to *borax* and the *alkaline phosphates*. Thus cobalt gives a blue colour; manganese, purple; copper, green; iron, black. When perfectly fused, they are, for the most part, miscible, or combinable with each other; but excepting iron, refuse to mix with their own oxides, or with most other unmetallic substances.

Sulphur may be combined with all the metals except gold, and perhaps tellurium and titanium. The metals may however be dissolved by means of alkaline sulphurets, and the metal and the sulphur be precipitated together. This precipitate

is a combination of the metal with the basis of sulphuretted hydrogen gas, and is called a METALLIC HYDROGURETTED SULPHURET.

From their union with *sulphur*, *phosphorus*, and *charcoal*, we have *metallic* SULPHURETS, PHOSPHURETS, and CARBURETS. From the combination of sulphur with their oxides, are produced SULPHURETTED OXIDES: and from the union of *sulphuretted hydrogen* with the oxides results the HYDRO-SULPHURETTED OXIDES. Some of their oxides also enter into combination with *water*, and other with *ammonia*.

METALLIC SULPHURETS, formed by the union of *metals* with *sulphur*, are opaque, solid bodies, of a high degree of specific gravity, and are conductors of the electric fluid. They are often found native, when they generally possess a metallic lustre. These are commonly called *pyrites*, or *marcasites*. They are formed artificially by uniting, by a due degree of heat, the metal with the sulphur; the union taking place with different proportions of sulphur. Silver, lead, copper, and other metals, attract the sulphur contained in sulphuretted hydrogen, and become tarnished by the formation of sulphuret on their surface. They possess alone neither taste nor smell, and are not, strictly speaking, soluble in water, a mutual decomposition actually taking place.

Sulphuretted hydrogen added to a solution of the different metallic nitrates, produces differently coloured precipitates; that of silver being black; of bismuth, yellow; of copper, brown, &c. The substances here precipitated are sulphurets, which are thus formed by the action of a double affinity. The sulphuretted hydrogen parts with its hydrogen to unite with the oxygen, which held the metal in solution, and forms with it water, whilst its sulphur joins the metal and forms the sulphuret.

Mr. *Davy* is of opinion, that the native metallic sulphurets may thus be formed; the solution of sulphuretted hydrogen thus decomposing the various solutions of metals. On this principle are *sympathetic inks* formed, the invisible writ-

ing with metallic solutions, such as of the acetite of lead, being made to appear, even on the approximation of a solution of sulphuretted hydrogen, or rather the contact of the gas. Their affinity for *oxygen* is very considerable, and they are all decomposable at certain degrees of *heat*. They burn with different appearances in the flame of alcohol; and the sulphuret of iron inflames in oxygenized muriatic gas, even at the common temperature.

The sulphuret of iron, or common pyrites, gives sparks very freely by collision with steel, and is so hard as to cut glass with more facility than flint. The iron pyrites are known from those of copper by their colour being whiter, the latter possessing a yellowish red colour.

Vauquelin divides the combinations of metals with sulphur into three orders: 1. *Metals and sulphur*, or *sulphurets*; 2. *Metallic oxides and sulphur*, which are the *sulphuretted metallic oxides*; 3. *Metallic oxides, with sulphur and hydrogen*, which triple combinations he calls *metallic hydro-sulphurated oxides*.

Mr. *Hatchett*, with Mr. *Wiseman*, noticed an instance of the daily production of sulphuret of iron in the humid way.—*Philos. Trans.* 1798. p. 567.

Proust also believes the native pyrites to be formed in the humid way.

Dr. *Thompson*, on the other hand, formed pyrites, and sometimes even in a crystallized state, by bringing a mixture of equal parts of iron filings and sulphur to fusion pretty rapidly.—*Thompson's System of Chemistry*.

During the formation of sulphurets, either metallic or alkaline, a curious phenomenon appears. On acquiring a moderate degree of heat, the mixture suddenly melts, becomes red hot, and glows as though acted on by a bellows. A similar appearance is observable when phosphorus is employed instead of sulphur.

Mercury unites with sulphur in preference to oxygen, not being able, like zinc, tin, antimony, &c. to combine with sul-

phur without abandoning the oxygen. Mercury being poured into liquid sulphurets of pot-ash, or ammonia, unites with the sulphur, and becomes cinnabar, leaving the pot-ash or ammonia alone. Thus also do the nitrates, muriates, sulphates, and mercurial oxides form ethiops on being thus mixed with sulphurets.

A solution of hydroguretted sulphuret in water poured into a solution of sublimate of mercury, decomposes it into mild muriate and muriatic acid; but if the solution of mercury be poured into the solution of the sulphuret, the whole is precipitated in the form of an ethiops, the muriatic acid remaining alone.—*Proust*.

The sulphurets of arsenic contain no oxygen. Like the pyrites of iron, those of copper contain a surcharge of sulphur and no oxygen. The sulphuret of copper, when pure, is of an indigo or violet blue colour; but is liable to be disguised by admixtures of carbonate of copper, red oxide of iron, other sulphurets, &c. With the sulphuret of iron it gives the copper-coloured pyrites.

Phosphorus unites with all the metals, except, perhaps, with mercury and bismuth. METALLIC PHOSPHURETS are formed by the addition of *phosphorus* to the *metals*, at a degree of heat even below that of their fusion; they may also be formed by exposing the metals to phosphorus at the moment of its separation from its acid by ignited charcoal; the charcoal seizing the oxygen to form carbonic acid, and the phosphorus uniting with the metal. They are opaque, and possess great specific gravity; and some of them have a degree of malleability and of splendour. They burn and become luminous, if ignited and put into oxygenized muriatic gas, or oxygen gas; and this in proportion to the degree of affinity which the metal possesses for oxygen. Thus if the experiment be made with the phosphuret of zinc, both the phosphorus and the metal burn; but if it be made with that of gold, silver, or platina, the phosphorus alone is burnt, and the metal remains unaltered. They decompose water, separating phosphuretted hydrogen; this,

however, is accomplished very slowly without heat; but it is formed much more rapidly if sulphuric acid be added to the mixture of water and phosphuret. They are fusible, and capable of decomposition at high temperatures; they may be also decomposed by a long continuance, even of the lower temperatures.

CARBURET, or the compound of *metal* with *carbon*, can only be instanced in that of iron. Since though *carbon* is sometimes found in zinc and manganese, yet it is in combination with iron.

There are no known combinations of the metals with *nitrogen* or *hydrogen*; although the *sulphuretted hydrogen* is capable of holding metals in solution, particularly iron, zinc, and arsenic.

PLATINA is obtained, in a granular state, from Peru, blended with siliceous sand, iron, and several other metals. The combinations in which these substances are here found to exist, are, according to *Descotils*, chromate of iron, ferruginous oxide of titanium, copper, and iron, each in union with sulphur, and a considerable portion of iron in union with the platina itself. With these he was satisfied also exists a metal which had not yet been examined.

Platina is of a white colour, Sp. gr. when hammered 22,5, being the most ponderous of all known bodies. It may be rendered malleable and ductile; but it is harder than all the metals except iron. Its fusion takes place beyond the highest degree of *Wedgwood's* pyrometer, in the heat produced by powerful burning glasses, or that excited by oxygen gas; and it can only be made to burn by the *galvanic* or *electric* spark: but it will not combine with oxygen by the strongest heat of a furnace. Like iron it has the property of *welding*.

Various modes have been recommended to give malleability to platina, but Mr. *Tilloch* proposes the simple method of

enveloping precipitated platina in a piece of platina, already malleable, and repeatedly exposing the mass to a sufficient temperature, and hammering between each exposure, until the whole is brought into a compact state.—*Philos. Mag.* Vol. XXI.

It is neither altered in its colour or brilliancy by long exposure to the *air*. Nor does it act on *water*, except where the water is held in the state of vapour in any gas in which the electric spark is taken, the metal attracting oxygen, as do gold and silver, at the moment of its being separated, heated, and perhaps minutely divided.

Amongst the combustible bodies, *phosphorus*, and most of the *metals*, are only capable of entering into union with platina.

It is only acted on by the *oxy-muriatic* or *nitro-muriatic acid*; but most powerfully by the latter.

THE MURIATE OF PLATINA thus formed has a very acid taste; it is deliquescent; but, with care, may be crystallized. The muriate of platina is not precipitated by precipitate of pot-ash, nor by sulphate of iron; but it is precipitated of a dark green colour by tincture of galls, and it is also precipitated by *muriate of ammonia*, in which respect it is different from all other metals, and may thus be separated from them when mingled with them in solution. It may also be precipitated by *sulphuretted hydrogen*. The precipitates by the alkalis are composed of muriatic acid, oxide of platina, and the alkali employed. A single drop of the solution of *muriate of tin* will occasion a bright red colour, in a dilute and colourless solution of platina. It must be observed, that after the ore of platina has been exposed to the action of *nitro-muriatic acid*, a considerable part remains undissolved in the form of a black powder, resembling plumbago: the solution of the crude mass yielding salts of a reddish colour.

Fourcroy and Vauquelin obtained FULMINATING PLATINA by decomposing *ammoniaco-muriate of platina* by an excess of *pot-ash*, and then adding a sufficient quantity of

muriatic acid to saturate the pot-ash.—*Annales de Chimie*, Chap. 146.

The *nitrate of pot-ash* and the *hyperoxygenized muriate* of the same base, act on platina during its fusion : so do also the pure *alkalies*.

With *bismuth* it unites easily, and yields a mass of little ductility : with *antimony*, its fusion is facilitated, but its weight and ductility are lessened : and by *zinc* it is rendered more fusible, the alloy being very hard. It unites easily with *tin*, the alloy being very fusible, and unless the tin is in large proportion, very brittle.

It unites very well with *lead*. One ounce of platina being cupelled with 20 ounces of lead, the platina gains the power of being forged and soldered completely, without the assistance of any other metal.—*Baume*.

It will not unite with *forged iron*, but melted with *crude iron*, the alloy is so hard, the file will not touch it ; it is ductile in the cold, but breaks short when hot.—*Lewis*.

With *copper*, the alloy is ductile : when the copper is in the proportion of three or four to one, it takes a fine polish, and does not tarnish in the space of ten years. With *silver*, the alloy is hard, without ductility, and tarnishes. But with *gold*, it can only be alloyed by the most violent heat ; the colour of the gold being considerably destroyed, and the alloy possessing a great degree of ductility.

Collet Descotils discovered, by a series of ingenious experiments, that the red salts of platina owed their colour to the presence of some other metal, oxidized to a certain degree. He also discovered, that this metal was almost insoluble in the *acids*, and more soluble, whilst combined with *platina* ; that it obtained by oxidizement a fine blue colour, passing to green, and sometimes to a violet colour ; that its oxides were soluble by the *alkalies*, when combined with platina ; that when dissolved by the acids, they were not precipitated by the *sulphuretted hydrogen* ; that they gave no colour to *borax* ;

that they were, in part, reduced, merely by *heat*, and, in part, volatilized; a current of oxygen gas promoting the latter effect; and being sufficient, with the help of heat, to oxygenize this metal, and to sublime it of a blue colour. From the phenomena he was led to conclude that it was a *new metal*, and the substance which gave a red colour to the salts of platina.—*Annales de Chimie*. N° 143.

Fourcroy and *Vauquelin* pursuing this examination concluded, that it was this new metal which communicates to solutions of platina the property of depositing a red sediment on the addition of sal ammoniac.—*Annales de Chimie*. N° 146.

By alternate exposure of the black powder remaining in the solution of platina to pot-ash and muriatic acid, these same chemists concluded not only that this powder was formed of iron, chromium, and a *new metal*; but they also thus obtained this new metal, in a metallic state. Perceiving that, during its mixture with the ley of *pot-ash*, a very acrid vapour was exhaled, the ley was exposed to heat in a retort, and the distilled liquor was found to possess the same pungent odour as the ley, to colour cork, of a deep blue, to have a sharp and styptic taste, and to colour the skin of a deep brown. *Tincture of galls* being added, in very small quantity, this distilled liquor became of a rich blue, which, on paper, dried black: these marks were not effaced either by *acids* or *alkalies*, but were rendered green by the *muriatic acid*. *Prussiate of pot-ash* produced a red colour, which the *nitric acid* rendered violet. A plate of *zinc*, with a small portion of *muriatic acid*, produced a purple colour, which afterwards became blue, and then went off on a considerable deposit of black flocculas taking place. The *Sulphate of Iron*, as well as *sulphuretted hydrogen*, effected also a similar change of colours. An accurate examination shewed that these properties proceeded from this new metal, dissolved in and volatilized with the water. In this solution it was without colour, but the alkaline solution had a red tinge: hence it appeared that the OXIDE of this metal existed in the alkaline solution in two states: in the one, vola-

tile, without colour, and not precipitable by acids; whilst in the other state it possessed properties of a contrary kind.

This metal they found to be of the colour of platina, brittle and volatile. Calcined with *pot-ash*, it derived oxygen from the atmosphere, and the mass when cold was of a greenish colour. On washing this with water, the *pot-ash* was dissolved, and with it a small portion of the oxide, which gave to it a red colour. No *acid* affected this metal, except the *nitro-muriatic*, whose action on it was indeed very feeble; it appearing to be by far the most difficultly acted on by acids of any of the metals. But when oxidized in the above-mentioned alkaline solution, it is found to be easily dissolved by the mineral acids: the *sulphuric* and *muriatic* becoming green or blue, according to the strength of the solution, and the *nitric acid* always being of a red colour when concentrated. It has very strong attraction for *oxygen*; and from its combination with different proportions of oxygen appears to proceed the variety of colours its solutions display; the green colour, however, being rather an effect resulting from a physical than a chemical cause, since it passes to blue, by the mere addition of water.

These discoveries were soon very far extended, by the zeal and ingenuity of the English chemists, who have very successfully examined the other metals which have been found to exist, in the same granular mass, from which platina is obtained.

Mr. Smithson Tennant believing that some unknown metallic substance was contained in the black powder remaining after the solution of platina in *nitro-muriatic acid*, made the necessary inquiry.

Adopting the mode already employed by *Vauquelin*, *Mr. Tennant* exposed the powder to the alternate action of *fixed alkali* and *muriatic acid*. Thus an alkaline and an acid solution were obtained.

The *alkaline solution* was of a brownish yellow colour, and on first adding water to the alkaline mass, in the crucible, a

peculiar pungent smell was perceived. This smell was afterwards discovered to proceed from the extrication of a very VOLATILE METALLIC OXIDE, which oxide, it was found, might be expelled from the alkali, by any acid; and might also be expelled, in a very concentrated state, capable of solution in water, by distillation from the black powder and nitre.

This oxide on being dissolved in water, and the solution agitated with *mercury*, soon lost its smell, and combining with the mercury formed an amalgam; from which, the mercury being distilled, a dark grey or blue powder was left, which was found to be a new metal in a pure state.

OSMIUM is the name given by Mr. *Tennant* to this new metal, on account of the peculiar smell yielded by its oxide.

This metal does not appear to be fusible, nor is it volatile, but under circumstances which allow its oxidizement: then it evaporates, and with its peculiar smell. It did not undergo any change on being exposed to a white heat, in a cavity of a piece of *charcoal*; but on being mixed with *copper*, and with *gold*, and placed in a similar situation, it formed a malleable alloy with each. It does not appear to be acted on by *acids*; but is easily dissolved by *pure alkali*, from which it may be again expelled by acids.

On *infusion of galls* being added to a solution of osmium, a purple colour is produced, which soon after becomes a deep vivid blue. *Ammonia* and *carbonate of soda* render it somewhat yellow; but with *lime*, the solution becomes of a bright yellow: and if *galls* be added, a deep red precipitate is formed, which becomes blue by acids.

The oxide acquires a dark colour from *alcohol* and from *ether*, separating in black films. It parts with its oxygen to all the metals, excepting *gold* and *platina*. It precipitates *lead* of a yellowish brown, *mercury* of a white, and *tin* of a brown colour. *Copper*, *tin*, *zinc*, and *phosphorus*, being added to the solution of the oxide, a black or grey powder is deposited, and the solution loses its smell, and the power of turning *galls* of a blue colour. The precipitated powder is

the osmium in a metallic state, and the oxide of the metal employed to precipitate it.—*Philos. Trans.* 1804.

The *acid solution* mentioned in the beginning of the preceding article, by repeated and careful evaporation, yielded distinct octahedral crystals, which by mere heat left a white substance, being a metal hitherto unknown.

IRIDIUM is the name given to this metal by Mr. *Tennant*, founded on the striking variety of colours which its solution yields. It is infusible and incapable of union with either *sulphur* or *arsenic*. It unites with *lead*, but is separable by cupellation. It forms a malleable alloy with *copper*, with *silver*, and with *gold*; but its union with the latter is by much the more perfect. The solution of the MURIATE is of a deep red colour, inclining to orange. *Infusion of galls* being added to it no precipitate forms; but the colour is instantly and almost entirely taken away. *Muriate of tin*, *carbonate of soda*, and *prussiate of pot-ash*, produce nearly the same effect. *Ammonia* and the *fixed alkalis* precipitate the OXIDE; but are capable of retaining a part in solution: the solution with ammonia acquiring a purple, and that with the fixed alkali a yellow colour. It yields its oxygen to all the metals, excepting *gold* and *platina*, being precipitated by them in a dark precipitate. It is this metal which possesses the property, noticed by the French chemists, of giving a red colour to the triple salt of platina with sal ammonia.—*Philos. Trans.* 1804.

Dr. W. H. Wollaston suspecting that the fluid remaining after the precipitation of the platina, by sal ammonia, from its solution in nitro-muriatic acid, deserved examination, made it the subject of his inquiry. 1. The ore of platina being cleansed from all visible impurities, cleared of mercury by a red *heat*, and of its gold by a slight digestion in *nitro-muriatic acid*, it

was then dissolved in diluted *nitro-muriatic acid*, and *sal ammoniac* added, to precipitate the platina. 2. In the residual liquor a piece of clean *zinc* was immersed, by which the other metallic matters were separated, in a black precipitate, iron being left in the solution. 3. To this precipitate dilute *nitric acid* was added, which by the aid of a gentle heat, dissolved the copper and lead which it contained. 4. The remainder, excepting a very small portion, which probably was chiefly *iridium*, was dissolved in dilute *nitro-muriatic acid*, and, *common salt* being added to the solution, it was then evaporated to dryness. 5. This salt being known to contain the soda-muriates of platina, and of two new metals, it was washed repeatedly with small quantities of *alcohol*, by which the triple salt of one of these metals only was left, and which formed rhomboidal crystals. 6. By the addition of *zinc* to this solution a black precipitate was deposited, which with *borax* became a white metallic substance, infusible by any degree of heat. 7. On the addition of *arsenic* and of *sulphur*, it was however fused, and on the sulphur or arsenic being expelled, a metallic button, not malleable, was obtained.

RHODIUM appeared to Dr. Wollaston to be the name most appropriate to this metal, from the rose colour possessed by a dilute solution of its salts.

It unites readily with all *metals* with which it has been tried, except mercury: forming malleable alloys with *gold* and *silver*, which are not oxidized by a high degree of heat, but become encrusted with a black oxide, when slowly cooled. Unlike platina, it does not affect the colour of gold. Six parts of gold and one of rhodium appearing like fine gold, whereas five of gold and one of platina forms an alloy, which by the eye might be judged to contain no gold.

On the rhodium being alloyed with *silver* or *gold*, or fused with *arsenic* or *sulphur*, or even when merely heated by itself, it became insoluble in the *nitric* or *nitro-muriatic acids*. But when fused with three parts of *bismuth*, of *copper*, or of *lead*, each of these alloys could be dissolved in two parts of *mu-*

riatic and one of *nitric acids*. When the *lead* was employed, it might be separated, by evaporation, in an insoluble muriate; leaving the muriate of rhodium alone in the solution. The specific gravity of rhodium seemed to exceed 11.

MURIATE OF RHODIUM does not crystallize, it is soluble in alcohol, and is of a rose colour. *Sal ammoniac*, *nitre*, or *common salt*, caused no precipitation from this solution; but formed triple salts, which were not soluble in alcohol.

NITRATE OF RHODIUM does not crystallize. It produces no stain on silver, and precipitates a metallic film on mercury, but does not appear to amalgamate with it.

THE OXIDE OF RHODIUM, and which may be obtained of a yellow colour by precipitation from its solutions by pure alkali, is soluble by excess of alkali, and in every acid that has been tried.—*Philos. Trans.* 1804.

In the fifth stage of the preceding process, platina and a new metal was separated in a triple saline combination, from the triple salt of rhodium, by washing with alcohol, and in which liquid they became held in solution.

To obtain this new metal pure, *sal ammoniac* was added to this alcoholic solution, by which the platina was precipitated of a deep red colour, but became of a dark grey when the *sal ammoniac* was expelled by heat. By the addition of *prussiate of pot-ash* to the remaining solution, a copious precipitate of a deep orange colour fell, but which afterwards became of a dirty bottle green, probably from iron in the prussiate. This precipitate after being heated, left a metallic residuum of a grey colour, which acquired a bright metallic lustre on being heated with *borax*, although it could not be fused under the blow-pipe. With *sulphur* it however fused into a round globe, which floated upon mercury.

PALLADIUM was the name which had been given to a new metallic substance, which had been offered to sale, under pecu-

liar circumstances, and which Dr. Wollaston announced to be the same metal which he had thus obtained.

Palladium is also to be obtained by the following process : *Prussiate of mercury* is to be added to a solution of the ore of platina in nitro-muriatic acid, which has had the superabundant acid evaporated or neutralized by an alkali. The liquid becomes yellow ; and a yellowish white flocculent precipitate falls, being the PRUSSATE OF PALLADIUM, and which, on being heated, yields the metal in a pure state.

It is of a duller white than platina, and is malleable and ductile. Sp. gr. from 10,972 to 11,482. It is neither oxidized nor fused, at a degree higher than is required to melt gold ; but on considerably increasing the heat, it is fused, and its specific gravity rendered 11,871. It is harder than wrought iron, and malleable in a considerable degree. It readily unites with *sulphur*, forming a compound which is very brittle, and whiter than the metal itself. It unites with the *alkalies* by fusion, particularly with *pot-ash*. *Ammonia* by standing over it, gains a small portion of OXIDE OF PALLADIUM, and with it a bluish tinge.

Sulphuric acid dissolves a small portion of the oxide, and acquires a beautiful blue colour. *Nitric acid* acts much more powerfully on it, dissolving the oxide, and forming a solution of a beautiful red colour. *Muriatic acid* also dissolves it ; the solution being also red. *Nitro-muriatic acid*, which seems to be its proper solvent, acts on it with great violence, and forms a beautiful red solution.

The *alkalies* and *earths* occasion precipitates from these solutions, which are chiefly of an orange colour ; and which are partly again dissolved by the alkalies : that which is thus re-dissolved by *ammonia* being of a fine greenish blue colour. All the *metals*, except gold, platina, and silver, occasion copious precipitates. Recent *muriate of tin* is a delicate test of the presence of this metal, causing a dark orange precipitate. *Prussiate of pot-ash* gives an olive-coloured precipitate, and green *sulphate of iron* precipitates it in a metallic state. The

PRUSSIAN OF PALLADIUM separated by a neutral solution of prussiate of mercury, detonates when heated to about 500°. Fahr.

It readily unites with other metals; and like platina destroys the colour of gold, even when in a small proportion.

The salts of palladium manifest a curious contrast of colour when viewed in the direction of, and transversely to their axes. In the former case they shew a deep red, and in the latter a bright green; as is seen in some kinds of tourmalin.—*Phil. Trans.* 1805.

GOLD.—Its colour is orange red, or reddish yellow. Sp. gr. 19,3. It melts at 32° *Wedgwood*, and burns only when submitted to the galvanic or electric spark. It may be volatilized and calcined in high and long continued heats. It is the most ductile and malleable of all the known metals. Its form of crystallization is generally the aluminiform octahedron.

It is more extensively diffused, though in exceeding small quantities, than any other metal, except iron. It is said to have been obtained from *vegetables*, by *Becher*, from *rotted manure*, *garden mould*, and *uncultivated earth*, by Monsieur *Sage*; and from *ashes*, by *Berthollet*.

It does not unite with *sulphur*, *carbon*, or *hydrogen*: nor does it act on *water* or the *metallic oxides*; but it combines with *phosphorus*, forming a PHOSPHURET OF GOLD, which is brittle, whiter than gold, and has a crystallized appearance.

It is not attacked by the *sulphuric*, *muriatic*, *phosphoric*, or *fluoric acids*, and is very slightly acted on by the *nitric acid*; but is attacked with most power by the *nitro-muriatic acid*, or *aqua regia*, as it is called. In this case the solution appears to be effected by the oxygen of the nitric acid, with which the muriatic acid is impregnated, uniting with the gold, which being rendered an oxide becomes soluble in the muriatic acid. To be assured of success in this solution, the two acids should

be used in equal quantities, and only mixed at the moment they are added to the metal, the portion of oxygenized muriatic acid, formed by the union of the acids, and which promotes the solution, being soon dissipated. The *oxygenized muriatic acid* alone speedily dissolves gold.

This solution yields yellow crystals, resembling topazes, in truncated octahedra, these crystals being a true MURIATE OF GOLD. It tinges animal substances purple, and by distillation yields an acid, coloured red by gold, which was called by the adepts, *the red lion*. AN OXIDE OF GOLD is precipitated from this solution, in a *yellow powder*, nearly in a metallic state, by *lime*, *magnesia*, and by *alkalies*; the precipitate being soluble in the *sulphuric*, *nitric*, and *muriatic acids*. This is termed, by Dr. Thomson, the *peroxide of gold*: he considering the purple oxide formed by combustion with the galvanic spark and other intense heats, as the *protoxide of gold*.

THE AMMONIAL OXIDE OF GOLD, or *Fulminating Gold*, is formed from a *nitro-muriatic solution*, mixed with three or four times its weight of distilled water, by the addition of *ammonia*, until the precipitation is completed, but not beyond that point. The precipitate which will weigh about a fourth more than the gold, is to be carefully washed and dried on paper. It is also formed, whenever ammonia is introduced, in any manner, into the solution, and a precipitation is effected by any alkali. This precipitate explodes with considerable noise by the application of a slight degree of heat, or by pressure, or by percussio.

This fulmination results from the sudden and violent disengagement, as well as condensation, of the hydrogen of the ammonia, and the oxygen of the oxide, whilst uniting to form water, and the rapid escape of the nitrogen, as well as aqueous vapour: the gold being left, restored to its metallic form.

The salts of gold are soluble in water, the solution being yellow. The precipitate from the *triple prussiates* is white, or yellowish white; *gallic acid* renders the solution green, and

precipitates the gold, reduced of a brown colour. The gold is likewise reduced by *sulphate of iron* and by *sulphurous acid* added to the solution.

It is precipitated from its solution by several of the *metals*, such as lead, iron, silver, copper, bismuth, mercury, zinc, and tin. This last precipitates it in a powder, much used in *porcelain manufactories*, termed, THE PURPLE POWDER OF CASSIUS. It may be instantly precipitated, and revived by *ether*, the gold immediately forming a stratum at the surface of the now colourless liquor.

It is also precipitated in a solid metallic form on the surface of a stick of *phosphorus*.

Phosphorus, *hydrogen gas*, and burning *sulphur* precipitate the gold in a metallic form from a solution of its muriate. The ingenious Mrs. *Fulham* advises the gilding of stuffs and paper by first moistening them with the dissolved muriate, and then exposing them to the action of these combustible bodies. As this effect takes place only whilst the substances are moist, Mrs. *Fulham* supposed a decomposition of water was necessary, but with this opinion *Fourcroy* does not coincide.

It is in the state of purple, and chiefly, of yellow oxide, that it unites with the earths vitrified by alkalis, forming beautiful violet and purple enamels, or glasses resembling topazes.

Gold is also dissolved completely by the *sulphurets of alkalis*, merely by fusing equal parts of sulphur and pot-ash, with one-eighth of the total weight of gold in leaves; it may then be poured out, pulverized, and dissolved in hot water, being an HYDROGURETTED SULPHURET OF GOLD. *Stahl* affirms, that by this process *Moses* dissolved the golden calf.

It unites with most of the other metals; and is rendered brittle by *arsenic*, as well as by *bismuth*, *nickel*, and *antimony*, and unites well with *tin*, and *lead*, but loses all its ductility.

With *iron*, it forms a very hard and useful alloy; and by *copper*, it is made more fusible, and rendered of a redder colour. This alloy is employed for *coin*, *toys*, *gold plate*,

§c. It is rendered very pale by *silver*. This alloy forms the *green gold* of goldsmiths.

Gold, from its extreme ductility, is drawn into very fine wire, for *embroidery*, and into leaves of the greatest tenuity, one grain being capable of extension over $56\frac{1}{4}$ square inches.

Gold is employed for the purposes of GILDING the surfaces of copper, brass, and silver, in the following different processes: 1st. *Hot gilding*, for the *Or Moulu*; in which the metal to be gilt is first washed with a solution of nitrate of mercury, or *amalgamating water*; this gives a mercurial surface, to which an amalgam of gold and mercury is applied; from which the mercury is driven off by heat. The colour is then heightened, by burning on it a covering of *gilder's wax*, formed of wax, verdigris, and blue vitriol; it is then polished, and brightened by a boiling solution of common salt and cream of tartar. 2d. *Grecian gilding of silver*, which is performed by a solution of gold in nitric acid, to which sal-alembroth (a triple salt formed by sal ammonia and corrosive sublimate) has been added. This solution of gold, evaporated to the consistence of oil, is applied to the silver, which it blackens, but which appears gilded after being heated. 3d. *Cold gilding*, which is performed by rubbing the metal with the ashes of a linen rag, which has been impregnated with a solution of gold. 4th. *Wet gilding*, by merely dipping the work into a solution of gold.

Mr. *Stodart* employs the following mode of *gilding upon steel*, the discovery of which however belongs rather to Mr. *Hume* than to Mr. *Stodart*. About three times the quantity of pure sulphuric ether is added to a saturated solution of gold in nitro-muriatic acid: the nitro-muriate of gold unites with the ether, the acid remaining at the bottom colourless, and must be separated. The steel, clean and well polished, is to be dipped for an instant into the ethereal solution of gold, and then washed in clean water to remove any adherent acid.

The steel will then be found completely covered with gold.—
Nicholson's Journal, No. 43, 1805.

Mr. *Stodart* also informs us that, by a similar process, the polished surface of steel may be covered with platina.

SILVER is of a pure bright white. Sp. gr. 10,510. It is malleable and ductile in a high degree, though inferior in these respects to gold, and is not oxidized by the contact of air, the bluish coat acquired by old silver, being a sulphuret of silver. A wire 1-10th of an inch will support 270 pounds.

It is fusible at 28°, or rather it remains in fusion at that degree, for it requires a higher degree to bring it into fusion*.

Gold and silver readily combine, and form an useful alloy. Having different solvents they may be *PARTED* three different ways. 1st. By dissolving the silver of the alloy by nitric acid; but as for this process it is necessary first to take care that the gold is not more than a quarter part of the mass, the process is called *quartation*. 2dly. By *cementation* or *parting by concentration*, the alloy being placed in a crucible, in *strata* with the *cementing powder*. The ingredients of this powder must be such that by an intense heat it will yield either *pure nitric* or *pure muriatic acid* vapours, as these will lay hold of the silver and leave the gold untouched. 3dly. By *dry parting*, which is by fusion with sulphur, the silver quitting the gold to unite with the sulphur.

Nitric acid is generally employed for separating *copper* from silver; but Mr. *Goetling* employs sulphuric acid, which is much cheaper.

Mr. *Thomson* recommends the purifying of gold and silver by strongly igniting them with manganese, being previously flat-

* This distinction is applicable to the degrees of heat, requisite for the fusion of most metallic substances.

tened, by which the alloying copper is oxidized: fusion with green bottle glass, without the access of inflammable matter, then yielding the gold or silver quite pure.—*Nicholson's Journal*, 1805.

By long exposure to violent heat, it becomes volatilized, and it may be converted into a vitreous oxide of an olive green colour. In the focus of a burning glass, it yields a white pulverulent oxide.

In all cases of the employment of intense heat, the silver reflects the light so brilliantly as to give the appearance of coruscations. It is made to flame by the electric or galvanic spark.

It does not appear that any action takes place between silver and *water*, nor between it and the *metallic oxides*. Both *phosphorus* and *sulphur* unite readily with it. *Hydrogen* and *carbon* decompose and reduce its oxides; and the former even without heat.

With *sulphuric acid*, if concentrated and boiling, sulphureous gas is disengaged, and the silver is converted into a true OXIDE OF SILVER, mixed with a small quantity of SULPHATE OF SILVER, in small needles, or in plates formed of these needles, united lengthways. The *sulphurous acid* dissolves only its oxide.

It is dissolved in *nitric acid* with rapidity, much nitrous gas being disengaged. The solution is at first blue, from the nitrous gas, which had been disengaged, becoming dissolved in the acid; but this colour disappears when the silver is pure, and degenerates into a green, if it be alloyed with copper. Nitric acid will dissolve more than half its weight of silver, the solution letting fall crystals in hexagonal, triangular, or square plates, which are called NITRATE OF SILVER, or *lunar crystals*, *lunar nitre*, &c. This melted with a gentle heat, and poured into moulds as soon as fused, forms the *lapis infernalis*, or *lunar caustic*. Animal substances are stained black by this nitrate.

A layer of dry *nitrate of silver* being placed on a piece of burning charcoal, it deflagrates and throws out most beautiful

scintillations, the surface of the charcoal being richly coated with the reduced silver.

An *amalgama* of four parts of silver leaf and two of mercury being dissolved in a sufficient quantity of nitric acid, and diluted with thirty-two times the weight of the metal, of water, and a ball of the amalgama being placed in the liquor, a precipitation soon begins to take place in the form of a vegetation, known by the name of the TREE OF DIANA, *Arbor Dianæ*, &c.

Nitrate of silver is reduced by *hydrogen gas*. Mrs. *Fulham* has given several very pleasing experiments of its reduction on the surfaces of silk and paper, which had been imbued with it. It is also reduced by *phosphorus*, the silver forming in a solid crust on a stick of phosphorus immersed in the solution.

Nitrated silver, being precipitated from its solution by *lime*, and placed on filtering paper to separate it from the moisture, is then to have a small portion of *liquid ammonia* poured on it. The mixture having remained ten or twelve hours, if a bright pellicle appears, more ammonia is to be added. The fluid is afterwards to be decanted from the black precipitate, and evaporated in a retort, when it will become full of opaque crystals of a metallic appearance, which fulminate with violence on being touched, even under water. Both these crystals, and the precipitate, exceed, in power, gun-powder, and even fulminating gold. AMMONIAL OXIDE OF SILVER, or *fulminating silver*, once thus obtained, can no longer be touched without a violent detonation: no more than one grain being sufficient to give rise to a dangerous fulmination. After this fulmination, the silver is found reduced or revived; its oxygen having combined with the hydrogen of the ammonia, by which, water in the state of vapour is produced. This water, instantly vaporized, and possessing all the elasticity, and expansive force of that state, is the principal cause of the phenomenon, in which the nitrogen of the ammonia, with its whole expansibility, bears a part.

Silver does not combine with *the muriatic acid*, unless in the

state of oxide; the MURIATE OF SILVER being precipitated, on adding this acid to a solution of silver in the nitric acid. This muriate is very fusible, running into a grey and transparent substance, like horn, and is then called LUNA CORNEA, or *horn silver*: this being fused with four parts of pot-ash, the silver is found in the purest state, under a stratum of muriate of pot-ash, and the remaining alkali. It is by this precipitation that the nitrate of silver so effectually detects the presence of the muriatic acid.

The muriate of silver, exposed to the light of the sun, soon becomes brown, oxygen gas being disengaged. Nitrated silver, and most of the solutions of metals, thus emit their oxygen, and become coloured.

Mr. *Chevenix* having added phosphate of silver to some of the hyperoxygenized muriates, obtained an HYPEROXYGENIZED MURIATE OF SILVER, which crystallized in dull opaque small rhomboidal crystals. It is somewhat soluble in alcohol, and is decomposed by the muriatic, nitric, and even acetous acids, a muriate of silver being left. When mixed with half its weight of sulphur, even without charcoal, it detonates in the most violent manner: half a grain, with a quarter of a grain of sulphur, exploding with as much force as five grains of hyperoxygenized muriate of pot-ash, with the due quantities of sulphur and charcoal.

Phosphoric, fluoric, boracic, and carbonic acids act on silver only in its state of oxide.

The salts of silver are reducible on charcoal by the blow-pipe. The *prussiates* give a white precipitate; *hydrosulphuret of pot-ash*, black; *muriatic acid* and *alkaline muriates* a white flaky precipitate; and *gallic acid*, brown.

By *fixed alkalies* it is precipitated, from its solution, white; by *lime water*, olive green; and by *ammonia*, grey; and, if the alkali is in excess, it redissolves the precipitate, and forms a triple salt of silver.

It may be precipitated from a dilute solution, by a plate of copper. The silver adheres like moss to the copper, and the

liquid acquires a blue tinge from the copper, which is dissolved in the room of the silver.

AN ALKALINE SULPHURET OF SILVER may be obtained by fusion with *alkaline sulphuret*, and from the solution of this an HYDROGURETTED SULPHURET OF SILVER may be obtained, by precipitation by an acid.

It is capable of entering into union with almost all the *metals*; very few of these alloys, however, are of any known utility. With *mercury* it forms an *amalgama*, which ramifies in forms resembling those of vegetables.

When alloyed with *copper*, it is rendered hard, and fit for silversmith's work, and for coinage. The alloy for the *British* coinage, is 11 ounces, 2 pennyweights fine.

QUICKSILVER is the only metal possessing a fluid form, in the ordinary, and even in much lower temperatures, of the atmosphere: it is of the colour and lustre of polished silver. Sp. gr. 13,568. It is volatile in heat, and boils, in the same manner as other liquids, when heated to 600°, suffering no change, but a minute division of its particles, if there is not too much access to the oxygen of the atmosphere. If inclosed in a well-soldered globe of iron, and thrown into a furnace, it bursts the globe with a violent explosion. An experiment of this kind on a small scale may be made by inclosing quicksilver in a glass bubble, hermetically sealed.

It becomes solid at 40° below 0°. *Lowitz* discovered that it may be congealed by cold, and then possesses malleability. It may be frozen by a mixture of snow and nitric acid, each being at +70°. By ground ice, and nitric acid at +10°. To make it perfectly solid and hard, a mixture of diluted sulphuric acid and nitric acid should be used with the powdered ice, but then the materials should not be less than -10° before mixing.—*Phil. Trans.* 1795.

Mr. *Pepys* and Mr. *Allen* congealed fifty-six pounds of mercury into a solid mass, by mixtures of muriate of lime, and uncompressed snow, in equal weights. This mass was broken by accident, the larger pieces were kept for some minutes before fusion took place, whilst others were twisted and bent into various forms.—*Philos. Mag. Feb. 1799.*

At the moment of its congelation it contracts so suddenly as to give a slight concussion to the vessel which contains it. This considerable contraction has given rise to error, since when the effect has been produced in a thermometer, the contraction of the metal has lowered much beyond the point which would otherwise have marked the diminution of temperature.

Four ounces of sulphur may be triturated with twelve ounces of sublimed sulphur; or four ounces of sulphur may be fused in a crucible, and one ounce of mercury extinguished in it; or the sulphur of pot-ash may be added to mercurial water. By all these means the HYDROGURETTED SULPHURET OF MERCURY, or *mineral æthiops*, is formed.

By subliming these æthiops, the RED SULPHURET OF MERCURY is obtained, called *cinnabar*. This, according to *Proust*, is composed of 85 parts of mercury and 15 of sulphur.

The Count *Appollos de Moussin Pousschin* prepared a beautiful cinnabar by triturating mercury and flowers of sulphur, with a solution of caustic vegetable alkali, keeping it at a proper temperature, and afterwards washing it repeatedly by boiling water, which carries off a small portion of æthiops, not sur-composed.—*Nicholson's Journal.*

Quicksilver does not enter into combination with *hydrogen*; but *hydrogen gas* passed through a heated tube, containing the red oxide, seizes the oxygen, which appears, indeed, to be held but weakly by the metal, and produces a detonation, the oxide being at the same time reduced to a black colour.

The combination resulting from its mixture with *phosphorus* is rather to be considered as a combination of phosphorus with the black oxide of mercury, than with the metal itself; since

the mercury is converted into a black powder before it unites with the phosphorus. It does not appear to exert any action on *water*, even though aided by heat.

It is slowly oxidized by the air, especially by long agitation in it, when it forms a BLACK, but *imperfect* OXIDE, the PROTOXIDE OF MERCURY, formerly called *Æthiops mercurii per se*, containing 0,5 or 6 oxygen; but when acted on by heat at the same time, it gradually loses its fluidity, and at the end of several months forms a RED, and more *perfect* OXIDE, called *Precipitate per se*, or *calcined mercury*, containing 0,14 to 0,16 oxygen. This oxide gives out its oxygen by simple heat, one ounce affording a pint, the mercury resuming its metallic form. Exposed to heat, in close vessels, the oxide sublimes in beautiful red crystals. This substance is considered by Dr. Thomson as the TRITOXIDE OF MERCURY.

Almost all the acids enter into action with quicksilver, or with its oxide. The *sulphuric acid* acts on mercury, only if assisted by heat: rendering it an oxide, which it then dissolves.

As the quicksilver absorbs oxygen from the acid in proportion to the elevation of temperature, its varieties in solution depend rather on this circumstance, than on the quantity of acid employed.

Thus at nearly a boiling heat the mercury decomposes the sulphuric acid; attracting its oxygen, and detaching sulphurous acid: and if the operation be stopt whilst the mercury is white, and whilst it is still covered with a liquid, the mass contains sulphuric acid, and is the ACID SULPHATE OF MERCURY. This sulphate is very acid, and does not become yellow by contact with the air, nor is it decomposed by water; provided it be slightly washed with cold water, to remove the superfluous acid; as it might become coloured by the heat produced by the reaction of this part of the acid on the water contained in the atmosphere.

If this sulphate be repeatedly washed with small parcels of

cold water, to carry off the sulphuric acid, a truly neutral metallic salt remains, the **SULPHATE OF MERCURY**, which is crystallized in fine white needle-like crystals, which require 500 parts of water for their solution. The taste of this sulphate is not very pungent : its composition is 75 parts of mercury, 8 of oxygen, 12 of sulphuric acid, and 5 of water.

If instead of stopping the operation at the period above mentioned, the sulphuric mercurial mass be allowed to inspissate, more sulphurous acid is detached, and more mercury oxidated ; and if water be poured upon it, particularly if boiling, a precipitate is thrown down of a bright yellow colour. This is the **YELLOW SULPHATE OF MERCURY WITH EXCESS OF OXIDE**, which used to be named *turbith mineral*.

The sulphates may therefore exist in three different states : 1st. With excess of acid. 2d. Neutral. 3d. With excess of oxide.

The *nitric acid* dissolves mercury even without heat, nitrous gas being disengaged ; one part of the acid oxidizing the metal, whilst the other dissolves it, as it is oxidized. Here, as in the cold sulphuric solution, the mercury is able to separate but a small portion of oxygen from the acid, and no precipitate is thrown down on the addition of water to the solution. But if heat be employed, nitrous gas is very copiously evolved ; and the acid becomes loaded with an excess of mercurial oxide, which it lets fall on dilution with water. If the solution be made in the cold, and left to spontaneous evaporation, the crystals are tetrahedral prisms, truncated near their base, and having the angles, resulting from the junction at the bases of their pyramids, likewise truncated ; if heat be employed during the solution, or the evaporation, long and acute blades are obtained, striated obliquely across.

It appears from Mr. *Chevenix's* experiments, that when the acid is thus made to take up as much mercury as possible, an oxide is formed composed of 89,3 of mercury, and 10,7 of oxygen ; which is considered as the **DEUTOXIDE OF MER-**

CURY; though Dr. *Thomson* is disposed to think it is the same with the black oxide, already described as the *pretoxide*.

On the same principle that there exist three species of sulphates of mercury, so there may exist three species of *nitrates*: the *neutral*, the *acid*, and the one *with excess of mercurial oxide*; and these are affected by water in the same manner as the sulphates are.

The NITRATE OF MERCURY is corrosive; when very dry, it detonates upon coals, and emits a brilliant white flame. Fused in a crucible, or better in a retort, it yields nitrous gas, the mercurial oxide becoming yellow, and at length a lively red, being the RED OXIDE OF MERCURY BY NITRIC ACID, or *red precipitate*. As soon as it has acquired a red colour, nothing but pure oxygen gas is evolved from it, until towards the end, when a small portion of nitrogen is separated. If fresh nitric acid be distilled from it three or four times, the precipitate is in small crystals of a very superb red colour. This substance possesses exactly the same properties, and is the same oxide with that which has been already described as the *tritoxide of mercury*. These tritoxides contain, according to *Chevenix*, 85 mercury and 15 of oxygen. But Dr. *Thomson* thinks that the oxide of mercury, thus obtained by the nitric acid, always contains a portion of the acid. The nitrate of mercury even acquires a yellow colour by the oxygen it gains from the air.

FULMINATING MERCURY is thus obtained: one hundred grains of quicksilver dissolved with heat in a measured ounce and half of *nitric acid* of 1,3. sp. gr. being poured cold upon two measured ounces of alcohol of about ,849, and a moderate heat applied, a dense white smoke, heavier than the atmospheric air, is formed, and which Mr. Howard thinks is an *etherised nitrous gas*, holding oxide of mercury in solution; at the same time a white powder precipitates, which is to be immediately washed on a filter, and dried with a heat little exceeding that of a water bath. This powder takes fire at 368

Fahr. it explodes by friction, by flint and steel, and by being thrown into concentrated sulphuric acid. It is equally inflammable under the exhausted receiver as surrounded by air, and it detonates loudly both by the blow of a hammer, and by a strong electrical shock.

This powder appears to be composed of the *nitrous etherized gas*, and of *oxalate of mercury with excess of oxygen*. The superabundant nitrous acid of the mercurial solution first acts on the alcohol, and generates ether, nitrous etherized gas, and oxalic acid. The mercury unites to the two last in their nascent state, and relinquishes fresh nitrous acid to act upon any unaltered alcohol.—*Howard. Phil. Trans.* 1800.

Berthollet observes, that *Mr. Howard's fulminating mercury* does not hold any oxalic acid, but that it contains ammonia; differing from fulminating gold and silver, by a portion of altered alcohol, which enters into the combination, and which, when decomposed, produces carbonic acid.

Fourcroy explains these opposite results by shewing that they depend on variations in the preparation: for when heat is continued during the whole fermentation, it is composed of ammonia, oxide of mercury, and of more of a peculiar vegetable matter, which he observed to exist in that prepared like *Mr. Howard's*.

Mr. Accum relates the following curious fact: four ounces of this substance, left on a chalk-stone for three months, was changed into a brilliant black powder, and on gently moving the heap a globule of running mercury was seen. On the powder being put into a bottle and shaken, the whole was reduced to a metallic state, much heat being at the same time evolved.—*Nicholson's Journal*, *Svo.* 1. 299.

From the solution in the *nitric acid*, the mercury is precipitated in the state of oxide, of different colours, by the acids, alkalies, earths, and some of the metals. Those by the carbonate of ammonia and lime water, as well as that of the muriate of mercury by lime water, fulminate when mixed with a small quantity of sublimed sulphur, and exposed to heat, leav-

ing a small quantity of a bluish powder, which is a *sulphuret of mercury*.

Both the sulphates and the nitrates admit the formation of a triple salt with ammonia, being an AMMONIAL SULPHATE OR NITRATE OF MERCURY.

The *muriatic acid* does not act on mercury, except by long digestion, when it oxidizes a part, which oxide it dissolves. It completely dissolves the mercurial oxides; and when these, being charged with a small quantity of oxygen, are nearly in the metallic state, the MURIATE OF MERCURY is formed. When, on the contrary, the oxide is saturated with oxygen, *corrosive sublimate of mercury* is formed. This may be obtained either in the dry way, by sublimation from equal parts of nitrate of mercury, or any oxide of mercury, decrepitated muriate of soda, and sulphate of iron calcined to whiteness, or from equal parts of sulphate of mercury, and decrepitated muriate of soda. In the humid way it may be obtained by dissolving mercury in the oxygenized muriatic acid; concentration producing very fine corrosive sublimate. This salt, placed on hot coals, dissipates in fumes; and in proper vessels, rises in flattened prismatic crystals. Added to lime-water, it forms *phagædenic water*, a yellow precipitate falling; fixed alkali precipitates an orange-coloured oxide; and volatile alkali, a white powder, which becomes brown in a short time.

To obtain the MILD MURIATE OF MERCURY, *mercurius dulcis*, or *calomel*, equal parts of quicksilver, and of oxygenized muriate, are completely blended by trituration, and this mixture exposed to sublimation. The reguline mercury becomes oxidized at the expence of the oxygen of the oxide, and yields the *mercurius dulcis*, which is insipid, insoluble in water, and which, if slowly sublimed, forms in crystals of the form of tetrahedral prisms, terminated by tetrahedral pyramids. Mr. *Baumé* remarks, that if less mercury be added, a proportional quantity of *mercurius dulcis* only sublimes, and the rest rises in the form of corrosive sublimate; and if too much mercury be added, the excess remains in the form of running mercury;

there being no intermediate state between mercurius dulcis, and corrosive sublimate. By repeated distillations, such a decomposition takes place as produces corrosive sublimate; the common method of frequent distillations is therefore absurd. To be certain that the mercurius dulcis holds no corrosive sublimate, it should be washed with tepid water. Mercurius dulcis may also be made by subliming the white precipitate made by decomposing mercurial water by a solution of the muriate of soda.

Mr. *Chevenix* remarks, that the CORROSIVE SUBLIMATE is a *real muriate*, the excess of oxygen existing in the metallic oxide, and not in the acid. He says, the oxide of mercury in corrosive sublimate is composed of mercury 85, and of oxygen 15 parts, and that the corrosive sublimate is composed of mercury 69,7, with oxygen 12,3, forming 82 parts of oxygen of mercury, which are united with 18 parts of muriatic acid. The oxide in calomel is composed of 89,3 of mercury, and 10,7 of oxygen, and calomel is composed of mercury 79 parts and oxygen 10,7, forming 88,5 of oxide, which are combined with 11,5 of muriatic acid.

HYPEROXYGENIZED MURIATE OF MERCURY may be obtained by passing a current of oxygenized muriatic acid gas through water, containing red oxide of mercury. It is more soluble than corrosive sublimate, requiring only about 4 parts of water to retain it in solution. From this property it is separable from the corrosive sublimate which is formed at the same time.—*Chevenix*.

The muriate of mercury is decomposed by the *earths* and *fixed alkalis*; but with *ammonia* it unites, and forms a triple salt. It is also decomposed by different *metals*. An amalgam of tin and mercury being slowly distilled, a brown liquor is obtained, which, in contact with atmospheric air, emits white fumes for a considerable time. This is termed FUMING SPIRIT OF LIBAVIUS; it is a true *oxygenated muriate of tin*, formed in consequence of the oxygenated muriatic acid quitting the mercury and uniting to the tin.

A quadruple salt, containing nitrate of soda and oxy-muriate of mercury, is described by *Berthollet* as obtainable from a solution of nitrate of soda and of muriate of soda poured into oxy-nitrate of mercury. *Oxy-muriate of soda and mercury* is formed by 4 parts of oxy-muriate of mercury, and 1 part of muriate of soda. A *tartrate of pot-ash and mercury* may be formed by boiling 6 parts of tartar and 1 of oxide of mercury.

Borax being added to mercurial water, a yellow precipitate falls, being a combination of the acid of borax and mercury: this salt forms brilliant crystals by evaporation, the BORATE OF MERCURY. It is in this manner, by double attraction; that the *phosphoric, fluoric, and carbonic* acids are made to unite with mercury.

The *acetic acid*, with a boiling heat, dissolves the red or yellow oxides, or the precipitate, by pot-ash, from the nitrous solution, and yields white foliated crystals, the ACETATE OF MERCURY. The acetate of mercury is the basis of *Keyser's Pills*.

Mercurial salts are decomposed by heat. The *prussiates* give a white precipitate, which changes to yellow in the air. *Muriatic acid* generally gives a white, *gallic acid* an orange yellow, and hydro-sulphuret of pot-ash a black precipitate.

As quicksilver precipitates silver but not copper from the nitric acid, it furnishes an easy mode of separating silver from copper.

Mercury amalgamates with most other metals: on this property is founded the art of gilding. Mercury is also employed in painting, in forming mirrors, philosophical instruments, &c.

COPPER is of a brownish red colour, malleable, and ductile; but inferior in these respects to silver. Of native copper, Sp. gr. 8,584.—*Häuy*. A wire 1-10th of an inch, will support 299½ pounds. It melts at 27° *Wedgwood*. When exposed to

a very strong heat, it burns with a green-coloured flame, which colour its salts yield to the flame of alcohol. Heated in contact with air, it burns at its surface, and suffers oxidizement; and although the colour varies in different processes, *Proust* thinks that the results are only different modifications of the same oxide, which always contains 0,20 of oxygen. The blood-red coloured surface acquired by a violent heat appears to proceed from a species of vitrification. If melted and cooled slowly, it forms in quadrilateral pyramids, or in octahedra, proceeding from its primitive form, the cube.

It has but little, if any, action on *water*; it attracts *oxygen* slowly from the air, and yields oxygen to many of the metals; but takes it from *mercury* and *silver*. *Carbon* and *hydrogen* appear only to act on its oxide, attracting its oxygen, and reducing it to its metallic state. This effect, however, is only produced by hydrogen on these, as well as on other metallic salts and oxides, whilst they are dissolved or diffused in water; it not taking place whilst they are in a dry state.

It combines readily with *sulphur*, forming a very fusible mass, termed **SULPHURET OF COPPER**. This sulphuret yields a curious phenomenon. Eight parts of filings of copper mixed with three parts of sulphur being held in a glass vessel, closed, in heated charcoal, so as to melt it, or only even soften it, a red and bright shining light is seen, which the Dutch chemists have supposed to have proceeded from a real combustion without access of oxygen, but which *Fourcroy* supposes to be simply a phosphorescence of the compound. It also unites readily in the dry way with *phosphorus*, forming a **PHOSPHURET OF COPPER**, resembling steel in grain, hardness, and colour. It readily acts on rancid *fat* and *oils*.—*Journal de Physique*, An XII.

Almost all the acids, as far as is known, combine only with copper oxidized to a *maximum*, so that, as *Dr. Thomson* observes, all the salts of copper are oxygenized, excepting those with the muriatic acid; this acid combining with both oxides.

It is acted on by the *sulphuric acid*, only when concentrated, and very hot. It is then oxidized by it, and affords blue oblong rhomboid crystals, being the SULPHATE, or rather OXY-SULPHATE, OF COPPER, *blue vitriol*, *cyprian vitriol*, *blue copper*, &c. composed of oxide 0,32, acid 0,33, water 0,35. Lime and magnesia, as well as ammonia, precipitate the copper of a bluish white; but the precipitate from the latter is dissolved at the instant it is formed, and the result is a beautiful blue liquor, called *aqua celestis*.

This sulphate is decomposed by heat, the acid escaping, and the black oxide remaining. This sulphate is not acted on by any acid, but is readily decomposed by the earths and alkalies. If a very small quantity of pot-ash be added to a solution of this sulphate, a light flocculent greenish precipitate forms, which is, according to *Proust*, a sulphate with its *minimum* of acid, being the oxide of copper, with a small portion of the acid, it containing 0,68 of oxide, 0,18 sulphuric acid, and 0,14 of water. But if the alkali be added in excess, a *blue* precipitate falls, being a combination of water with the oxide, and is called by *Proust* HYDRATE OF COPPER; and by *Cherenix* the HYDRO-OXIDE OF COPPER. The *sulphurous acid* attacks the oxide, only, of copper, which gradually loses its water, the black oxide being only left.

Copper decomposes diluted *nitric acid*, with slight effervescence, abundance of nitrous gas, or nitric oxide being emitted. A blue solution is thus obtained, yielding crystals of NITRATE OF COPPER, in long parallelepipeds. This salt detonates when mixed with a little phosphorus, and struck with a hammer. The crystals, being moistened, and wrapt up in a roll of tinfoil, heat is produced, nitrous gas is emitted, and the tinfoil is burst open in every direction, sometimes even taking fire. Lime added to a solution of nitrate of copper obtains a blue colour from the precipitate, the hydro-oxide of copper, which it throws down. It is used in *paper staining*, and is called *cinder-blue*. Pot-ash precipitates a PE-

OXIDE OF COPPER, from this solution, as well as from that of the sulphate of copper. This oxide contains 80 of copper and 20 of oxygen.

It is not dissolved by the *muriatic acid*, unless boiling and concentrated. The solution affords cubic crystals, the MURIATE OF COPPER of a fine grass green. A solution of potash being mixed with this solution of the muriate of copper saturated with the metal, an orange-coloured oxide, the PROTOXIDE OF COPPER, is thrown down abundantly. It is composed of 88,5 of copper, and of 11,5 of oxygen. Oxy-muriate of copper being dissolved in ten parts of water, and a precipitate thrown down with prussiate of lime, and washed and dried without heat, a reddish brown pigment, exceeding in durability and beauty all others, is formed. Ammonia does not dissolve the oxide of this muriate, with the same facility as that of other cupreous salts.

When acted on by *vinegar*, it is corroded, and yields the substance known by the name of *verdigris*. Being combined with oxygen, it becomes more readily soluble in vinegar. The oxide of copper dissolved in distilled vinegar, forms the ACETATE OF COPPER, *distilled verdigris*, or *crystals of Venus*. The *phosphate*, *carbonate borate*, &c. of copper are but little known. The blue solutions of copper, indicate the less, and the green, the greater degree of oxygenizement.—*Morveau*.

By exposure to air and humidity, it unites with *oxygen* and *carbonic acid*, and becomes covered with a GREEN CARBONATED OXIDE.

Copper also unites with the *arsenic acid*. Mr. *Chevenix* found the natural *arseniates of copper* in five different states of combination, as shewn in the following table, which shews the proportion of oxide and water in each, with 1,00 of acid. According to Mr. *Chevenix* :

	Oxide.	Water.	
Variety 1	3,76	2,50	} 1,00 acid.
2	2,76	1,00	
3	1,72	0,70	
4	1,80	0,53	
5	0,88	0,60	

The cupreous salts are soluble in water, or at least if an *acid* be added; the solutions being blue or green, especially when exposed to the air, and become of a deep blue by the addition of *ammonia*. *Prussiate of pot-ash* gives a greenish yellow precipitate, *hydro-sulphuret of pot-ash*, a black, and *gallic acid*, a brown.

The *fixed alkalies*, and even many *neutral salts*, act on it, and it is said, most powerfully in the cold, and when exposed to the atmosphere.

Copper filings being added to a caustic solution of *ammonia*, no solution takes place, except air be admitted; and if this be only admitted for a short time, though the solution takes place, it remains colourless; but if air be admitted, it becomes blue at the surface and then through the whole solution. If it has not been too long exposed, and fresh filings be added, and the bottle closed, it will lose its colour, and only regain it by admission of air.

The decoloration arises from the precipitation of the oxide, which, on the admission of air, takes from it its oxygen, and becomes again dissolved.

Copper is precipitated from its solutions, in its metallic form, by many of the metals, but particularly by a plate of iron, the iron appearing to be converted into copper. The copper thus obtained, is known by the name of COPPER OF CEMENTATION.

It unites with the earths, only by vitrification.

It mixes with most of the metals and semi-metals, forming,

1. With *arsenic*, or *zinc*, the WHITE TOMBAC.
2. With *bismuth*, an alloy of a reddish white colour, with cubic facets.
3. With *antimony*, a violet-coloured alloy.
4. With *zinc*, by fusion, the SIMILOR, or MANHEIM GOLD; or by cementation with *calaminaris*, BRASS.
5. In a solution of *quicksilver*, it acquires a white surface from the precipitation of the quicksilver.
6. It easily unites with tin; on this depends the art of tinning. Fused with tin it forms BRONZE, or BELL METAL. Dr. *Pearson* having examined some ancient metallic arms and utensils, was able to ascertain that they consisted of copper and tin, in the proportion of from six to twelve parts of copper to one of tin; according to the use for which they were intended.
7. With *iron*, it contracts very little union.
8. Alloyed with *silver*, it is rendered more fusible; these two metals are combined to form solder.
9. Added to *gold*, the gold is hardened, and its colour heightened. It precipitates *silver* from its solution in the nitric acid. This method is used to separate the silver after the operation of parting.

To separate silver from copper, *Napioné*, knowing sulphur to have a greater affinity for copper than for silver, recommends reducing the alloy into scoriæ by combining it with sulphur, to obtain the silver concentrated in a portion of the copper, which might be refined immediately by cupellation.

The hyperoxygenized muriate of pot-ash burns and inflames copper by a blow, if a piece of kindled charcoal be brought in contact with it.

Copper is employed for various domestic uses. Its oxide is employed to colour glass of a beautiful green.

IRON, when fresh broken, is of a pale, bluish grey colour. Sp. gr. of cast iron, from 7,2 to 7,6: of bar iron, from 7,6 to 7,8: of steel, from 7,78 to 7,84. When only ignited it becomes malleable, but it requires for its fusion a heat equal to

158° *Wedgwood*, and at a few degrees of heat higher it burns. It is obedient to the magnet, but has this property masked or destroyed by its union with *arsenic*, and some other bodies. It is the only metal capable of combustion, on collision with *silex*. When slowly cooled after fusion it crystallizes in octahedra almost always implanted in one another. Its hardness, elasticity, and ductility are very considerable.

It is the most generally diffused metal in nature: almost every mineral substance deriving a colour from it, from a blue to the deepest red. Animal substances contain it, and it exists in the vegetable kingdom; even in vegetables apparently supported merely by air and water.

It attracts *oxygen* by mere exposure to the air, acquiring thereby a tarnish, or *rust*: thus also it absorbs the *carbonic acid* of the atmosphere, by which a CARBONATED OXIDE OF IRON is formed.

On being heated in a furnace for some time, the surface is oxidized, and separates in the form of black scales. This oxide, the PROTOXIDE of Dr. *Thomson*, is still attracted by the magnet, and contains from 0,25 to 0,27 oxygen; but if the heat be longer continued, and a free exposure to the atmospheric air be obtained, the oxide becomes a powder of a reddish colour, and then contains full 0,40 of oxygen, being then the PEROXIDE of iron. This oxide may also be obtained, by exposing for a long time, a diluted solution of iron in sulphuric acid to the atmosphere, and then dropping into it an alkali, by which the oxide is precipitated. The rust of iron is formed of this oxide combined with carbonate of iron. *Thenard* notices another oxide, which is *white* and less oxidized than either of the others. The first portion of oxygen of 0,25 which *Fourcroy* terms the oxidulating portion, adheres more firmly than the latter portion of 0,15, which he distinguishes as the oxidizing portion. The red oxide is therefore decomposed by hydrogen gas, but the black is not. The *red oxide* was formerly called the *astringent saffron of Mars*. The *black oxide* is also formed of iron more rapidly burnt, as

when small particles of iron are thrown into a taper, or a brisk fire, or separated by collision against substances possessing a great degree of hardness. It is also formed by burning iron wire in oxygen gas; when the particles which are detached shine with great brilliance.

Iron in filings, being constantly agitated in water, a black powder is deposited, being black oxide of iron, also called the *martial æthiops of Lemery*. The oxidizement is effected by the air contained in the water; but more especially by the decomposition of the water itself, hydrogen gas being evolved during the process. With heat this process is rapidly performed, and much hydrogen gas is separated; this oxide may be formed by passing steam through a red-hot iron tube. After oxidizement it is less attractible by the magnet, and less soluble in nitric acid: possessing these properties, inversely, as to the quantity of oxygen it contains. The oxide thus obtained is always black if made in close vessels; but if the experiment be made in the air, more oxygen is absorbed, and the oxide is of a red colour. It is oxidized in a slight proportion, by being digested in a solution of the *fixed* or *volatile alkalies*, falling down in the form of an æthiops. It also deprives most of the other metallic oxides of their oxygen, and burns with a flame when heated with red oxide of mercury.

Though it does not enter into any known combination with *hydrogen*, yet it appears that in some cases it is dissolved in *hydrogen gas*, carrying with it a small quantity of carbon. The *hydrogen gas* also, by subtracting oxygen from red oxide of iron, is capable of changing it to the black.

Carbon unites easily with iron. When charcoal, or carbonaceous matters, are burnt in large heaps, with melting iron; and when organic matters, which contain a slight portion of iron; are burnt in close vessels, the iron is absorbed in a small quantity by the *charcoal*, which is rendered less combustible, and acquires a metallic lustre, being a CARBURET OF IRON.

Such is *ANTHRACOLITE*, or incombustible pit-coal, which has a metallic lustre, gives a slight mark, is soft and

brittle. Sp. gr. 1,468. It contains 0,90 carbon, 0,04 alumine, 0,03 silex, 0,03 iron.

Such also is *PLUMBAGO*, also called *Graphite*, and *Black-lead*. It is that shining substance of a blackish blue colour, which is used to make the pencils called *black-lead pencils*; it has a greasy feel, exhibits a tuberculated fracture, soils the hands, and leaves a black trace upon paper. It is indestructible by heat, without the presence of air; but with the concurrence of air, it burns, and leaves but a small residue, which is oxide of iron: it being a compound of about nine parts of carbon and one of iron. The difficult combustion of plumbago appears to depend on the pure state of the carbon, it being combined with only a very small portion of oxygen.

One part of plumbago, and two of *caustic dry alkali*, being heated in a retort, the alkali effervesces, hydrogen gas is formed, and the plumbago disappears. The small quantity of water, in the salt, is decomposed, whence the hydrogen gas; and its oxygen combining with the carbon of the plumbago, forms carbonic acid.

The *sulphuric acid* distilled from plumbago, passes to sulphurous acid, carbonic acid being yielded, and an oxide of iron left in the retort.

The *nitric acid* has no action upon plumbago, if pure.

The *muriatic acid* has no action upon plumbago; but, as it dissolves the iron and clay, which contaminate it, it is used for its purification.

The *oxygenized muriatic acid* dissolves it; a true combustion being effected by the oxygen of the acid, and the carbon of the plumbago.

If thrown by little at a time, on fusing *nitrate of pot-ash*, the salt will deflagrate, and the plumbago be decomposed; the residue being a strongly carburetted alkali, and a small portion of martial ochre.

All these facts prove that plumbago is a peculiar combustible substance, a true charcoal combined with a martial basis. It is more common than is imagined. The brilliant charcoal of

certain vegetable substances, especially when formed in close vessels, possesses all the characters of plumbago. The charcoal of animal substances possesses characters still more resembling it: being difficult to incinerate, leaving the same stain, containing iron, and becoming converted into carbonic acid by combustion. During the distillation of animal substances by a strong fire, a fine powder attaches itself to the neck of the retort, which may be made into excellent pencils.—

Chaptal.

Plumbago may be formed in the earth by the decomposition of wood, together with pyrites; but the origin of plumbago seems to be principally owing to the ligneous, and truly indecomposable part of the wood, which resisting the destructive action of water, in its decomposition of vegetable substances, is disengaged from the other principles, and forms peculiar depositions, and strata.—*Chaptal.*

In the dominions of the King of Naples, there are wells dug expressly for the purpose of collecting an acidulous water, at the bottom of which, a quantity of plumbago is collected every six months.—*Fabroni.*

Chaptal supposes the black mud found beneath the pavement of Paris, is plumbago formed in the humid way.

Plumbago is used for pencils, for lubricating the surfaces, and thereby lessening the effect of friction of certain parts of machines, for defending iron from rust, for polishing, &c.

The nature of *plumbago* has received considerable illustration, from the late experiments and observations on the DIAMOND.

STEEL is also the result of the union of *iron* and *carbon*; but as in the former combination, the carbon is very superabundant, so in this, the iron is much more prevalent. If in the first fusion of iron the carbonaceous matter is kept supplied, during its escape with the oxygen, it becomes what is termed NATIVE STEEL. The common process is entirely to surround small bars of iron, with charcoal, in close vessels, and to expose them to a white heat, when the charcoal will

appear unchanged, and the iron will have become FACTITIOUS STEEL, *by cementation*.

Steel made in either of these modes possesses a larger and more brilliant grain than it did before; and wherever it is touched by a drop of nitric acid a dark spot is formed of carbonaceous matter. A similar carburet is deposited from its solutions in acids. It is capable of assuming a finer polish, its specific gravity is increased, and it is not so easily oxidated. It is ductile, whether cold or ignited; but being plunged in cold water, whilst ignited, it becomes harder, more brittle, and inflexible; but re-assumes its ductility by fresh ignition and gradual cooling. It may be rendered almost of any degree of hardness, this depending on the degree of heat employed in the process of tempering.

Tempering of steel has generally been regulated by the colour it exhibits. But Mr. *Stodart* has brought this operation to almost a degree of certainty, by placing the steel on a metallic bath formed of 8 parts of zinc, 5 of bismuth, and 3 of lead, and comparing the colours, and the temper produced, with the degree of heat, as marked by a thermometer immersed in the bath.

Mr. *Mushet* is of opinion that *crude iron* and *steel* only differ from each other in the proportions of carbon they contain, and concludes, that—

Iron, semi-steelified, is made with charcoal.....	1-150th part.
Soft cast steel, capable of welding.....	1-120th
Cast steel, for common purposes.....	1-100th
———— requiring more hardness	1-90th
Steel capable of standing a few blows, but unfit for drawing.....	1-50th
First approach to a steely granulated fracture, is from.....	1-40th to 1-30th
White cast iron	1-25th
Mottled cast iron	1-20th
Carburetted, or black cast iron.....	1-15th

Super-carburetted crude iron 1-13th
or when any greater quantity is used.

Philos. Mag. July 1802.

The quantity of carbon necessary for making of steel is very small indeed, the quantity of *carbon* existing in steel seldom exceeding a 300th or 200th part, and, perhaps, never more than a 100th part; the remaining quantity of charcoal flying off at the time of cementation, perhaps, in the form of gaseous oxide of carbon. This, indeed, is rendered probable, by the appearance of a lambent blue flame during this process, and which much resembles that of the gaseous oxide of carbon. Steel is capable of being fused, and rendered what is called *cast steel*, which is employed for the finer articles of manufacture.

From the experiments of *Guyton* on the carbonic nature of the diamond, *Clouet* was induced to propose the conclusive experiment of making *soft iron* pass to the state of *steel*, by *cementation with the diamond*. He therefore secured a diamond with some filings of iron, in a cavity bored in a block of soft iron, filling up the cavity with a stopper of iron. The whole properly inclosed in a crucible was exposed to the heat of a blast furnace, by which the diamond disappeared, and the metal was fused, and converted into a button of cast steel.

Mr. *Mushet*, from an experiment he made, concluded that the diamond did not contribute the carbon, for, on leaving out the diamond, the conversion took place, as he thinks, from carbon dissolved in caloric penetrating through the crucible, and the rest of the apparatus.—*Phil. Mag.*

Sir *George Mackenzie* suspects, either that the carbon was derived, in Mr. *Mushet's* experiment, from the sand, or other materials he employed; or else that what he obtained was only a combination of iron with earths, somewhat resembling steel, Sir *George* repeating *Guyton's* experiment with complete success.—*Nicholson's Journal, June, 1800.*

- The attraction of iron for carbon is such, that, at a very high temperature, it will even take it from oxygen, thus iron

urged in a welding heat, with carbonate of lime and clay, is changed to steel. One-fifth of cast iron, converts bar iron into steel. The black oxide, with half its quantity of charcoal, which would serve for its reduction, affords a black iron of little tenacity. One-sixth of the oxide restores common steel to the state of iron.—*Annales de Chimie*, 1798.

Ever since the invention of *cast steel*, it has been supposed to be impossible to *weld* it to either common steel or iron; but Sir *Thomas Frankland* says, the fact is, that cast steel in a *white heat*, and iron in a *welding heat*, unite completely.—*Philos. Trans.* 1795.

Dr. *Pearson*, by an ingenious investigation of the nature of a kind of steel, called *wootz*, which is brought from Bombay, discovered that it contains oxygen, and concluded, from all the properties it possesses, that oxygen is the ingredient which distinguishes *wootz* from steel.—*Philos. Trans.*

Mr. *Musket* concludes, that *wootz* contains a greater proportion of carbonaceous matter than the common qualities of cast steel in this country, and that some specimens of it approach considerably to the nature of cast iron: it possesses however the radical principles of good steel.—*Philos. Trans.* 1805.

CAST, or CRUDE IRON, contains *carbon* and *oxygen*. The presence of the former appears from its coating the utensils, employed in its fusion, with *plumbago*, a substance which contains nine-tenths of carbon: also from the acids which dissolve it always leaving a residue, which is purely carbonaceous. That crude iron contains oxygen, is rendered evident by the formation of carbonic acid, by urging the crude iron, in close vessels, in a violent heat.

Crude, cast, or pig iron, is eager and brittle, and contains iron, carbon, and oxygen, the carbon being in a concrete state, separable by mechanical division.

1. When it contains a small proportion of carbon, and a superabundance of oxygen, it is called *white-iron*, *forge-pigs*, *ballast-iron*, &c.

2. When it contains equal quantities of carbon and oxygen, it is known by the name of *grey-iron*.

There are two other varieties. In the one carbon predominates with an extra privation of oxygen; the other approaches to plumbago.

FORGED IRÓN, or BAR IRON, which is cast iron, exposed to a long-continued fusion and violent hammering, is distinguished into *soft iron*, and *eager or brittle iron*. *Soft* or *pure* iron is so ductile that it may be extended in wires of extreme fineness. A wire of 1-10th of an inch will support 450 pounds. In this state it possesses the aptitude for *welding*; but is almost incapable of fusion. In proportion to its softness and ductility it is free from carbon. It is divided into *red short iron*, and *cold short iron*.

Red Short Iron is malleable when cold, but brittle when ignited; it is supposed to derive these properties from arsenic, or from concrete carbon, not extirpated during the operation for rendering it malleable.

Cold Short Iron is brittle when cold, but not when ignited. Being dissolved in the sulphuric acid, it precipitates a *white powder*, supposed by Mr. *Bergman*, who discovered it, to be a peculiar metal; this precipitate he named *SIDERITE*; but Mr. *Meyer*, of Stettin, has proved it to be a true PHOSPHURET OF IRON. Every solution of iron is precipitated in the form of siderite, by the phosphoric acid.

Mr. *Mushet* determines the quantity of carbon contained in the sub-carburets of iron, by ascertaining the quantity of litharge, which a given portion of the iron will reduce to a metallic state.

Iron combines easily with *sulphur*, by fusion, forming a *true martial pyrites*, or SULPHURET OF IRON. One part of iron filings being mixed with three of sulphur, and melted in a glass tube, exhibit a brilliant combustion. Iron also unites with *sulphur* simply by the addition of water, which is decomposed. The mixture swells, becomes heated, emits sulphuretted hydrogen, and frequently inflames spontaneously. By a similar

natural process are native pyrites decomposed. By a mixture of large quantities of filings of iron and sulphur, moistened with water, and buried a little way under the surface, is formed the *artificial volcano of Lemery*.

The natural sulphurets of iron crystallize sometimes in cubes, and often in octahedra. The union of a number of octahedral pyramids, forms the GLOBULAR PYRITES.

The pyrites being exposed to the action of moisture, the water is decomposed into its principles: the hydrogen escapes in combination with sulphur, forming sulphuretted hydrogen; whilst its oxygen enters into union with sulphur, also forming sulphuric acid, which immediately dissolves the oxide of iron, and forms sulphate of iron or copperas.

We do not at present know the mode of formation, nor, perhaps, the exact composition of the natural pyrites. Since those formed by art cannot be made to imitate either their crystallization, brilliance, or colour.

The native sulphurets of iron, or martial pyrites, are thought frequently to owe their origin to the decomposition of vegetables.

Proust is of opinion that sulphuret of iron may exist in two states. The *first* is the *artificial sulphuret*, formed by the union of iron and sulphur by heat. The easy solution in acids, and particularly in the muriatic acid; the formation of sulphuretted hydrogen gas during its solution in the latter acid, its colour, and its inferior density, all distinguish it from the *second* kind, which is the *common martial pyrites*. The difference between them he thinks is, that the *first*, or *artificial sulphuret*, is composed of 60 parts of sulphur, with 100 of iron: 100 parts containing 62,50 iron and 37,50 sulphur, whilst the *second sulphuret*, or *common pyrites*, is composed of 90 parts of sulphur and 100 of iron: 100 parts containing 52,64 iron and 47,36 sulphur. The sulphur in the first he believes to be difficult of separation; but the excess, in the second, is easily expelled; the residuum being reduced to the state of the first sulphuret. These proportions he considers as the mini-

mum and maximum of the sulphuration of the metal—*Journal de Physique*. Tome LIII. and LIV.

Mr. *Hatchett* having received from the Hon. Charles Greville some pyrites from Caernarvonshire, which like the *magnet-kies* of Germany possessed strong magnetic polarity, he subjected it to analysis, and found that 100 grains yielded 36,50 sulphur and 63,50 iron: the iron existing, as indeed in all pyrites, in nearly, or quite, in the state of perfect metal. Examining various kinds of the natural pyrites, he found that the mean proportion of the sulphur which they contained was 53,24 *p. cent.* a result as nearly agreeing with that of Proust's analysis as might be expected, since Proust's was conducted not with the greatest degree of exactness.

Observing that the magnetical pyrites differed so much from the common martial pyrites, and agreed so exactly with the artificial sulphuret, in its properties as well as in its component ingredients, Mr. *Hatchett* concluded that the magnetical pyrites is identically the same with the artificial sulphuret: this sulphuret, though known as a product in our laboratories, having hitherto remained undiscovered in nature. He therefore examined the artificial sulphuret, and found that when the sulphur is combined in the proportion of 35 or 37 *p. cent.* with iron, it enables the iron to receive and retain the magnetic fluid: the mass being, in every respect, so much like a permanent magnet, that it is even capable of being taken up by a magnet, when containing 45 or 46 *p. cent.*; but he found that this capacity for magnetic influence is destroyed when the proportion amounts to 52 *p. cent.* *Berthollet* believes the metals may combine in proportions exceedingly various with sulphur. Mr. *Hatchett* agrees with *Proust* in not finding any gradations of the artificial sulphuret or magnetical pyrites into the common pyrites: he found indeed that the crystallized pyrites contain less sulphur than the radiated pyrites, the difference being however very trifling.

Proust is of opinion that the pyrites, containing the largest proportion of sulphur, are least liable to spontaneous decom-

position: but, according to Mr. Hatchett, this depends not so much on the proportion, but the state of the sulphur, a predisposition to vitriolization being occasioned by a small portion of oxygen being previously combined with the sulphur, at the original formation of some of these substances.—*Philos. Trans.* 1804.

Mr. Lane has shewn that oxides of iron, not magnetic, are rendered so by chemical combination with inflammable matter.—*Philos. Trans.* 1805.

Guyton has shewn that the lapis lazuli is coloured by a sea-blue sulphuret of iron, which he obtained by dissolving sulphuret of iron in nitric acid, to which, well diluted with water, pot-ash being added, a light blue precipitate is obtained.—*Ann. de Chim.* 100.

By the addition of glass, though but a small quantity enters into the iron, its properties are much changed. Though soft to the file, yet if heated cherry red, it flies to pieces under the hammer. The cast ingot contracts in cooling. When by careful management it is made into bars, by hardening they acquire the grain of steel. By adding from 1-30th to 1-20th of charcoal, it may be forged at a red heat, and gains all the properties of cast steel; but by adding more, only a cast iron is obtained.

It appears that the three inflammable substances, carbon, sulphur, and phosphorus possess alike the property of enabling iron to retain the power of magnetism.

Iron is the most capable of being oxidized, and of being united with acids, at the same time that its permanency of union and of dissolution is most limited, of all the metals.

Concentrated sulphuric acid is decomposed by boiling on this metal, sulphurous acid gas being evolved. If the acid be diluted with water, hydrogen gas will be separated, which will be purest from soft iron, most sparing from cast iron, and impregnated with carbon from steel. By this action of the water on the iron it becomes oxidized, and is then seized by the acid, which forms with it the sulphate of iron, the process going on

until all the acid is saturated ; but is suspended when the water is saturated with sulphate, the action being renewed by the addition of more water.

SULPHATE OF IRON, or *Salt of Steel*, or *Copperas*, thus formed, yields a sharp and astringent taste, and forms in transparent green rhomboidal crystals. The oxide which it contains is in the state of the black oxide, with from 0,27 of oxygen. It is formed also by the decomposition of the pyrites of iron.

According to Mr. *Kirwan* the sulphate of iron contains 26 acid, 28 oxide, 8 water of composition, 38 water of crystallization. Hence Dr. *Thomson* thinks the black oxide of iron is, as well as the oxide of copper, capable of combining with water, and forming a *hydrate*: the oxide, in the sulphate, existing, he supposes, in the state of a hydrate.

This sulphate is exceedingly greedy of oxygen, becoming thereby an oxygenized sulphate. It seizes it from the air, from carbonated water, nitric acid, and particularly from oxygenized muriatic acid, and passes directly to the state of hyper-oxygenizement. The crystals, by exposure to the atmosphere, attach to themselves a portion of oxygen, become opaque and covered with a yellow powder, becoming partially converted into oxy-sulphate, this change being accelerated by the presence of moisture.

OXY-SULPHATE OF IRON is of a yellowish red colour ; it never crystallizes, but attracts moisture from the air ; it is always with excess of acid ; its iron being impregnated with 0,48 of oxygen. It may be formed by exposing the sulphate for some time in powder, to the action of the *air* ; it may also be formed by pouring *nitric acid* upon it, and applying heat. There exist, therefore, according to Proust, two sulphates of a certain impregnation with oxygen, and no intermediate state, their different shades of colour being the result of a mixture of the two sulphates, which may be separated by alcohol, the oxy-sulphate being dissolved whilst the other is untouched. The precipitates of the two sulphates are formed, in the sulphate,

with 0,73 of iron and 0,27 of oxygen; in the oxy-sulphate, with 0,52 of iron and 0,48 of oxygen.

Thenard having pointed out a third, a *white oxide*, which is less oxidized than either of the two others, remarks that each oxide is capable of uniting with two different proportions of sulphuric acid, forming an acid and an acidulous sulphate, and that therefore there may be six sulphates of iron, acidulous sulphate of white iron, acid sulphate of white iron, &c.

The white oxide may be obtained, by adding an alkali to a fresh solution of sulphate of iron: the white oxide precipitating, and becoming green, and even red, as it absorbs oxygen.—*Bulletin des Sciences, August 1805.*

Iron, mercury, zinc, tin, and other metals, by abstracting oxygen, occasion the oxygenized sulphate to retrograde to the state of simple sulphate.

Infusion of galls being added to a solution of sulphate of iron, a black liquid is formed, from the union of the gallic acid, and of tan, with the oxide of iron.

Proust has ascertained, that *galls* effect no change of colour in the simple sulphate; but that with the oxy-sulphate the galls form a bright black precipitate, and that the *alkaline prussiates* give with the simple sulphates a white precipitate, with 0,27 of oxygen, and with the oxygenized sulphate, a blue precipitate, or *Prussian blue*, with 0,48 of this principle: the white precipitate from the green sulphate acquires a blue colour by the accession of oxygen from the atmosphere, which it eagerly imbibes; this not being the case with those of the oxy-sulphate, which are already saturated with oxygen. It is the black precipitate just described, which forms the basis of *ink* and of *black dyes*, and which acquires a brightness of colour by exposure to the air whilst wet, thereby securing a full saturation of oxygen.

Sulphate of iron contains half its weight of water, by which it at first liquifies on the application of heat, but on its evaporation it becomes a grey powder, the *sympathetic powder of Digby*. If the heat be increased to a very high degree, the

sulphate is decomposed, the iron becoming separated from the acid, which escapes in a gaseous form, as sulphurous acid; having been deprived of a portion of its oxygen by the iron, which thereby becomes highly oxygenized, and of a fine red colour, being the substance known by the name of *colcothar*, and containing a portion of sulphate in a hyperoxygenized state.

Sulphurous acid is acted on immediately by iron filings, and acquires a deep fawn colour, which changes to a greenish hue: thus the SULPHATE OF IRON is obtained. Acids added to the solution produce a disengagement of sulphurous acid gas and a precipitation of sulphur; which with the sulphuric or muriatic is white, and with well smoking nitrous acid, yellow; the sulphur, in both cases, containing a small quantity of iron. A yellow precipitate, with crystals, are precipitated from this solution by mere exposure to the air, the crystals being a SULPHURETTED SULPHITE, but with a proportion of less sulphur than was held in the first solution. This second solution exposed to the air has its remaining sulphur deposited, and the sulphite becomes changed to a sulphate. The sulphuretted and the simple sulphite differ, in the former being permanent in the air, and the latter absorbing oxygen; the former depositing sulphur in the addition of acids, and the latter only giving out sulphurous acid; and in the former being soluble in alcohol, but the latter not. Neither of the sulphites gives a black precipitate with galls, or a blue one with prussiates.

Iron is rather oxidized than properly dissolved by the *nitric acid*, which at the same time is rapidly decomposed, nitrous and nitrogen, as well as hydrogen gas, being evolved: hence ammonia is sometimes formed in this process. Nitrate of iron appears to hold the iron in its highly oxidized state of 0,48 of oxygen. To obtain the NITRATE OF IRON, the acid must be considerably diluted.

A pound of iron filings made into a paste with water, being mixed with from one to two ounces of nitric acid, very much diluted and stirred with a spatula, it effervesces and becomes a

black oxide in less than half an hour, and if the vessel be closed and left till next day, the surface will be covered with a kind of champignons extremely white and several lines high, which are carbonate of ammonia, the vessel also now holding oxygenized nitrous gas. The water and nitric acid being deprived of their oxygen by the iron, their hydrogen and nitrogen combine whilst in a state of condensation, and compose the ammonia in this form.—*Fabroni, An. de Chim.* xxx.

It is attacked by the *diluted muriatic acid* with vehemence, hydrogen gas being disengaged from the water. By concentration, a *magma* containing thin, flatted, deliquescent crystals is formed, being a MURIATE OF IRON. This distilled, first yields an acid phlegm, then a non-deliquescent *muriated oxide* of iron, in very transparent crystals, in the form of razor blades, shewing prismatic colours; a deliquescent salt of a brilliant colour, and foliated appearance, like fine large talc, remaining at the bottom of the retort. This again by sublimation yields an opaque, metallic substance, polished like steel, exhibiting sections of hexahedral prisms, being iron reduced.—*Chaptal.*

The solution of the sublimed muriate in ether loses its yellow colour on exposure to the sun, and recovers it in the shade.

It is dissolved by the *acetic acid* with facility. This holds the metals suspended in vegetables, it being precipitable from wine in the form of æthiops, by the means of pure alkalies. It is likewise dissolved by the *acidulous tartrite of pot-ash*, forming the SOLUBLE MARTIAL TARTAR, or *aperitive extract of mars*. The OXACETATE OF IRON is obtained by adding a solution of acetate of lead to a solution of sulphate of iron. In the *oxalic acid*, it yields prismatic, astringent, effervescent crystals, of a greenish yellow colour, soluble in water.

Phosphoric acid unites with it, but very slowly. It combines with both oxides; hence we have a PHOSPHATE and an OXY-PHOSPHATE OF IRON. This salt is found native in bogs, and is called *native Prussian blue*. There exists also a SUBOXY-PHATE OF IRON, which contains a portion of acid with excess;

of base. Though scarcely soluble in water or acid, it dissolves readily in white of egg or serum of the blood. Its solubility being increased, and its colour heightened by fixed alkalis. This is the salt which gives the red colour to the blood.

Carbonic acid forms with it, as in the chalybeate waters, the CARBONATE OF IRON. *Bergman* supposes carbonate of iron to be composed of 76 oxide and 24 acid.

RUST appears to be a carbonate of iron, the acid being combined with the red oxide.

Of the FLUATE OF IRON, and BORATE OF IRON, but little is known.

Prussic acid enters into combination with iron, as will be seen when treating of that acid. PRUSSIAN BLUE takes fire more easily than sulphur, and detonates strongly with the oxygenated muriate of pot-ash. Lime water saturated with the colouring principle, by digestion on Prussian blue, is the most accurate means of ascertaining the presence of iron, precipitating it of a fine blue.

Iron, in filings, with an equal quantity of *nitrate of pot-ash*, thrown into a crucible strongly ignited, detonates, emitting numerous bright sparks, the residue, when washed, being a YELLOW OXIDE OF IRON, called *Zwelfer's saffron of mars*. Iron decomposes the *muriate of ammonia* very well, yielding the æriform fluid, half alkaline, and half hydrogenized. Iron, in filings, sublimed with muriate of ammonia, in the proportion of an ounce to a pound, forms the MARTIAL FLOWERS, or *ens martis*, being a MURIATE OF AMMONIA COLOURED BY IRON.

Oxides of iron give a pale green glass, with *alkaline phosphates*, and also with *borax*, but so much the more inclining to yellow, as they are more oxygenized.

The salts of iron are mostly soluble in water, the solution being greenish or of a yellowish red, and of an astringent taste. With the *triple prussiates* they yield a precipitate of a deep blue, with *hydro-sulphuret of pot-ash*, of a black, with *galls*

or *gallic acid*, of a black or purple, and with *sulphuretted hydrogen*, the solutions are made nearly colourless, except with the oxygenized salts, when a precipitate of sulphur is thrown down, and the salt is deprived of a portion of its oxygen.

Mr. *A. Aiken* formed an amalgam of iron, by triturating iron filings with an amalgam of zinc, and adding to the mixture a solution of iron in muriatic acid. The mixture being condensed and heated together, gradually assumed the metallic lustre.

Iron unites with *arsenic* in the red short iron, and in the mineral called *mispickel*, which is a native arsenical iron. With *cobalt* it forms a very hard and brittle alloy. It enters into union also with *nickel*, *manganese*, *bismuth*, and *antimony*; but it enters into these alloys but sparingly, nor have they been found of any utility.

By immersing iron plates for twenty-four hours in water a little sharpened by an acid, and then repeatedly dipping them in melted *tin*, the plates called BLOCK TIN are formed. *Zinc*, according to *Malouin*, may also be sparingly united to the surface of iron. *Mercury* or *lead* does not enter into any union with iron.

The mass of iron, weighing 1600 pounds, found in Siberia by *Pallas*, is supposed by Dr. *Chladni*, to have been a fire-ball or shooting star, and that iron is the principal matter employed in forming new planetary bodies.

The analysis of several bodies, which have fallen on the earth from some unknown region have been examined by Mr. *Howard*, and have been found to consist of silica, magnesia, oxide of iron, and of nickel. All these substances appear to be strikingly analogous to each other, and dissimilar to other mineral products. They appear to consist principally of substances of four kinds, besides the dark crust which surrounds them: the first of these substances is in the form of dark grains, of a conchoidal fracture, from the size of a pin's head to that of a pea;

the second is a kind of pyrites; the third is a metallic iron; and the fourth a grey earthy substance, serving as a cement to the rest.—*Philos. Trans.* 1802.

The analysis of the stones of this description, which fell at L'Aigle, yielded silica 54. Oxide of iron, 36. Magnesia, 9. Nickel, 3. Sulphur, 2. Lime, 1. an addition of 5 p. cent. being thus obtained, owing probably to the oxidation of the metal produced by the analysis.

LEAD is of a bluish white. Sp. gr. 11,3523. It gives a black mark to paper, or the fingers; is the least sonorous, tenacious, and elastic of metals. It quickly tarnishes, its surface soon becoming oxidized or rather carbonated, and it may be classed among the most fusible of metals. It melts before it becomes red-hot at 540° F. In a very high temperature it sublimes: if suffered to cool slowly it forms in quadrangular pyramids.

Sulphur combines readily with lead, forming a brilliant semi-crystallized mass, termed SULPHATE OF LEAD, which assumes the colour of the natural *galena*.

It unites with *phosphorus*, forming a white, brilliant PHOSPHURET OF LEAD, difficult of fusion, and soon tarnishing. With *carbon*, *hydrogen*, or *nitrogen*, it has not been known to combine.

It does not act immediately on *water*, but if exposed at the same time to the action of the air, it is rapidly oxidized: and although pure water does not dissolve the oxide freely, its solution is rapidly promoted by the presence of any small portion of saline matter in the water.

By boiling the crystals yielded by a solution of lead in nitric acid, with pieces of metallic lead, brilliant scaly crystals are produced of a yellow colour, brilliant, and very soluble in wa-

ter. These crystals, according to *Proust*, are composed of lead in the first stage of oxidizement, combined with nitric acid. But *Dr. Thomson* has ascertained that it is the yellow oxide which is contained in this salt.

Lead being melted in the open air is soon covered with a *grey ash-like powder*; the heat being continued, and somewhat raised, a deep yellow powder is formed, which is called *MASSICOT*. This substance consists essentially of the *YELLOW OR PROTOXIDE OF LEAD*, formed of 90,5 lead, and 9,5 of oxygen. The *grey ash-like powder* has been ascertained by *Proust* to be formed of this oxide with lead in a pulverulent metallic state. The yellow oxide may also be obtained directly, by heat, from the nitrate of lead. This oxide being ground and washed from the particles of lead, and again exposed to a moderate heat, becomes a more *perfect oxide*, the *RED OR TRITOXIDE OF LEAD*, called *MINIUM*, containing 88 of lead, and 0,12 of oxygen. This oxide being mixed with water, and a stream of oxy-muriatic acid gas passed through it, the colour of the oxide deepens, and it is at last dissolved. Pot-ash being added to the solution, a *brown oxide*, the *PEROXIDE OF LEAD*, is precipitated, containing 20 of oxygen and 80 of lead. This oxide was first formed by *Scheele*, by the action of diluted nitric acid on the red oxide, part of which is dissolved: the rest being left, of a brown colour, and not acted on by the acid. The peroxide being rubbed in a mortar with sulphur, a brilliant flame, without detonation, is produced. If the fused lead is exposed to violent heat, and the wind of bellows directed on its surface, a scaly reddish *SUBCARBONATE* is formed, called *litharge*. If urged by a very strong heat, it is converted into a *YELLOW GLASS, OR VITREOUS OXIDE*; so fusible that it penetrates the best crucibles.

These oxides being fused with *coaly matter*, the metal is revived. Their reduction is also obtained by *hydrogen*. If acted on by a strong heat, oxygen is separated; but more

freely if a small portion of sulphuric acid be employed. Lead combines very freely, in general, with the *acids*.

Sulphuric acid is acted on by lead, at a boiling heat, when much sulphurous gas arises, and an oxide of lead is formed, as well as a very caustic SULPHATE OF LEAD, which crystallizes in the octahedron and its several modifications. 142 parts of this salt, native = 100 of the metal.

Sulphurous acid does not dissolve lead, but unites readily with its deutoxide.

Nitric acid combines with the protoxide and yellow oxide, forming the NITRATE and OXYNITRATE OF LEAD.

Concentrated *nitric acid* also converts the lead into a white oxide; but when the acid is weak, the lead is dissolved, and crystals of an opaque white, in three sided prisms, with truncated angles, may be obtained, being the NITRATE OF LEAD. This salt decrepitates so loudly on burning coals, as to have been named by *Boerhaave*, *fulminating lead*.

The *muriatic acid*, assisted by heat, oxidizes lead, and dissolves a portion. This salt, the MURIATE OF LEAD, crystallizes in striated hexahedral prisms, which are slightly deliquescent.

The muriate of lead is also formed by adding the muriatic acid to a solution of a nitrate of lead, the oxide combining with the muriatic acid, and precipitating in a white powder. When exposed to a moderate heat, it melts into a transparent horn-like matter, called *plumbum corneum*.

A SUBMURIATE OF LEAD may be procured from the muriate by a pure alkali, or by decomposing common salt by four times its weight of litharge.

Oxy-muriatic acid gas being received in water containing either the white or yellow oxides, it is absorbed, and the oxide first is blackened and then dissolved, forming a HYPEROXYGENIZED MURIATE OF LEAD, from which may be obtained the *peroxide*.

With oxygenized muriate of pot-ash lead burns freely, on

being ignited; and detonates loudly, with emission of light, on the percussion of three parts of the salt with one of lead.

The oxides of lead are all decomposable by the muriatic acid. It decomposes litharge of lead instantly, fifty or sixty degrees of heat being produced; the solution yielding fine opaque, white, octahedral crystals, of a considerable weight, soluble in less than their weight of boiling water. They decrepitate on hot coals, and by an increased heat are converted into a mass of a beautiful yellow colour. By a somewhat similar combination is obtained the fine YELLOW PIGMENT, called PATENT YELLOW, which may be also produced by the fusion of litharge and common salt. Minium or litharge also decomposes the *muriate of ammonia*; and by thus decomposing *sea salt*, the separation of soda is obtained.

The *acetic acid* in vapour corrodes lead, and affords, according to *Bergman*, a WHITE CARBONATE OF LEAD OR CERUSE, known by the name of *white lead*.

Van Mons states, that a most beautiful *ceruse* is obtained by dissolving lead ashes in dilute nitric acid, and precipitating it by finely powdered chalk.—*Philos. Mag.* Vol. XXIII.

Lead is formed rather into a SUB-ACETATE OF LEAD, by the vapour of vinegar; and this being dissolved in *distilled vinegar* and crystallized, forms ACETATE OF LEAD or *sugar of lead*: and this becomes a *pyrophorus*, on being kept for some time in a crucible in a moderate heat. 160 parts of acetate of lead distilled, by a gentle heat, yields 12 parts of water slightly acidulated, and then 72 parts of a yellow liquor, having an empyreumatic smell, but with a strong odour of alcohol: which yields ammonia on lime being added to it, and on pot-ash being added, about 1-3d of an oil of a strong odour which separates and swims on its surface. The liquid then distilled by a low heat yields, for the first eight parts a liquid whose specific gravity is 0,88, which mixes with water like alcohol, and is nearly as volatile and inflammable as ether.

The *phosphoric acid* acts on it but very slowly. It is but

slightly affected by the other acids. ARSENIATE, MOLYBDATE, and CHROMATE of lead occur native.

Alkalies dissolve the oxides of lead, which may be precipitated by acids: and, in a metallic form, by mere concentration; the alkali acquiring a peculiar faint taste. Pure alkalies being added to a solution of the muriate of lead, a magma is directly formed, occasioning a species of *miraculus mundi*.

The *alkaline carbonates* precipitate a carbonate of lead from the different saline solutions of this metal.

Many of the *salts of lead* are scarcely soluble in water, except with excess of acid: these are reducible by the blow-pipe. The solutions are colourless and transparent; having a sweet taste, with a degree of astringency. Prussiate of pot-ash gives a *white*; hydrosulphuret of pot-ash and sulphuretted hydrogen, a *black*; and gallic acid, a *white precipitate*.

It may be forced to unite in a strong heat with *platina*: with *gold* it easily combines, but even in the smallest quantity occasions a sensible diminution of its ductility. It unites readily also with *silver* and *copper*; and even enters into combination with *iron*.

With *arsenic* it forms a brittle, black alloy; with *bismuth*, the alloy is harsh; with *antimony*, grey and brittle; with *mercury*, a crystallizable amalgama; with half its quantity of *tin*, a very useful solder; but with *zinc*, its union is very weak.

As lead has the property of being easily oxidized, and of destroying other base metals, it is employed in *refining* the nobler metals. This is done in a *cupel*, a vessel made of ashes, which the lead will not easily vitrify, and which being porous will absorb the litharge as it is formed, and leave the surface of the alloyed metal to be the better acted on by the fire. This process is termed *cupellation*.

Besides its other uses, lead, from its oxides promoting the vitrification of other metallic oxides and of earthy bodies, is employed to glaze *pottery*; and its oxides enter into the composition of *glass*, the fusion of which they assist, and render

it fitter for brilliant ornaments. It is used in *enamels*, and also to form *pigments*. The oxides are also, it is suspected, sometimes used to amend the appearance and taste of *wines* and *brandies*; and to harden *oils*, and render them more drying. Dissolved in oils, they serve as the basis of *plasters*.

As the white oxide is precipitated from a solution of the acetate of lead by the alkalies, lime water, and the sulphuric and muriatic acids, it is recommended as a re-agent to detect the presence of these substances.

To detect the admixture of lead in wine, equal parts of oyster-shells and crude sulphur may be kept in a white heat for fifteen minutes, and when cold, mixed with an equal quantity of acidulous tartrate of pot-ash, and put into a strong bottle, with common water to boil for an hour; and then decanted into bottles holding an ounce each, with 20 drops of muriatic acid in each. This liquor precipitates the least quantities of lead, copper, &c. from wines in a very sensible black precipitate.—*M. Hanhemann, Bibl. Phys. Econ.*

As iron might accidentally be contained in the wine, the muriatic acid is added to prevent its precipitation, and its being mistaken for the precipitate of lead.

By the property of precipitating the lead of a dark colour, the alkaline sulphurets, and even the sulphuretted hydrogen gas, render the solutions of acetate of lead, a *sympathetic ink*.

TIN is of a silver greyish white, very soft. Sp. gr. of Cornish tin, melted and not hammered 7,291. hammered 7,299. It is exceedingly ductile, but inconsiderably tenacious. It is very flexible and soft, yielding a peculiar crackling whilst bending. It is the metal which dilates most by heat, and, next to mercury, is the most fusible, it fusing at 442°. During its fusion, the surface, exposed to the air, is soon covered with a pellicle of GREY, *imperfect OXIDE*, which by a greater heat becomes a

perfect WHITE OXIDE, called *putty*, used to polish hard bodies, and convert glass to *enamel*. If thrown on the ground whilst in fusion it breaks into flaming globules, which roll about and sparkle in a beautiful manner. It takes fire with a violent heat, a white oxide subliming. Its attraction for *oxygen* is very strong, it yielding in this respect only to manganese and zinc. It is not oxidized by exposure to the *air*, nor by *water* without the aid of heat, or of some third substance. It acts very forcibly on all the *acids*, and is said actually to assume the character of an acid; but this is not proved.

Charcoal renders it refractory, and with *phosphorus* it forms a PHOSPHURET, which extends under the hammer, and may be cut with a knife. It does not combine with *nitrogen*.

By combining with *sulphur*, it forms SULPHURET OF TIN, of a bluish grey colour, of a metallic splendour, and acicular texture. But if the combination is with the perfect oxide, as in the following process, then is formed SULPHURETTED or HYDROGURETTED SULPHURETTED OXIDE OF TIN; the *aurum musivum*, or *mosaic gold*, used by artists in many varnished works. Eight ounces of tin and of mercury being amalgamated together, are put in a matrass with six ounces of sulphur and four of muriate of ammonia: the bottom of the matrass being ignited, the sulphuret sublimes; and if the heat be such as to make the mixture take fire, it is sublimed of a dazzling colour in large hexagonal scales. The tin, minutely divided by its amalgamation, is oxidized by the muriatic acid of the muriate of ammonia; and the hydrogen, disengaged from the water of crystallization of this salt, combining with sulphur and caloric, forms a sulphuretted hydrogen gas. Muriated oxide of tin and mercury, united with sulphur in the form of cinnabar, also rises; the remaining oxide of tin and sulphur forming the *aurum musivum*.

It may be prepared without either mercury or muriate of ammonia, from eight ounces of tin precipitated by the carbonate of soda, from its solution in the muriatic acid, mixed with four ounces of sulphur.

A precipitate from the nitrate of tin, by liquid sulphur of pot-ash being dried, and put into a retort, with half its weight of sulphur, and a quarter of the muriate of ammonia, the sulphuret of tin will be formed at the bottom of the retort, and of a most brilliant appearance.—*Brugnatelli*.

After repeated fusions of tin, an assemblage of prisms are obtained, united together sideways.

The *sulphuric acid* dissolves it, but difficultly, forming the SULPHATE OF TIN: being aided by heat, the metal is farther oxidized, and an OXY-SULPHATE is obtained. The attraction of tin for oxygen is such, that not only is sulphurous acid produced, but even a pellicle of sulphur forms on the surface of the solution. The *sulphurous acid* forms with it a SULPHITE, or SULPHURETTED SULPHITE OF TIN.

In pure *nitric acid* it is directly precipitated in a white oxide, the PEROXIDE OF TIN; containing 28 oxygen and 72 of tin. The acid must therefore be considerably diluted, and no heat employed; then the NITRATE OF TIN may be obtained. If to this, in solution, an alkali be added, the less perfect, or PROTOXIDE OF TIN is precipitated; containing 20 of oxygen and 80 of tin.

The nitrate burns with a white and thick flame, like that of phosphorus; and detonates when well heated in a crucible. On distillation it boils up, and fills the receiver with a white vapour, smelling like nitric acid.

Guyton perceived that on distilling one part of *nitric acid* with one and a half of tin no gas was evolved; but found the residue contained a twentieth part of ammonia, formed by the nitrogen of the acid with the hydrogen of the water, from which the tin had taken the oxygen.

Tin is rapidly dissolved by the *muriatic acid*, when aided by heat, a fetid hydrogen gas being disengaged, which, according to *Proust*, derives its odour from the arsenic it contains. The solution is yellowish, and the MURIATE OF TIN crystallizes in needle-like forms, and attracts humidity.

The oxide in this salt is imperfect, and eagerly takes up more

oxygen if presented to it. This it does if brought in contact with oxygenized muriatic acid in an elastic state, also in the following process.

When amalgamated with one-fifth of mercury, and distilled with an equal quantity of the whole, of corrosive sublimate, an insipid liquor first comes over, and then white vapours, which condense into a transparent liquor, that emits a considerable quantity of vapours, by mere exposure to the air. This is the *smoking liquor of Libavius*; appearing to be an OXY-MURIATE OF TIN, the oxide having abstracted an additional dose of oxygen from the mercury. The simple muriate precipitates *gold* of a purple colour, and attracts oxygen so strongly from the atmosphere as to become a tolerable eudiometer, but the oxygenized muriate, saturated with oxygen, possesses neither of these properties.

It is dissolved by the *oxygenized-muriatic acid* with vehemence, and when the acid is highly concentrated, a magma is obtained, resembling pitch, which hardens in time. The filings are immediately inflamed and oxydized on being thrown into oxygenized-muriatic acid gas.

It is dissolved in the common *aqua fortis*, prepared with salt-petre of the first boiling, for the composition for scarlet dye, from *cochinele*. This solution often disappoints, from the variable proportions of the muriate of soda, and nitrate of pot-ash; when it contains too little muriate, a precipitate falls; and when the acid is in excess, it affords an obscure colour. The most accurate proportions for a good solvent of tin, are two parts of nitric, and one of muriatic acid.

Its action on *phosphoric, boracic, acetic, and fluoric acids* is very feeble. It is recommended by *Puymarin* as being proper to form vessels with for the separation of the latter acid by the sulphuric. *Carbonic acid* does not appear to act on it either in the gaseous or liquid state.

Tin and its oxides are dissolved, but the latter much more freely, by *alkalies*. It combines with the *earths* by fusion; and if aided by the *fixed alkalies*, it forms an opaque enamel.

Most of the *saline compounds* are decomposed by tin. *Nitrate of pot-ash* and *oxygenized muriate of pot-ash* are acted on with violence, if heat be applied. A mixture of the latter salt with tin, struck with a hammer, fulminates loudly; a large luminous halo being formed at the same time.

Being amalgamated in the proportion of two ounces to a pound of *mercury*, and urged by a violent heat for five hours in a sand bath, no mercury was disengaged, but the tin was crystallized; the lower part of the amalgama being composed of grey brilliant crystals in square plates, thin towards their edges, leaving polygonal cavities between each. Every ounce of tin retaining in crystallization three of mercury.—*Sage*.

It may be combined with other metals in various proportions. The malleability of *gold* is impaired even by an exposure to its fumes. *Silver* also suffers a diminution of its malleability by being fused with it.

When alloyed with *copper*, it forms BRONZE, or BELL-METAL; with a very small proportion of *iron* it becomes harder, and more sonorous.

Of similar mixtures the metallic *specula* for REFLECTING TELESCOPES are cast, such as 2 parts of copper, 1 of tin, and 1-16th of arsenic.

Three parts of *tin*, with five of *bismuth*, and two of lead, forms an alloy, which has been termed the SOFT SOLDER, it liquifies in boiling water.—*Lichtenburg*.

Darcet recommends, of *bismuth* eight, of *lead* five, and of *tin* three parts.

Two parts of tin with 1 of bismuth afford, according to *Wallerius*, the compound called TUTTENAG, an appellation which is given in the East Indies to zinc.

One part of tin and 1 of zinc being melted together, and mixed with 2 of mercury, then agitated in a box rubbed with chalk, forms an AMALGAM which wonderfully augments the power of ELECTRICAL MACHINES.—*Kienmayer*.

Its amalgamating with *quicksilver*, occasions its being em-

ployed in the formation of MIRRORS. 1 part of tin, 1 of lead, 1 of bisinuth, and 2 of mercury, form an amalgam employed for covering CURVILINEAR GLASS MIRRORS.

When combined with *lead* and *antimony*, it forms a mixture called PEWTER, very generally employed in fabricating vessels for various domestic purposes.

It is also employed in the composition for printers *types*.

Tin is also employed in ENAMELLING. A mixture of lead and tin, 100 parts of lead to 15, 20, 30, or even 40 of tin, is to be first calcined, 100 parts of the above calx fused in a potter's furnace, with 100 of sand, containing nearly a third of talc, and 25 or 30 of muriate of soda, forms the composition for *earthen ware*.

For enamelling *on metal*, the sand is previously calcined with a fourth part of muriate of soda, and even of minium. *Fluxes for the colours* are generally similar compositions, except that lead tarnishes with some colours. For delicate colours therefore similar compositions to the following may be used. 3 parts of sand, 1 of chalk, and 3 of borax; or 3 of glass, 1 of borax, a 4th of nitre, and one of white oxide of antimony.

Painting on enamel may be performed either on the raw or on the baked enamel. The colours are produced by the metallic oxides. The oxide of gold forms purple: iron, by peculiar management, red; lead, antimony, and silver, yellow; copper, green; cobalt, blue; manganese, violet.

Proust observes that lead, which is very soluble in vinegar, loses that property when alloyed with tin; and concludes that tinning, the half even of which is lead, cannot be dangerous in domestic purposes.—*Journal de Physique*, 1803.

From the affinity of copper with tin, it admits of being *tinned*, or of having its surface covered with tin. For this purpose the copper is first scraped, or cleaned by an acid, then heated, some resinous substance being applied to prevent oxidizement, and the tin is rubbed over its surface.

If care be taken to prevent oxidizement, and a proper de-

gree of heat be employed, the tin may be made to enter into combination with *iron*, and iron may thus have its surface tinned.

ZINC is, in colour, between the silvery white, and lead grey. Sp. gr. 7,190. It yields to the hammer with a slight degree of elasticity, when heated. *Mr. Sheffield* discovered it to be perfectly malleable, at a certain temperature, and capable of being laminated or drawn into wire.—*Philos. Mag.* Vol. XXIII.

It manifests very considerable effects in the production of *galvanic* phenomena, when placed in contact with some of the other metals.

When laminated into thin leaves, it takes fire by the flame of a taper, burning with a bright flame of a blue colour, mixed with green. It is the most combustible of metals. It melts as soon as ignited, when it inflames and sublimates in white flocks, which are called *philosophical wool*, *pompholix*, or *nihil album*, and is an *oxide of zinc* in the state of PEROXIDE; which may be also obtained by precipitation with pot-ash, from a solution in diluted sulphuric or nitric acid. It consists of 80 of zinc and 20 of oxygen. By exposure of this oxide to a strong heat in a covered crucible or retort, it appears that the zinc loses a portion of its oxygen, assumes a yellow colour, and becomes the PROTOXIDE OF ZINC holding a minimum of oxygen. 88 of zinc being combined with only 12 of oxygen.

From its strong attraction for *oxygen* it readily decomposes *water*, and, at a high temperature, the decomposition is accompanied with even detonation.

The hydrogen gas separated by zinc, in general, contains carbon; but as *carbon* is not known to unite with zinc, its production in this instance most probably depends on the carburet of iron, almost always contained in the zinc: no known union taking place between it and *nitrogen* or *carbon*. *Hydrogen*,

under certain circumstances, dissolves the zinc, and raises it in a gaseous form; it also, at a high temperature, reduces the oxide of zinc.

With *sulphur* no direct combination has been obtained. Sulphur will indeed unite with its oxide, and therefore **BLENDE** is supposed, by some, to be formed by such a combination: but *Guyton* believes it to be a sulphuret, formed with the zinc in a metallic state. *Phosphorus* also combines with the oxide.

Of all known bodies, except manganese, zinc seems to unite most readily to *oxygen*, often inflaming at the moment it seizes it, as may be seen when filings of zinc and red oxide of mercury are heated together in a glass retort. It takes it from almost every other body, which renders it useful in detecting the smallest quantities of oxygen. Hence zinc acts on all the *acids* with great rapidity.

Sulphuric acid, diluted, dissolves it in the cold, and produces a considerable portion of hydrogen gas; a black powder, a carburet of iron, is separated, and a salt is formed in compressed tetrahedral crystals, terminated by four-sided pyramids. This is the **SULPHATE OF ZINC**. It is however generally found in the state of **SUPER-SULPHATE**, which is the state in which it exists in the *white vitriol of commerce*, or *white copperas*. This salt, by exposure to air, effloresces, and part of its acid escapes, by the action of heat. This salt is generally contaminated with iron, copper, or lead: to obtain it pure filings of zinc may be added to its solution, by which the foreign matters are precipitated.

Zinc dissolves freely in *sulphurous acid*, sulphuretted hydrogen being disengaged. By spontaneous evaporation this solution thickens, crystallizes, and becomes a white powder, which, heated by a blow-pipe, yields a brilliant light, swells, and forms a beautiful aggregation of tubercles and of ramifications. By the addition of nitric acid, sulphurous gas is disengaged, and sulphur deposited.

The foregoing **SULPHITE** contains sulphur, and is therefore a **SULPHURETTED SULPHITE OF ZINC**; but if sulphurous

acid be saturated with the oxide of zinc, a *pure* SULPHITE OF ZINC will be formed.

In two pounds of saturated solution of sulphate of zinc put one ounce of nitric acid, then by the addition of pot-ash the excess of acid is saturated, and a white substance, soon becoming yellow, is precipitated; when white parts are discoverable in this yellow precipitate, it may be concluded no iron remains in the solution. If the zinc contain manganese, carbonate of pot-ash is to be added, but short of the total precipitation of zinc; leaving the fluid on the solution two or three days, that if any manganese have been precipitated, it may be redissolved by the acid, the zinc precipitating in its place. The sulphite of zinc thus purified will furnish the fine WHITE OXIDE OF ZINC so desirable by painters.—*Ann. de Chem. Cah.* 103.

The *nitric acid* attracts zinc with vehemence, inflaming it when concentrated, and dissolves it even when diluted with water, nitrous gas being evolved. The solution, by slow evaporation, yields crystals in compressed and striated tetrahedral prisms, terminated by four sided pyramids, being the NITRATE OF ZINC, which is deliquescent. This salt emits red vapours when heated; becoming soft, and preserving that softness for some time.

The *muriatic acid* attacks zinc with effervescence; hydrogen gas being produced. The solution thickens by evaporation, without crystallizing, a concentrated acid escapes, and the MURIATE OF ZINC will itself sublime by distillation.

It attracts the oxygen of *oxy-muriatic acid gas* without effervescence; and thrown in powder into the oxy-muriatic acid gas, it directly is inflamed and oxidized. It also unites with the *phosphoric acid*, and with *liquid carbonic acid*: the latter combination occurs native, and is named CALAMINE. *Acetic acid* readily dissolves zinc: the ACETATE OF ZINC forming in rhomboidal crystals or hexagonal plates.

Hydrogen gas, it has been observed, is separated, during the solution of zinc in the muriatic and sulphuric acids; but it

must be here observed, that the hydrogen gas thus obtained, holds in combination a portion of the metal. A stream of this gas, recently prepared, will occasion, on being inflamed, the fusion of platina wire, which the pure gas will not do. This HYDRO-ZINCIC GAS may be obtained by passing the vapour of water over a mixture of calamine and charcoal in a porcelain tube, placed horizontally in a furnace, and made red-hot. The gas, in consequence of this combination, burns with a blue flame. If confined any time over water, the zinc is deposited on its surface.

The *fixed alkalies*, boiled on zinc, obtain a yellow colour, and dissolve part of the metal; and an acid being added a white oxide is thrown down. It is also readily dissolved in *ammonia*.

It detonates strongly if mixed with *nitrate of pot-ash*, and thrown into an ignited crucible.

Its salts are mostly soluble in water, the solutions being colourless and transparent. *Triple prussiate of pot-ash*, *hydro-sulphuret of pot-ash*, *sulphuretted hydrogen* and *alkalies* give a white precipitate from these solutions.

Gold, *Silver*, *Platina*, and *Nickel*, are rendered brittle by it.

Mercury amalgamates with it, being stirred into it before it hardens after fusion.

Neither *lead* nor *bismuth* enters into combination with zinc in fusion.

Fused with *antimony* it forms a hard and brittle alloy; with *tin* and *copper* it forms BRONZE; and with *copper alone*, it forms BRASS, or *yellow copper*. From similar combinations, but containing less zinc than enters into the composition of brass, are formed *tombac*, *prince's metal*, *similar*, and *Pinchbeck's metal*.

Lead is precipitated from acids by zinc; thus is formed *Nesemann's LEAD TREE*, a small roll of zinc being suspended in a solution of acetate of lead, in the proportion of two drams to six ounces of water.

Three parts of nitrate of pot-ash and one of zinc being ignited inflame with excessive splendour, and throw out sparks which burst with the production of very brilliant stars. It is employed for the most admired *fire works*.

The *tinning of brass pins* is thus performed. A vessel is filled by layers of brass pins and plates of tin, one of these plates being uppermost and undermost. The vessel has then a solution of cream of tartar poured in, the acid dissolves the tin, which the zinc of the brass precipitates on them in a reguline state, by which, after five hours boiling, they are uniformly tinned.

ANTIMONY is white, brilliant, volatile, and rather difficult of fusion. Sp. gr. 6,702. When melted, it emits a white fume, called *flowers of antimony*, being a SUBLIMED OXIDE OF ANTIMONY, in brilliant prismatic aciculæ, which are soluble in water, and which therefore must approach nearly to the nature of an acid. The metal whilst cooling slowly crystallizes, the primitive form of these crystals being the octahedron. It generally assumes a stellular form, on its surface. It is very slightly changed by exposure to air. It is not acted on in the cold by water, but steam passing over red-hot antimony is so rapidly decomposed, as to occasion a violent detonation. If thrown rapidly on the ground when in complete fusion, it breaks into globules which burn with a vivid flame, and throw out brilliant sparks, the surface of these particles becoming covered with a *white oxide*, so perfect as to approach to an acid nature.

The PROTOXIDE OF ANTIMONY is obtained by dissolving antimony in muriatic acid, and precipitating it by the addition of water: washing the precipitate and boiling it with carbonate of pot-ash. This oxide may be kept in fusion at a red

heat, and when cool its surface becomes covered with small opaque crystals, of a yellowish white colour. It consists of 81,5 antimony and 18,5 oxygen. It is not changed on being melted in contact with antimony. The PEROXIDE OF ANTIMONY is the white oxide already described, as being formed by a high degree of heat. It is obtained during the action of nitric acid on antimony; also by throwing antimony on red-hot nitre: for water being poured on the mass remaining in the crucible, which consists of the oxide and the pot-ash of the nitre, a part of the compound is dissolved, and an acid being added, a white powder, the *peroxide*, is precipitated. This oxide consists of 77 antimony, 23 oxygen. It is not so fusible as the former oxide, but is volatilized at a lower temperature, and forms white prismatic crystals of a silvery lustre. When melted with a fourth part of antimony, the whole becomes a *prot oxide*.

Antimony enters into combination with *phosphorus*, forming a metalliform PHOSPHURET OF ANTIMONY. When combined with *sulphur*, it forms a SULPHURET OF ANTIMONY; this, when native, is called *crude antimony*, or improperly, antimony, or *native sulphuret of antimony*. It is artificially formed by melting antimony and sulphur together. It contains 75,1 antimony and 24,9 sulphur.

NATIVE SULPHURET OF ANTIMONY, reduced to powder and exposed to heat in a shallow vessel, gradually loses its sulphur, and absorbs the oxygen of the atmosphere. The desulphuration of the antimony takes place nearly in the same proportion in which the oxydizement is produced, and is converted into the GREY OXIDE. This being urged by a more violent heat, becomes a reddish, and partly a transparent *glass of antimony*, the VITREOUS SULPHURETTED OXIDE OF ANTIMONY, consisting of 8 oxide and 1 sulphuret. The transparency of this substance depends on the presence of a very small proportion of sulphur; since if the desulphuration be carried on farther an opaque scoria only is produced. When blended with wax, this sulphuretted oxide forms the CERATED

GLASS OF ANTIMONY. The sulphuret and the protoxide combine by fusion in different proportions, and thus form other substances. With 8 oxide and 2 sulphuret it forms an opaque, yellowish red substance, called *crocus metallorum*: and with 8 oxide and 4 sulphuret, a dark red opaque mass is formed, which is called *liver of antimony*. The peroxide does not thus unite with sulphur.

Tin, copper, silver, or iron, being fused with the sulphuret unites with the sulphur, and separates the antimony, which, according to the metal employed, was used to be called *regulus of Mars, Venus, &c.* It is found at the bottom of the crucible, in a crystallized metalline form.

Antimony is separated also from the sulphuret or crude antimony, by detonating three parts of crude tartar, two of this sulphuret, and one of nitrate of pot-ash. After fusion, the antimony will be found in a reguline form at the bottom of the crucible covered with brown *scoria*, which contain the sulphuretted alkali, combined with the *protoxide*, and which, on being dissolved in water, lets fall an HYDROGURETTED SULPHURETTED OXIDE OF ANTIMONY.

Equal parts of *muriate of soda, nitrate of pot-ash, and sulphuret of antimony*, being melted together, a dense, vitreous, blackish, brown matter is obtained, insoluble in water, and not becoming moist in the air. It is a sulphuret, but holding less sulphur than the native sulphuret. It has been called *medicinal regulus of antimony, magnesia opalina, &c.*

The *rationale* of these processes is, that sulphur in sufficient quantity reduces either of the oxides; and in a smaller proportion it deoxidizes a part, and combines with it, and with the remaining oxide, which has been already converted to the state of protoxide.

The alkaline sulphurets decompose water, its oxygen uniting with a portion of the antimony, whilst its hydrogen unites with the sulphur; so that an ALKALINE HYDROGURETTED SULPHURETTED OXIDE of antimony is produced, which is kept in solution whilst the liquid is boiling, but which, on cooling,

separates in two portions: one of which is deposited in the form of a reddish brown powder, whilst the other is still retained in solution; but may be precipitated of a golden colour by the addition of acids.

This separation arises from the cold alkaline solution not being capable of holding as much of the oxide as the hot, hence a portion of the hydrogenized sulphuretted oxide, is precipitated, surcharged with the oxide; whilst that which is still held in solution, having lost a portion of its oxide, possesses a surcharge of sulphur. Each of these substances is hydroguretted sulphuretted oxide of antimony, only differing in the proportion of the oxide and of the sulphur which they contain. The first, in which the oxide predominates, having been termed *Kermes mineral*: and the latter, in which sulphur prevails, is rather an HYDROGURETTED SULPHURET OF ANTIMONY: this is commonly called *the golden sulphur of antimony*. The latter may be obtained, combined in different proportions with sulphur, by adding the acid gradually, and preserving each precipitate separate, since as the alkali is neutralized, its power of holding the oxide in solution is lessened; so that each precipitate contains more sulphur and less oxide than the former, and at last the precipitate is little more than mere sulphur.

Thenard has ascertained that the *Kermes mineral* contains 72,760 of brown oxide, 20,298 of sulphuretted hydrogen, and 4,156 of sulphur, there being 2,786 loss in water, &c. The *golden sulphur* he found contained 68,300 of orange-coloured oxide, 17,877 of sulphuretted hydrogen, and 11 to 12,000 of sulphur. He also discovered that they possess the property of attracting the oxygen from the air, and becoming paler in consequence of its addition.

Goëtling recommends the following process as yielding a product of constant similarity. Two parts of sulphuret of antimony and three of sulphur, to be dissolved in a ley of potash, diluted with water, and precipitated by weak sulphuric acid. This is about the strength of the third precipitation of the mother water of the kermes, but the strength may be always

agreeable to the will of the physician; that depending on the quantity of sulphur which is added.

By using the sulphur of antimony, with three parts of the nitrate, the residue in the crucible, after detonation, is oxide of antimony, fixed alkali, a portion of nitrate not decomposed, and a small quantity of sulphate of pot-ash. This compound is called the *solvent of Rotrou*. Water deprives it of the salts, leaving only a white perfect oxide of antimony, which is called *washed diaphoretic antimony*. If to the water holding these salts in solution, a small quantity of acid be added, the small portion of oxide held in solution by the alkali is let fall. This precipitate has been called *ceruse of antimony*; or the *materia perlata of Kerkringius*.

The white oxide obtained by the nitrate of pot-ash is the most perfectly oxidized of any, and approaches the nearest to an acid, forming a crystallizable salt with pot-ash, which *Berthollet* therefore calls *antimonite of pot-ash*. By the experiments of *Thénars*, it appears that this oxide holds 0,32 of oxygen.

The scoriaceous matter formed by fusing soap or grease with oxide of antimony is pyrophoric; a portion being thrown out of the crucible into the air, burns, and throws out sparks like a firework.

Lime, or *lime water*, digested for some days, even without heat, on powdered antimony, yields a beautiful red sulphuretted oxide. *Ammonia* being distilled from crude antimony, a pulverulent *sublimate of a purple colour* is obtained, being a *sulphur of antimony*, with base of volatile alkali.

The *nitric acid* is rapidly decomposed by antimony, sometimes actual inflammation occurring. So eagerly does the antimony attract the oxygen, that the water in the acid is also decomposed, and its hydrogen uniting with the nitrogen of the nitric acid forms ammonia, which combining with nitric acid forms nitrate of ammonia, which has been supposed to have been nitrate of antimony held in solution.

The oxide formed and precipitated in this instance seems

almost to pass to an acid state, containing 0,30 of oxygen. The sulphuret is acted on by this acid; but the oxide is not.

The *sulphuric acid* by boiling on antimony, is partly decomposed. Sulphurous gas is first separated, and sulphur itself sublimes, towards the end; an *oxide* is formed, and a small portion of oxide is suspended in the acid.

The *muriatic acid* acts on it only by a long digestion, and when by decomposition of the water in the acid the metal has become somewhat oxidized; but the *nitro-muriatic acid* is its most convenient solvent. The solution has no colour.

The *oxygenized muriatic acid* possesses almost equal powers: thus, two parts of the corrosive muriate of mercury and one of antimony being distilled together, a slight degree of heat drives over what has been termed a butyraceous matter, the **SUBLIMED MURIATE OF ANTIMONY**, or *butter of antimony*.

Mr. *Chevenix* has ascertained the muriatic salts, formerly known by the strange name of *butters of the metals*, to be muriates, and not hyperoxygenized muriates; and the extraordinary proportion of oxygen, to be combined, not in the acid, but in the metallic oxide.—*Phil. Trans.* 1802.

The sublimed muriate of antimony becomes fluid by a very gentle heat, and is thus easily poured from one vessel to another. Diluted with water, a white oxide of antimony falls, which has been called *powder of Algaroth*, or *mercurius vitæ*. Both the metal and the sulphuret inflame, and emit brilliant sparks on being dropt into the foregoing acid in the state of gas.

DR. JAMES'S POWDER being analyzed by Dr. *Pearson*, he concluded it to be a ternary combination, or triple salt, composed of *phosphoric acid* and a *double basis of lime and antimony*, and therefore proposes to form a similar substance by calcining together hartshorn shavings and crude antimony. But Mr. *Chevenix* considering the uncertainty of the medicine thus formed from part of the oxide being volatilized and part rendered insoluble, recommends the following process: equal parts of *white oxide of antimony*, obtained by precipitation,

by water, from the common muriate of antimony, and of *phosphate of lime*, are to be dissolved, together or separate, in the smallest possible quantity of *muriatic acid*; and this solution is to be gradually poured into distilled water previously alkalinized by a sufficient quantity of *pure ammonia*: the precipitate, well washed and dried, is the substitute he proposes, which may be prepared always of the same strength, and is entirely soluble in every acid that can dissolve phosphate of lime or oxide of antimony separately.—*Philos. Trans.* 1801.

The *acid of tartar* forms with the grey oxide the well-known salt, the ANTIMONIATED TARTRITE OF POT-ASH, *emetic tartar*, or *stibiated tartar*. *Chaptal* remarks that this preparation often varies in its strength, and wishing to establish an uniform process for its formation, proposes transparent glass of antimony to be boiled in water, with an equal weight of acidulous tartarite of pot-ash, until the salt is saturated: by filtration and slow evaporation crystals are obtained, in trihedral pyramids, of a sufficiently uniform degree of emeticity.

Most of the salts are capable of being acted on by antimony and its sulphuret. *Hyperoxygenized muriate of pot-ash*, mixed in the proportion of two parts to one of the metal or sulphuret, inflames rapidly on contact with an ignited body, and detonates violently on being struck on an anvil.

The *gastric fluid* dissolves this semi-metal, as is proved by the famous perpetual pills. *Wine* and *vinegar* have also some action upon it, since they become purgative by remaining in contact with it.

The solutions of its salts are usually of a brownish yellow, water throwing down a white; triple prussiate of pot-ash, a white; hydro-sulphuret of pot-ash, an orange; and gallic acid a white precipitate.

Antimony and *mercury* unite with difficulty.

It combines with *gold*, *silver*, *platina*, *copper*, *iron*, and *zinc*, rendering them brittle, and from its volatility, may be driven off again by a sufficiently strong heat.

Lead and antimony afford a brittle alloy; a fourth part of

antimony added to lead makes a compound fit for printers' types, either with or without zinc or bismuth.

Three parts of *white oxide of antimony*, 12 of *white oxide of lead*, 1 of *sulphite of alumine*, and 1 of *muriate of ammonia*, first heated weakly for some hours, and then kept in a red heat, forms the FINE METALLIC PIGMENT, *Naples yellow*.—*Translator of Gren's Principles*.

Tin is rendered by it more brittle, hard, and sonorous. 3 parts of *tin*, 2 of *lead*, and 1 of *antimony*, is said to be useful for making SHIP-NAILS.

An inspissated solution of glass of antimony in muriatic or tartarous acid assumes a gelatinous form, the jelly not being again soluble in water or by excess of acid. This *Vauquelin* has discovered to proceed from the existence of silica in the glass of antimony, he having found it in the proportion of 12 parts in the 100, being derived either from the crucible, or from the *gangue*, being strongly acted on by the oxide of antimony as well as by that of lead. To account for the solution of silica in a tartareous acid, he remarks, that although silica eludes, in its ordinary state, the action of the most powerful acids; yet, when joined with an alkali, another earth, or a metallic oxide, it may then be dissolved even by a weak acid.

Repeated crystallizations are not sufficient to separate the silica, but in making the emetic tartar he proposes the solution to be filtered hot, and evaporated to dryness, taking care not to burn it; and then redissolved and crystallized, as the silica will entirely separate towards the end of the evaporation. *Ann. de Chim.* 1800.

BISMUTH, or *Tin-glass*, is white, darkened by a shade of red, or yellowish red. It yields a little under the hammer, but is so brittle, that it may be thus reduced to powder. Sp. gr. 9,822. Next to tin and tellurium it is the most fusible of all metallic bodies. It tarnishes, but does not rust in the air.

If allowed to cool gradually after fusion, it crystallizes, and with management may be made to exhibit a very pleasing appearance.

At 460° it melts, and if the heat be increased, it evaporates and may be distilled. By being kept melted, the whole metal may be oxidized, pellicle after pellicle, and thus converted into a *brownish oxide*, the PROTOXIDE OF BISMUTH, composed of 90 of bismuth and 10 of oxygen.

When exposed to a strong heat it burns with a blue flame, and the oxide of a *yellow* colour sublimes in a yellowish smoke, which forms, when condensed, an *oxide of bismuth*, or the *flowers of bismuth*, which is perhaps almost similar to the following oxide. Water being poured into a solution of bismuth in the nitric acid, a white PEROXIDE OF BISMUTH precipitates, composed of 81,3 of bismuth and 17,7 of oxygen. These oxides are easily vitrified. They are also readily reduced, the affinity between bismuth and oxygen being very weak.

It readily combines with *sulphur* by fusion, and forms a bluish grey artificial ore, or SULPHURET OF BISMUTH, which crystallizes in beautiful needle-formed crystals. Its combination with *carbon*, *nitrogen*, or *hydrogen*, is not known, and with *phosphorus* its union is doubtful. Its attraction for *oxygen* being feeble, it is incapable of decomposing *water*.

Sulphuric acid being boiled on it, the bismuth is partly dissolved, forming the SULPHATE OF BISMUTH, which is very deliquescent.

Nitric acid is speedily decomposed by bismuth, much heat is evolved, and even sparks are said to be emitted, and nitrous gas is separated, whilst the oxygen combines with the metal, and a portion is dissolved which yields rhomboidal, tetrahedral prisms, terminating in tetrahedral pyramids with unequal faces, being the NITRATE OF BISMUTH. This salt detonates loudly on being rubbed with *phosphorus*. Its acid is removed, the oxide remaining when the salt is put in water. Hence letters written with a solution of this salt are rendered visible by becoming white, on putting the paper in water.

Muriatic acid does not act on it, but by the aid of heat and

concentration; the MURIATE OF BISMUTH is deliquescent and difficult of crystallization. In *oxy-muriatic acid gas* it immediately inflames, and throws out very brilliant sparks. A mixture of 1 part with 3 of oxygenized muriate of pot-ash burns rapidly in contact with an ignited body, and detonates loudly if struck with a hammer.

The *acetous acid* does not take up the oxides of bismuth, as it does those of lead.

Water precipitates this semi-metal from all its solutions; the precipitate, when well washed, is employed as a white paint, for the complexion, and is known by the name of *magistery of bismuth*, or pearl white; but sulphurous hepatic vapours, and even the animal transpiration, blacken it, and reduce it to a metallic state. It is also employed in *pomatums* to blacken the hair. Its oxides are also dissolved by *fat oils* into a tenacious mass resembling plasters. Its various solutions form pellucid *sympathetic inks*, which are curious from the facility with which they become black with alkaline sulphurets, or sulphuretted hydrogen gas.

TRIPLE PRUSSIANE OF POT-ASH gives a white precipitate with a yellowish hue; *hydro-sulphuret of pot-ash* and *sulphuretted hydrogen*, a black; and *gallic acid* an orange coloured.

It renders *gold* brittle, and communicates to it its own colour; but it does not render *silver* so brittle as it does *gold*. It diminishes the red colour of *copper*; with *lead*, it forms an alloy of a dark grey colour; to *tin* it gives a greater degree of brilliancy and hardness; with *iron* it does not unite, but by a violent heat; and with *mercury* it amalgamates and forms a fluid alloy.

It is used for *pewter*, *soft solder*, *printers' types*, &c.

COBALT is grey, inclining to pink. Sp. gr. 7,700. It is brittle, and reducible to a powder, and possesses the magnetic properties of iron. It is not in the least volatile, and when pure, is as difficultly fusible as iron. It combines with *phosphorus*; but not with *sulphur*, unless through the medium of pot ash.

The PEROXIDE OF COBALT is obtained by precipitation from a solution in nitric acid; it is first of a flea colour, but attracting oxygen from the air, it becomes black. By exposing this oxide for half an hour to a *cherry* red heat, the oxygen it had imbibed is expelled, and it retains only its smallest portion of oxygen. It is now the PROTOXIDE OF COBALT, possessing a fine blue colour. It burns with a red flame, and after fusion its surface frequently assumes a reticular form.

The *peroxide* gives a very deep blue colour to fifty parts of iron.—*Fourcroy*.

With *sulphuric acid*, at a boiling heat, it unites and yields reddish crystals, tetrahedral columnus, with dihedral summits, the SULPHATE OF COBALT.

It unites with the *nitric acid* readily, and with effervescence; the solution is reddish, and yields deliquescent hexahedral crystals, the NITRATE OF COBALT. Cobalt dissolved in nitromuriatic acid, and mixed with $1\frac{1}{2}$ as much of *nitrate of zinc*; and a lixivium of pot-ash being added, the precipitate ignited to whiteness forms a fine GREEN COLOUR FOR PAINTERS.—*Trans. of Gren's Principles*.

Muriatic acid alone acts on cobalt very slightly even with heat. It dissolves however the peroxide, oxy-muriatic acid gas escaping, the solution being green, but if diluted, red. This solution diluted till almost colourless forms a sympathetic ink, discoverable by moderate heat, and again disappearing repeatedly.

If contaminated with much *nickel*, the above solutions are greenish. Its oxides yield to the *acetous acid* and to *ammonia*; the solutions with the former are red and purple; with

the latter, blue when hot. With the *nitro-muriatic acid*, the solution is red; if contaminated with *iron*, brown.

Whilst in its metallic state, it tinges no earthy substance; but in contact with fluxes it readily calcines, hence, being treated with *borax*, *soda*, *pot-ash*, *alkaline phosphates*, in a strong heat, it tinges them blue. In fusion, it will not mix with *bismuth*, *lead*, or *silver*, although it unites with *bismuth*, by the mediation of *nickel*: it does not amalgamate with *quicksilver*. With *arsenic* it burns with a bluish or white flame. It precipitates *copper* and *nickel* from their solutions in a metallic state.

One part of cobalt in 3 of diluted nitric acid, farther diluted with 24 of water, with the addition of 1 part of muriate of ammonia or of soda, makes *Hellot's sympathetic ink*, for though letters traced by it are invisible while cold, yet when very moderately heated they appear green, if the cobalt retains much iron; but blue, if free from iron.

A pleasing effect is produced by drawing the trunk and branches of a tree with ordinary pigments, and adding the leaves with the colourless solution of cobalt, these not appearing until the drawing is brought near to the fire, when the foliage presently appears. An ingenious explanation of this circumstance, by Mr. Hatchett, will be found under the article of Molybdena.

The salts are mostly soluble, their solutions, when diluted, being of a reddish or brownish colour. The *alkalies* give a blue or reddish brown; *triple prussiate of pot-ash*, a brownish yellow; *hydro-sulphuret of pot-ash*, a black; and *tincture of nutgalls* a yellowish white precipitate.

By 1 part of oxide of cobalt, and 16 of distilled vinegar evaporated to an eighth, and 1-4th of the muriate of soda, is formed *Ilsemann's blue sympathetic ink*, somewhat similar to the former.

Its solutions are not precipitable by *zinc*.

The alkalies produce a red precipitate, and, if in excess, give a bluish cast to the sediment.

The ores of cobalt are torrefied in Saxony in furnaces, the arsenical vapours attaching themselves to the sides, yield the arsenic of commerce. When the oxide of cobalt is cleared of arsenic, it is known by the name of ZAFFRE. The zaffre of commerce is mixed with 3-4ths of sand. This oxide fused with 3 parts of sand and 1 of pot-ash, forms a blue glass, which when pounded, sifted, &c. forms SMALT.

Brugnatelli, by dissolving the grey oxide of cobalt or zaffre in caustic liquid ammonia, obtained a combination, which he terms AMMONIURET OF COBALT. He also supposed he had obtained the *cobaltic acid*, but his experiments having been repeated without success, it is supposed that the acid he obtained must have been from arsenic, which had been combined with the cobalt he employed.

Cobalt, in powder, inflames if thrown into *oxygenized muriatic gas*; and detonates with a third part of *hyperoxygenized muriate of pot-ash*, if struck with a hammer.

Smalts are used in the preparation of cloths, laces, linens, muslins, threads, &c. When it is separated by water from the grosser particles, it is called AZURE. The azures mixed with starch form the BLUES used by laundresses. Besides being used for colouring glass, it is also used for blue paintings on porcelain. The most simple way of obtaining cobalt in its metallic state, is to reduce it from smalt, by fusing 1 part of smalt with 6 of soda.

NICKEL is a metallic substance, of a silvery white. Sp. gr. 9. It possesses similar magnetic powers with iron, and is as infusible as manganese. Its oxides are reducible, in a high heat, without addition.

It is malleable in a considerable degree; but it cannot be heated, without becoming oxidized, the oxide containing 77 of nickel and 33 of oxygen. It does not amalgamate with *mercury*.

It is not known to combine with *carbon*, *hydrogen*, or *nitrogen*; but enters into combination with *sulphur* and with *phosphorus*.

The *sulphuric acid* distilled on it, leaves a greyish residue, which, when dissolved in water, communicates a green colour. This is the **SULPHATE OF NICKEL**, which forms octahedra with truncated angles, but which effloresce in the air.

The *nitric acid*, with heat dissolves it, and yields the **NITRATE OF NICKEL**, in crystals of a beautiful green, in rhomboidal cubes. The *muriatic* dissolves it also, with heat, but more slowly; the **MURIATE OF NICKEL** forming in long rhomboidal octahedrons, of the most beautiful emerald green. The *acetous acid* acts only on its calces. The *fixed alkalis* precipitate the nickel in the foregoing solutions, greenish white. *Ammonia* also precipitates it, but in excess redissolves it, the solution being blue; even metallic nickel yields to ammonia.

The salts of nickel are generally soluble, giving a beautiful green colour. *Triple prussiate of pot-ash* gives a dull green; *hydrosulphuret of pot-ash*, a black; and *gallic acid* a greyish white precipitate.

The precipitate from galls is of a whitish grey. *Iron*, *zinc*, *tin*, *manganese*, and *cobalt* itself, precipitate nickel from its solutions in a metallic state.

Nitrate of pot-ash detonates with nickel, but does not enter into such complete combustion with it as the hyperoxygenized muriate of pot-ash. Both these salts augment the hyacinthine colour which the oxide of nickel gives to glass.

Dr. *Richter* believes that he has separated a new metal from the cobalt ores of Saxony. This metal, to which he is disposed to give the name of **NICKELINE**, resembles cobalt and nickel in some respects, but differs from both in other respects. Further observations appear to be necessary before the experiments of Dr. *Richter* can be admitted as conclusive on this point.—*Ann. de Chim.* cap. LXIV.

MANGANESE is of light grey colour, very brittle, and nearly as difficult to fuse as platina. Sp. gr. 7,000. Its brilliancy is considerable, but is soon destroyed by exposure to the air, from its attraction of oxygen; which it effects with greater rapidity than any other known substance, except phosphorus. Whilst suffering this oxidizement it proceeds through various shades of colour until it becomes black.

Its affinity with oxygen exceeds that of any other metal, and its combustibility, compared with other metals, is like that of phosphorus compared with other combustible bodies.

Manganese itself does not combine with *sulphur*; but eight parts of oxide, with three parts of sulphur, form a mass of a greenish yellow colour, which acids attack with effervescence, and occasion an hepatic smell.

This metal is more difficultly fusible than crude iron, but unites by fusion with all the metals, except mercury.

A globule of phosphate of ammonia, soda, and oxide of manganese, melted with a blow-pipe, assumes a purple colour; but with more oxide changes to a red. By the addition of charcoal the colour disappears when exposed to the internal flame from the blow-pipe, but is restored by the external white flame. Nitre restores it directly, but sulphur, sulphates, and the metals destroy it; the former act by contributing oxygen, the latter by subtracting it. By mere fusion of a globule with access to the air, its colour may be restored, by absorption of oxygen. These experiments plainly evince its strong affinity for *oxygen*, by which it appears to be capable of decomposing *water*.

Three different oxides have been particularly noticed, the *white*, the *red*, and the *black*.

The *white*, or PROTOXIDE, is obtained by precipitation from a solution of the black oxide in nitric acid, the solution being promoted by adding a little sugar which attracts the oxygen from the black oxide. It contains 80 manganese, and 20 oxygen.

The *red*, or DEUTOXIDE, is obtained by precipitation from the solution of the black oxide in sulphuric acid, the superfluous oxygen being dissipated by heat during the solution of the black oxide. It holds 74 manganese, and 26 oxygen.

The *black*, or PEROXIDE, is soon formed by exposing the metal, or any of the former oxides, to the air. It consists of 60 manganese, and 40 oxygen. By a red heat it gives out oxygen gas plentifully, and becomes the red oxide; but soon after it absorbs oxygen from the air again, so that the process may be repeated.

The habitudes of manganese with respect to acids are remarkable. Its *imperfect* oxides are dissolved by all the acids; its *perfect* oxide is dissolved by no acid, whose base or radical is fully saturated with oxygen, and thus incapable of taking up more of this principle. On the contrary, if the radical of any acid is capable of absorbing more oxygen from the perfect oxide of manganese, or if it be rendered thus capable of taking up more oxygen, by the addition of some sugar, gum, or the like, the oxide is then converted into an imperfect one, and as such will be dissolved by the acid. These solutions are colourless, and become brown, as the oxide approaches to perfect oxidizement or from particles of iron.—*Gren.*

On this principle the SULPHATE OF MANGANESE may be had from the black or perfect oxide; the NITRATE from *nitric acid* and *imperfect* oxide, or from *nitrous acid* and *perfect* oxide. *Muriatic acid* thus dissolves, even the perfect oxide; becoming oxygenized: but being volatile, the oxygen flies off, and the muriatic acid continues to dissolve the oxide thus rendered imperfect. The metal is readily inflamed by oxygenized muriatic acid gas.

With the *fluoric acid*, a salt of sparing solubility is formed, so likewise with the *phosphoric acid*. The *acetous acid* acts but weakly on it: the *oxalic* dissolves the manganese, and the black oxide of manganese also. The *acidulous tartrate of pot-ash* dissolves the black oxide, even in the cold; and, added

to any solution of manganese, precipitates a true TARTRITE OF MANGANESE. The *carbonic acid* attacks both manganese and its black oxide. *Muriate of ammonia* being distilled with the oxide, the oxygen of the latter unites with the hydrogen gas of the alkali, and forms water, nitrogen gas escaping.

Manganese is precipitated from its solutions by the *alkalies*, in the form of a gelatinous matter, which becomes black as it absorbs oxygen. From the rapidity with which this change takes place, it is well calculated to form an eudiometer, by being diffused on the internal surface of proper vessels, and marking, by the ascension of water in a graduated tube, the absorption of oxygen.

If one part of the native oxide of manganese, and three parts of nitrate of pot-ash, be melted in a crucible, till no more oxygen gas is disengaged, a greenish friable powder is obtained, termed *chamælion mineralis*, an ALKALINE OXIDE OF MANGANESE.

The solution of this is first blue, oxide of iron then separates, and from its yellow colour renders the solution green, this subsiding the blue re-appears; then from the oxygen it absorbs from the air, the manganesian oxide becomes reddish, brownish, and at last black, when it subsides, and leaves the fluid colourless.

This change of colour is effected also, by a difference in the quantity of water employed; a small quantity giving a green colour; a little more, a blue; a farther quantity, a purple; and still more, a purple of considerable depth of colour. The colour is also affected by heat, the cold purple solution becoming of a beautiful green on putting the bottle into hot water.

The salts of this metal are almost all soluble in water, yield a white or reddish precipitate with *alkalies*, a yellowish white with *triple prussiate of pot-ash*, and a white with *hydro-sulphuret of pot-ash*: *sulphuretted hydrogen* making the solution whiter, but occasioning no precipitate.

Its combinations with other metals are at present but little

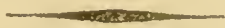
known: but from its great affinity with *iron*, and from manganese being never obtained free from iron, it seems that they admit of an union.

Scheele has proved, that the ashes of vegetables contain manganese; and that it is to this mineral, that the blue colour of calcined pot-ash is owing. Of all metallic substances it is, after iron, the most generally, though minutely diffused through the earth.

To various species of uncoloured glass it gives various hues according to the quantity of oxide, and its degree of oxidization.

If a very slight portion be used to glass discoloured by coaly particles or iron, it renders it colourless; it is hence called *glassmaker's soap*.

It is also employed to give a *black glazing to pottery-ware*.



URANIUM, or the metal of *uranochre*, the native oxide of uranium, of the *pitchblende*, the sulphuret of uranium, and of the *chalcopite*, or *green mica*, the native carbonate of uranium, discovered by *Klaproth*, in 1790, is of a dark steel or iron grey; internally browner. Sp. gr. 6,444.

It is infusible alone, but with phosphoric acid, or the alkaline phosphates, it becomes a grass-green glass; and with soda or borax, a grey opaque scoriaceous bead.

By means of this acid its OXIDE, which is of a yellow colour, is obtained.

Its oxide is yellow, and is easily soluble in acids. With dilute *sulphuric* and the concentrated *acetous acid* it yields yellow crystals; with the *phosphoric*, an amorphous, white, difficultly soluble mass; and with the *nitric* and *nitro-muriatic acids*, greenish yellow crystals.

The salts of uranium are soluble in water, the solutions being yellow. The *pure alkalies* give a yellow; their *carbonates*,

a white; the *triple prussiate of pot-ash*, a brownish red; *hydrosulphuret of pot-ash*, a brownish yellow; and infusion of *galls*, a chocolate-coloured precipitate.

The oxide is insoluble in alkalies, either in the moist or dry way; which fully distinguishes it from tungstenic oxide, which it resembles in colour: it is, however, dissolved easily by the alkaline carbonates.

The oxide combines with, and differently colours, different *fluxes*. Sixteen of silica, eight of pot-ash, and one of the oxide, gives a glass of a *clear brown*; and if soda be used instead of pot-ash, of a *dark grey*. Eight of silica, eight of calcined borax, and one of the oxide, gives a glass resembling the *smoky topaz*. The same proportions, with phosphoric acid instead of borax, gives an *apple-green*; and one part of the oxide, with 16 of the vitreous phosphoric acid, a glass of the colour of the *emerald*.—*Fourcroy*.

TELLURIUM was undoubtedly discovered by *Klaproth*, although he modestly gives the honour of the discovery of it to *Muller*, and even to *Bergman*. He discovered it whilst analysing the aurum problematicum from *Fatzebay*, in Transylvania. It is also found in the graphic gold of *Offenbaya*; in the yellow, and in the grey foliated gold of *Nagyag*.

It is of a dark grey colour, inclining to red, and of considerable metallic splendor, and is the most volatile of the metals, except quicksilver and arsenic. It is very brittle, being reducible to a powder. Before the blow-pipe it burns with a blue flame with a green edge, and is completely volatilized, in the form of a white smoke, which is the *oxide of tellurium*. When broken by the hammer, whilst hot from recent reduction, it changes colour from purple to violet, and then to blue. Sp. gr. 6,115. It readily unites to *quicksilver* and *sulphur*. It is soluble in *nitric acid*, yielding crystals in the form of

dendritic aggregation; and in *sulphuric acid*, in the cold, in 100 times its weight of concentrated acid; yielding a beautiful crimson solution, which loses its colour by heat, or dilution with water. It is also dissolved in the *nitro-muriatic acid*, and is precipitated from its solutions, in a metallic state, by *iron, zinc, tin*, and even by *muriate of tin*; also by *saline sulphurets*, yielding SULPHURETTED OXIDE OF TELLURIUM.

The SALTS OF TELLURIUM give a brown or blackish precipitate with hydrosulphuret of pot-ash; a fleaky yellow precipitate with gallic acid; but none at all with infusion of nut-galls.

Its oxides are reduced by exposure to heat; on a piece of charcoal, and if a little oil be added, this is accomplished with a rapidity approaching to detonation. It amalgamates with mercury, and its precipitation by antimony shows it is not that metal disguised.

TITANIUM, was first discovered to be a metallic substance by *Klaproth*, it having been before that considered as a red shorl. The same indefatigable chemist has discovered its existence in MANACHANITE, a substance first noticed by Mr. *McGregor*, in the valley of *Manachan*, in Cornwall, in small black grains resembling gunpowder. Mr. *Kirwan* pointed out the resemblance between this substance and Titanium. Mr. *Chevenix* has also ascertained its existence in sand, brought from Providence Island.—*Phil. Trans.* 1801.

Titanium has not been united with *sulphur*; but Mr. *Chevenix* has succeeded in obtaining a PHOSPHURÉT OF TITANIUM, by means of the phosphate of this metal.

Nitric acid dissolves the carbonate of Titanium, obtained by melting the metal with six parts of carbonate of pot-ash, and washing it with water. *Muriatic acid* melts titanium, but not the red oxide.

The OXIDE of this metal, which is of a whitish yellow, requires to be deoxidized to a certain degree to become soluble in acids. It is therefore treated with pot-ash, during which process it passes through various colours, red, blue, green, &c. according to the quantity of oxygen it retains; with which it even again supplies itself whilst drying, as is also the case with iron.—*Lowitz. Ann. de Chim.* XXXIV.

A slender stick of *tin* being placed in a solution of the MURIATE OF TITANITE, the solution becomes first rose-colour, then ruby-red, and then of an amethystine hue. *Zinc* thus produces first a violet, and then a deep indigo-blue. The *prussiate of pot-ash* produces a green precipitate from the muriate of Titanium, and if an alkali be added whilst it remains with the same fluid, it passes through beautiful tints of purple and blue, becoming at the end white.

On the authority of *Lampadius*, the order of attraction is, gallic, phosphoric, arsenic, oxalic, sulphuric, muriatic, nitric, and acetous acids.—*Ann. de Chim.* XXVI.

CHROME is a metallic substance, very difficult of fusion, of a whitish grey, shining, and very brittle; it was first obtained by *Vauquelin* from the mineral, called *Siberian red lead*.

He obtained the CHROMIC ACID from this mineral by the following process:

By boiling 100 parts of this mineral with 300 of carbonated pot-ash, and 4000 of water, separating the lead and the alkali by weak nitric acid. Also by mixing 100 parts of muriatic acid, of *Siberian red lead* and of water, from which an insoluble muriate of lead separated; the remaining muriatic acid being engaged by an oxide of silver, and precipitated by lime or caustic alkali, in the form of horn silver, which leaves the acid. This crystallizes in small long prisms of a ruby-red

colour; forming with *mercury*, a compound of a cinnabar red colour; with *silver*, a carmine-red compound; with *lead*, an orange-yellow mineral; and with *iron* or *tin*, the solution of the acid becomes green. It yields part of its oxygen to muriatic acid, by which it oxygenizes it, passing itself to a green oxide.—*Journal des Mines*, xxxiv. 1798.

Before the blow-pipe, chrome does not fuse, but becomes oxidized; but with borax it melts, and tinges that salt of an emerald green. *Nitric acid* acts on it only when boiled on it repeatedly, in a concentrated state, and in considerable quantities.

The CHROMIC ACID is of a ruby-red, and contains about two-thirds of its weight of oxygen, and on parting with a certain portion of oxygen, even to light, the OXIDE OF CHROME is formed, which is of a beautiful green.—*Ann. de Chim.* xxv.

Vauquelin therefore concludes that the chromic is a true and distinct acid, and that the radical or base of this acid is a peculiar metallic substance.

The Siberian red lead ore may be considered as a CHROMATE OF LEAD. It also forms CHROMATES with the *earths* and *alkalies*. From 72 parts of the ore in a strong heat in a crucible with charcoal, he obtained 43 of grey metallic feathered crystals. From the beautiful emerald green it communicates to glasses and enamels, the acid might be a valuable addition to the *pigments of the enameller*: and the oxide, from the tints it produces in combination with other metals, might become an useful ingredient in *colours for painting*: it would also be an excellent re-agent for the discovery of the least portions of lead, silver, and mercury. The durability of its pigment may be inferred, from the emerald of Peru not losing its colour, which it derives from this oxide, in the greatest heat. The *emerald* appears to be coloured by the *oxide*, and the *ruby* by the *acid*.

Tassaert has not only found the chromic acid united to lead, but also to iron.—*Ann. de Chim.* xxx.

ARSENIC is white, with a strong shade of blue, but it quickly tarnishes by exposure to the air, and becomes of a pale yellow, and at last greyish black. Sp. gr. 5,763. It is brittle, and is one of the most inflammable of the metals. In close vessels, it sublimes without alteration, and crystallizes in regular tetrahedra, or octahedra, of a brilliance resembling steel. On burning coals, it gives a low bluish white flame, an alliaceous smell, and white smoke, which holds the *white arsenic of commerce*, which is a *white oxide of arsenic*, or rather, as it possesses some acid properties, it may be considered as the ARSENIUS ACID, of which we shall presently speak.

The metal is soon oxidized in the air, on its surface. Its union with *nitrogen* and *carbon* is not known, but it is soluble in *hydrogen*, and readily unites with *phosphorus* and *sulphur*. It does not decompose *water*, but its oxide is decomposed by *hydrogen*. It is often combined with *metals* in various ores, and is disengaged from them by calcination. It unites, by fusion, with most of the metals; those which were ductile, becoming thereby brittle; those which were difficult of fusion, flowing more easily; and those which were very fusible, becoming refractory. The yellow or red metals being also rendered white.

This metal being thrown into *oxygenized muriatic gas*, immediately inflames, burns with a white flame, and is rendered the arsenious acid.

The *muriatic acid* attacks arsenic only if aided by heat; but equal parts of orpiment and *corrosive muriate of mercury*, being distilled by a gentle heat, a blackish corrosive liquor distils, which is the SUBLIMED MURIATE OF ARSENIC, or *butter of arsenic*.

The *sulphuric acid* boiled on the oxide, dissolves it, but the oxide is precipitated on cooling. If the whole of the acid be dissipated by a strong heat, the arsenic acid remains.

ARSENIUS ACID, or as it is called *white arsenic*, is a glittering white substance, of a vitreous appearance; and sub-

limes, at 283° , with the same smell and smoke as the arsenic itself. Its composition, according to *Proust*, is 75,2 arsenic, 24,8 oxygen. It is acrid to the taste, and is poisonous in the highest degree. It may be reduced to the metallic state by treating it with oils, soaps, or charcoal, in close vessels.

The arsenious acid, is less volatile than the metal itself. If sublimed by a strong fire in closed vessels, it becomes transparent like glass. It requires for its solution eighty times its weight of water at 12° , and fifteen at boiling heat: and of alcohol seventy or eighty at boiling heat. Like the metallic oxides, it is convertible into a metallic glass by a strong heat, and forms an opaque insoluble substance possessing metallic brilliancy; but unlike them, it is soluble in water, unites with metals, is volatile, and emits a strong odour.

It combines readily with *phosphorus*, forming a black and brilliant PHOSPHURET. By its union with *sulphur*, either ORPIMENT, or REALGAR, is formed, the first being *yellow*, the latter being almost *red*. The difference of colour depending either on the degree of heat, or the proportion of sulphur, employed in forming these SULPHURETS: both these substances being decomposed by lime and the alkalies, which disengage the oxide.

The vitrification of the *earths* is accelerated by the arsenious acid; but the glasses, thus formed, soon tarnish.

Pure pot-ash boiled on the arsenious acid, becomes brown, gradually thickens, and at last forms a hard, brittle, but deliquescent mass; the ARSENITE OF POT-ASH.

Soda exhibits phenomena nearly similar, forming the ARSENITE OF SODA.

Ammonia also combines with it, crystals being yielded by spontaneous evaporation, which are the ARSENITE OF AMMONIA.

Barytes and *magnesia* appear to have a stronger affinity with this acid than the alkalies. *Lime* and *alumine* also decompose the alkaline arsenites.

The ARSENIC ACID, which, according to *Proust*, contains

65,4 of arsenic, and 34,6 of oxygen, is formed by subjecting the *nitric* or *oxymuriatic* acid, and the arsenious acid to the heat of distillation. From the nitric acid, nitrous gas, and from the oxymuriatic, ordinary muriatic acid passes over, their superabundant oxygen being seized by the arsenious acid, which is thereby changed to this more perfect acid.

It is a white solid mass, and nearly tasteless; but when liquified, it is acid and caustic. Sp. gr. 3,391. It deliquesces in the air, fuses at a red heat, but is not volatile. It will, however, be decomposed by the access of hydrogen or of any other combustible substance. At 12° it requires only two-thirds of its weight of water to dissolve it; it may be then again concentrated, and brought to the state of a transparent glass. In consequence of its acting strongly on *alumine*, it pervades the ordinary crucibles.

Hydrosulphuret of pot-ash gives a yellow colour to the saline solutions of this metal.

A mixture of oxymuriate of pot-ash with this metal detonates with a very small degree of pressure; a similar mixture being placed in a long train and fired, will be seen to burn with the rapidity of lightning.

On *tin* being dissolved in arsenic acid an ARSENICAL HYDROGEN GAS is separated, a cubic inch of which contains about 1-4th of a grain of metallic arsenic. A stream of this gas, fired in oxygen gas, burns with a blue flame of uncommon splendour.

Arsenic, besides being used in mixture with *metals*, is employed by *dyers*, and is also used as a *flux* in glass-houses. It is also a component part of some *glazes*.

Scheele's GREEN COLOUR for painters is prepared by precipitating sulphate of copper dissolved in water, by a solution of pot-ash and white arsenic.—*Gren.*

MOLYBDENA.—Was obtained by *M. Hielm*, from the sulphuretted ore, which has a metallic lustre, and marks paper similar to plumbago. Sp. gr. 7,500. It is nearly infusible in our furnaces, calcining in a red heat, and, in a reguline state, it gives no colour to borax.

The **MOLYBDIC ACID** may be obtained by exposing molybdena (the ore) to intense heat in contact with oxygen. It is then white and volatile. It is also obtained from molybdena by means of the nitric acid, which attacks it with considerable violence, but ceases to act when the saturation is effected. Twenty times its weight of nitrous acid must be distilled over it in five successive portions; being thenedulcorated, and dried, it is as white as chalk. However, it still retains some sulphuric acid, from which it may be in a great measure purified by repeated fusion in close vessels, or perhaps by adding to its solution the solution of muriated baryt.

Molybdena, when not in a metallic state, appears to exist in four degrees of oxygenizement; 1st. *black*, or protoxide; 2d. *blue*, or DEUTOXIDE; 3d. *green*; which, as it is intermediate between an oxide and an acid, may be called, according to the distinction made by the new nomenclature, **MOLYBDOUS ACID**; the last, or 4th degree, is the **PEROXIDE**, or rather the **MOLYBDIC ACID**, which being heated in close vessels, melts; and in open, sublimes; thereby acquiring a yellow colour. Before the blow-pipe, on charcoal, it is speedily absorbed. With the phosphate of soda it becomes green, with borax grey, and slowly also green.

The *nitric* and *oxy-muriatic* are the only acids which act on molybdena in the humid way.

Sulphuric acid does not act on the regulus, but diluted and digested with the oxide, it forms a green solution, which turns blue on cooling, and loses all its colour by dilution.—*Gren.*

Mr. *Hatchett* observes that, whenever a solution of the molybdic acid becomes blue, or tending towards that colour, it is a sign that the acid has suffered a diminution of oxygen.

On this principle he explains the changes of colour which take place in a solution in the *sulphuric acid*. This acid does not act on the regulus; but being diluted and digested with the oxide, it then forms a blue solution, which becomes green on being heated, and resumes its green colour upon cooling. A change is produced, Mr. *Hatchett* supposes, in the respective degrees of affinity which prevail between the metal and oxygen, and between the base of the acid menstruum and oxygen; so that when the solution is heated, the affinity between the blue oxide of molybdena and oxygen is increased. A portion of oxygen therefore quits the acid menstruum, and combines with the blue oxide, which then becomes molybdous acid; but as soon as the heat is dissipated, the acid menstruum resumes the portion of oxygen, and the molybdous acid becomes oxide. Mr. *Hatchett* believes the changes produced by heat on characters, traced by the ink of Cobalt, are effected in a similar manner.—*Philos. Trans.* 1796.

Muriatic, tartarous, oxalic, and acetic acids, afford blue solutions of the oxide, the colour showing that the oxide is divested of part of its oxygen in the process.

The molybdic acid, as well as the regulus, appears to be capable of combining with metals.

When the solution of muriate of tin, which holds this metal as imperfectly oxidized as possible, is precipitated by a solution of molybdate of pot-ash, both solutions being well diluted, a beautiful blue precipitate is obtained, which *Richter* calls **BLUE CARMINE**.

TUNGSTEN exists in the mineral called *tungstate*, or *ponderous earth*, in which it is united with calcareous earth: and in another mineral called *wolfram*, in which it is combined with iron and manganese.

This metal was obtained by Messrs. *Elluyarts*; and lately *Guyton* obtained a small and very brittle button of tungsten, by a heat of 185° Wedgwood in a three blast furnace. The central portion was, however, only agglutinated, and soon acquired a purple colour on exposure to the air. From the difficulty of obtaining it in a metallic form, its properties are not thoroughly ascertained.

It is insoluble in the mineral acids, but convertible by the nitric, and nitro-muriatic acids, into a yellow oxide.

It unites to *sulphur* in the dry way, and forms a bluish, black, brittle, crystallized mass, the SULPHURET OF TUNGSTEN. It also unites with *phosphorus*.

Tungsten seems to combine with two different proportions of oxygen, forming the *black* and the *yellow* oxides.

The *yellow* or *peroxide*, also called TUNGSTIC ACID, is found native in wolfram, and may be precipitated from muriatic acid, in which the wolfram has been boiled. Its acid properties are so trifling that it has been thought more fit to be classed among the oxides than the acids. It contains 80 tungsten and 20 oxygen. The *black* or PROTOXIDE may be obtained by heating the yellow oxide for some hours in a covered crucible.

The tungstic acid evinces its acid nature by its union with the earths, the alkalies, and the metals.

The black or protoxide being digested in the *sulphuric acid*, it is rendered blue, and in the *nitric* and *muriatic*, it becomes the yellow oxide.

Guyton observes, that tungsten in the last degree of oxygenization has a decided advantage over all the other metallic oxides, in forming *lakes* of great value to painters, which resist powerfully the greatest enemies to colours.—

La Decade Philos. &c. 1798.

COLUMBIUM is a metal obtained by Mr. *Hatchett* from a mineral supposed to have come from the province of *Massachusetts*. The mineral is heavy, of a dark grey nearly black, and is acted on but very feebly by the *nitric*, *muriatic*, and *sulphuric acids*; the latter producing the greatest effect, and dissolving some iron. By alternate fusion with *pot-ash*, and digestion with *muriatic acid*, the acid takes up the iron, and the pot-ash becomes partially neutralized by a metallic acid, which is separable in a copious white *flocculent precipitate*, by adding *nitric acid* to the neutralized pot-ash. This precipitate, which is so abundant as to constitute three-fourths of the ore, is insoluble in boiling *nitric acid*, but boiling *muriatic* dissolves it when recently separated; so also does the *sulphuric*.

The acid solutions deposit with *alkalies* a white flocculent precipitate; *prussiate of pot-ash*, an olive green precipitate; *tincture of galls*, deep orange; *zinc*, white; and *water* precipitates a sulphate from the solution in *sulphuric acid*, which, as it dries, changes from white to blue, and lastly to grey. The white precipitate unites with *pot-ash* and *soda*, expelling carbonic acid, and with pot-ash forms a glittering scaly salt. *Ammonia* will not combine with it; and *hydro-sulphuret of ammonia*, added to the alkaline solutions, forms a chocolate-coloured precipitate. The acid and alkaline solutions are colourless. The white precipitate will not combine with *sulphur* in the dry way. It forms a purplish blue glass with *phosphate of ammonia*; it reddens blue paper, and appears to be of extreme difficult reduction.

From these properties it appears to be an acidifiable metal, different from those already known.

TANTALIUM is a metal discovered by M. *Ekeberg*, a Swedish chemist. It was found in two fossils in the one, combined with *yttria*; and in the other, with iron and manganese.

It is insoluble in acids, but is dissolved by alkalies, from which solutions it is precipitated by alkalies. The **OXIDE** is white, and does not derive any colour from exposure to air, or to a high degree of temperature: its specific gravity is 6,500 after being made red hot. It fuses with borax and phosphate of soda without any change of colour. The oxide, ignited with charcoal, melts and agglutinates in a mass of metallic lustre, shining fracture, and of a greyish black colour, which acids change again to a white oxide.

CERIUM is a metal discovered in a mineral, which had been supposed to be an ore of tungsten. The discovery was made by Messrs. *Berzelius* and *Hisenger*, of Stockholm, and confirmed by the experiments of *Vauquelin*.

It is obtainable by the action of nitro-muriatic acid on the mineral containing it, and by precipitation in the state of an oxide. It appears to be susceptible of two stages of oxidization; the *first* **OXIDE** being white, and the *second* reddish. The white passes into the red oxide by calcination.

Sulphuric acid, diluted with water, dissolves the red oxide: the **SULPHATE**, which forms in yellow and in orange-coloured crystals, is of an acid saccharine taste, and is soluble only by excess of acid. With the white oxide it forms a solution bearing a slight rosy tinge, of a saccharine taste, without acidity, and yielding white crystals.

Nitric acid forms a sweet, but not crystallizable solution, which leaves, on being decomposed, a brick-coloured oxide.

Muriatic acid dissolves the red oxide, and the solution

yields a deliquescent salt, which is soluble in an equal quantity of water, and in three or four times its weight of alcohol, which will burn with a yellow sparkling flame.

Galls occasion a sparing yellow precipitate from the muriatic solution, and *ammonia* a much more abundant one, of a brown colour becoming black, and even brilliant on drying.

Vauquelin has been enabled to produce a very small globe of metal from the oxide of cerium, which was soluble only in the nitro-muriatic acid, and which then was proved to contain cerium, by a white precipitate being thrown down, by tartrate of pot-ash, and by oxalate of ammonia.

STONES.

CALCAREOUS EARTHS are characterized by a dry, harsh, and meagre feel, discoverable even in their mixtures with other earths, if they constitute nearly one-half of the mass. They are never hard enough to strike fire with steel, nor are those compounds, in which they constitute a third part.

Under the genus, calcareous stones, may be placed the vast varieties of LIME-STONE, MARBLE, CHALK, TUFAS, CALCAREOUS SPAR, STALACTITE, STALAGMITE, FLOS FERRI, PISOLITHUS, HAMMITES, or ROE-STONE, with ALABASTER, SATTIN SPAR, and SWINE-STONE, resulting from the union of *lime* with the *carbonic acid*; here also may be placed the BARYTOCALCITES, formed by the union of *lime* with *baryt*; MURICALCITE, with *magnesia*; ARGENTINE, with *magnesia*, *alumine*, and *oxide of iron*: the ARGILLO-CALCITES, with *clay*, and the various MARLS and MARLITES proceeding from the same combination. By its union with *manganese* and *iron* is formed the SIDERO-CALCITE, or PEARL-SPAR; and with a notable proportion of *iron*, the FERRI-CALCITES;

and when *supersaturated with carbonic acid*, the DOLOMITE or ELASTIC MARBLE. Dolomite, according to *Klaproth*, is composed of carbonated lime 52; carbonated magnesia 46,50; oxidated iron 0,50; manganese 0,25. With the *sulphuric acid* it yields the various SELENITES or GYPSUMS; with the *fluoric acid*, the FLUOR SPAR, or FLUATE OF LIME; with the *phosphoric acid*, PHOSPHORITE; and with the *tungstic acid*, TUNGSTEN.

By a mixture of *quick-lime, sand, and water*, MORTAR is formed, which soon forms a very hard substance by the absorption of the water, and by undergoing a species of crystallization.

BARYTES has its combinations generally marked by their great degree of gravity, if not concealed by their porous structure. With *carbonic acid*, this earth forms the BAROLITE, and with *sulphuric acid*, the BAROSELENITE, or *ponderous spar*. It also constitutes the greatest portion of the LIVER-STONE.

MAGNESIA distinguishes the stones, in which it makes about a fifth part, by a smooth and unctuous feel, unless opposed by the opposite characters of lime: they have also frequently a greenish cast, are inclined to a striated or slaty structure, and to a lustre of the silky kind.

Magnesia mixed with *silex* and *carbonate of lime*, forms the SILICI-MURITE; with *lime* and some *iron*, CALCI-MURITE, or MAGNESIAN SPAR; with *alumine* and *iron*, ARGILLO-MURITE; and with a farther addition of *silex* and *lime*, CHLORITE; by its combination with *silex* and *alumine*, are formed the TALCS, and by the addition of *oxide of iron*, and *carbonic acid*, the various STEATITES. The LAPIS OLLARIS contains a small portion also of the *fluoric acid*. The CHRYSOLITE and SERPENTINES appear to result from its union with *silex* and *iron*; and by various intermixtures of *carbonate of lime*, are formed the ASBESTUS, AMIANTHUS, and the SUBER-MONTANUM, or CORIUM-MONTANUM. By somewhat similar combinations are produced also AMIANTH-

NITE, ASBESTINITE, ASBESTOID, BAIKALITE, with the SCHORLACEOUS and GLASSY ACTINOLYTE and JADE; in some of which is also contained the *fluoric acid*. By its union with the *boracic acid*, *alumine*, and *iron*, is formed the stone called BORACITE.

ALUMINE OR ARGIL gives the smooth, soft, and unctuous feel of clay in its mixtures with *silex*, when it exists in a tenth part; but with *lime*, not unless it exceeds the *lime* in quantity. Mixed with *magnesia*, and not exceeding a fifth part, it gives a disposition to a slaty or lamellar structure.

Native *alumine* has been discovered, in a state of purity, only at *Glauch*, near *Halle*, on the river *Saale*.

At *Castella-Monte*, near *Turin*, is a thick and very extensive bed of stone, which, by analysis, yields *magnesia*, 26,3; *silex*, 14,2; *carbonic acid*, 46; *water*, 12; and a trace of *iron*.

From its admixture with *siliceous sand*, are formed the various CLAYS, FULLERS-EARTHS, LITHOMARGA, BOLES, MARLS, and COLORIFIC-EARTHS, which are coloured by various metallic, vegetable, or bituminous particles. From its union with *silex* and *iron*, proceed the rough TRIPOLI, and the smooth CIMOLITE; from its union with *phosphoric acid*, PHOSPHOLITE; with *silex*, *iron*, *pot-ash*, and *manganese*, is formed LEPIDOLITE; and with the addition of *magnesia*, SAPPARE; and by combinations, in some respects similar, MICA, MICARELLE; and with the addition of *lime*, HORN-BLENDE, SCHILLER SPAR, WACKEN, MULLEN-STONE, KRAG-STONE, TRAP, TOADSTONE, BASALT, CALP, ARGILLITE, SLATES, and NOVACULITE.

With *alumine* 74,50, *silex* 15,50, *magnesia* 8,25, *oxide of iron* 1,50, and *lime* 0,75, is formed the SPINELL.

The FLUATE OF ALUMINE, called the CHRYSOLITE OF GREENLAND, contains in 100 parts, according to *Klaproth*, 23,5 of *alumine*, 36,0 of *soda*, 40,5 *fluoric acid* and *water*. *Fauquelin* thinks the *alumine* contains 5 of *silex*.

The property of giving extreme hardness to stones, which *alumine* possesses, is very evident in the ADAMANTINE-SPAR,

OR CORUNDUM STONE, which in 100 contains, according to *Klaproth*, alumine 89,50, oxide of iron 1,25, silica 5,50 only. The dense and brilliant gem, the *blue perfect corundum*, or *SAPPHIRE*, is found to contain, in every 100 parts, 98,50 of alumine, 1 of oxide of iron, and 0,50 of lime. The *red perfect corundum*, or *RUBY*, contains alumine 90, silica 7, iron 1,2.

Lampadius has discovered that hornblende contains charcoal diffused through it, and Mr. *Kirwan* suspects that some pitch stones contain it. It is conjectured that it may exist in other fossils, and cause the peculiar earthy smell, which we perceive by breathing upon stones.

With the coloured and baser sorts of clays are made *TILES* and *BRICKS*, and with a finer sort the different kinds of *POTTERY*. With the more pure and fat clays are formed *TOBACCO-PIPES*, and those finer clays which, in strong fires, only undergo an incipient vitrification, are employed for the fine *PORCELAINS*.

SILEX when most pure, is termed *ROCK CRYSTAL*, and *QUARTZ*; its crystals are the dodecaëdon with triangular faces, or double hexëdral pyramid with or without an intermediate prism. The *common white OPAL* chiefly consists of mere siliceous earth, 240 grains yielding 237 grains of silex, 0,25 of alumine, and 0,25 of oxide of iron. The *yellow or pitch OPAL* consists of 93,50 silex, oxide of iron 1, water 1.

One hundred parts of *NOBLE OPAL* appears to contain of *silex* 90, and *water* 10 parts. In 100 of *SAXON HYDROPHANES* are 93,125 of silex, 1,625 of alumine, and 5,250 of water and volatile matter.

From its mixtures with various proportions of *iron*, *lime*, and *alumine*, result the *AMETHYST* and *CHRYSOBERYL*; and with *iron*, *lime*, and *magnesia* *OLIVIN*. Mr. *Klaproth* has ascertained that the *TOPAZ* contains *fluoric acid*, being a compound of *fluoric acid*, *alumine*, and *silex*. From its union with *shorlaceous actinolyte*, proceeds the *FRASIUM*;

and with *alumine* and *iron*, OBSIDIAN ; and *manganese* being added to these, the result is ORIENTAL RUBY and SHORL. With *alumine*, *lime*, and *iron*, it forms the TOURMALIN, VESUVIAN, and the PREHNITE ; and with the addition of *manganese*, THUMERSTONE ; and by the farther addition of *magnesia*, is formed the BOHEMIAN GARNET. Combined with *alumine*, *lime*, and *water*, it forms the ZEOLITES ; and with *barytes* in the place of *lime*, the STAUROLITE ; with *alumine*, *blue sulphuret of iron*, *sulphate* and *carbonate of lime*, LAPIS LAZULI ; with *nickel*, *iron*, *alumine*, and *lime*, CHRYSOPRASE ; with *alumine* only, SHORLITE ; and with *alumine* and *pot-ash*, LEUCITE. If to the *silex* be added *oxide of iron* and *manganese*, RUBELLITE is the result ; but if *iron* is added, SEMI-OPALS, and PITCH-STONE. From the addition of *lime* and *alumine*, to the combination just mentioned, proceeds HYALITE. From its various intermixtures with *alumine*, and a small portion of *iron*, also proceed CHALCEDONY with its varieties, CORNELIAN, ONYX, MOCHA, ▲GATE, CACHOLONG, and the SARDONYX ; and by the farther addition of a small portion of *lime*, FLINT, HORN-STONE, PETRO-SILEX or CHERT, JASPER, EGYPTIAN PEBBLE, CATS-EYE, PORCELLANITE, HELIOTROPIUM, WOOD-STONE, and ELASTIC QUARTZ are formed.

From the more compound mixtures of this species of earth with *alumine*, *magnesia*, *lime*, and *iron*, are formed the FELSPARS, and MOON-STONE, and with a small portion of *copper*, the LABRADORE STONE. Nearly allied to these are PETRILITE, FELSITE, REDSTONE, and SILICEOUS SPAR. AGATES are composed of binary, ternary, or more numerous combinations of calcedony, jasper, quartz, hornstone, &c.

With *silex* 66,25, *alumine* 31,25, *oxide of iron* 0,50, is formed the EMERALD.

Silex combined with *oxide of iron* and a small quantity of *water* soon forms a hard and ponderous mass.

STRONTIA has been found in a state of CARBONATE, in a

lead mine in Argyleshire, and near Boyra, in Transylvania; and in a state of SULPHATE in Freyberg, Syria, Hungary, and near Bristol.

JARGONIA. The only stones of this genus are the stone called ZIRCON, or JARGON of Ceylon, which contains in 100 parts, *silex* 31,50, *oxide of iron* 0,50, *jargonia* 68; and the HYACINTH, which in 100 parts contains *jargonia* 70, *silex* 25, *oxide of iron* 0,50.

YTTERBY, or GADOLINITE, is the stone which yields the earth called *yttria*. This stone is of a black colour, and of a vitreous fracture. Sp. gr. 4,097, and is magnetic. According to *Vauquelin* it contains *silex* 25, *oxide of iron* 25, *yttria* 35, *oxide of manganese* 2, *lime* 2, *carbonic acid* and *water* 11.

The RUBY appears, by the analysis of *Vauquelin*, to be a saline substance, composed of two bases, *alumine* and *magnesia*, with the *chromic acid*. The difference of colour between the ruby and the emerald, both of which, he supposes, owe their colour to this acid, he attributes to the different degree of oxidizement of their colouring matter; the red chromic acid, on parting with a portion of its oxygen, becoming green; hence he supposes it to exist in a ruby, in the state of an acid, and in the emerald, in the state of an oxide.—*Journal des Mines*, XXXVIII.

By the analysis of *Vauquelin*, it also appears that the CHRYSOLITE, which possesses all the external appearances of a stone, is not truly of that class, but is a salt composed of the *phosphoric acid* and *lime*.—*Ann. de Chimie*, XXVI.

Klaproth having analysed the APATITE, found it also to be a saline substance; containing, in the proportion of 45 to 55 of *phosphoric acid* and *lime*.

AGGREGATED STONES. By the intermixture of *quartz*, *felspar*, and *mica*, is formed GRANITE; and by the addition of *hornblende*, SIENITE; and by various triple combinations of these substances with *shorl*, *serpentine*, *steatites*, and *garnets*, GRANITINE; *quartz*, *mica*, and *garnet* compose the stone called NORKA or MURKSTEIN. The duplicate aggre-

gates Mr. *Kirwan* calls GRANITELL; that of *quartz* and *mica* the Swedes call STELL-STEIN. AVANTURINE may be considered as of this species; *hornblende* and *mica* form the GRUNSTEIN; *quartz* and *stecatites*, the SAXUM MOLARE; and capillary shoots of *shorl* in *quartz* form the HAIR-STONE of the Germans. By GRANILITES are meant granites composed of more than three constituent parts. GNEISS is formed like granite, of *quartz*, *mica*, and *felspar*, but is of a thick slaty or fibrous texture, not granular. SCHISTOSE MICA is composed of *quartz* and *mica*, and is of a schistose or slaty texture, but contains more mica than gneiss. PORPHYRY is any stone which in a *siliceous*, *argillaceous magnesian*, or *calcareous ground* contains scattered spots of *felspar*, visible to the naked eye. It may also contain *quartz*, *hornblende*, and *mica*. According to the ground it is named *siliceous porphyry*, &c. AMYGDALOID is a stone formed by elliptical masses of *quartz*, *lithomarga*, *stecatites*, *hornblende*, &c. in a ground of *trapp*, *mullen*, *kragg*, &c. PUDDING-STONES are formed by siliceous pebbles cemented together by a substance of a similar nature, or by a ferruginous compound. SANDSTONES are formed by small grains of flint, *quartz*, &c. in a ground of calcareous, siliceous, argillaceous, or ferruginous kind. When they contain mica, they are termed MICACEOUS SAND STONES. Stones that have round protuberances of a different substance from the common mass are called VARIOLITES. Stones not really porphyries, but approaching thereto, may be called PORPHYROIDS, and on the same principle is the term GRANITOID employed. Those are termed MIXED EARTHS, in which the different constituent parts are visible to the naked eye.

Thenard having analyzed a stone which fell from the clouds at Aigle, in the department de l'Orne, reports it to be, silix, 46; oxidated iron, 45; magnesia, 10; nickel, 2; sulphur about 5.—*Annales de Chimie*, N° 141.

Many of the metallic oxides, it appears, enter into combination with the earths; but the oxide of iron by far the most frequently.

DERIVATIVES are earths or stones resulting from the coalition of stones and earths of different species, the different constituents not being distinct to the naked eye. LOAM is clay with a superabundance of sand. MOULD is loam mixed with the decayed remains of animals and vegetables.

Bergman relates, that in some of the mountains of Norway, which consist of an argillaceous pudding-stone, the siliceous pebbles it contains are observed to be compressed to the thickness of a fourth of an inch, in the lower part of the mountain, but to increase in size and roundness in proportion as their situation is higher.

Dr. *Bostock* examined the efflorescence on the walls of a warehouse, which had been built about twenty years, and found it to be pure *sulphate of soda*. He also examined the efflorescence from the stones, not from the mortar, on the inside of the west aisle of York Minster; and this he found to be pure *sulphate of magnesia*.—*Nicholson's Journal*, Suppl. to vol. XIII.

VOLCANIC PRODUCTIONS.—The liquified matter issuing from volcanos is in general called LAVA. This is either *vitreous*, or *cellular*, or *compact*, or in the state of *enamel*. Besides the lava itself, *scoriæ*, *slaggs*, *ashes*, and *sand*, are produced by the eruptions of volcanos. POUZZOLANA, a substance composed of *silex*, *alumine*, *lime*, and *iron*; TERRASS consisting nearly of the same principles as the pouzzolana; PIPERINO, a concretion of volcanic ashes, a kind of breccia; and PUMICE STONE are also produced by volcanic fires. PSEUDO VOLCANOS emit smoke like volcanos, and sometimes flame, but never lava.

Widely different are the opinions of chemists, respecting the formation of various lapideous substances, and of the causes of the vast changes which have evidently taken place in this

globe. Some, the *Plutonists*, contend that these are entirely the consequences of the action of fire, on the elementary substances of which our globe is composed; while, on the other hand, the *Neptunists* attribute the same effects entirely to the powerful action of water.

BASALTES are columnar masses of regular polygon stones, most commonly hexagonal, frequently pentagonal, discovered in various parts of the world, particularly in the island of Staffa, Icolmkill, &c. in the western part of Scotland, the opposite shores of Ireland, where they form a tract called the *Giant's Causeway*, Norway, Italy, &c.

Mr. *Kirwan*, who contends for the Neptunian origin of basalt, shorls, &c. observes that the heat communicated by volcanic fire scarcely ever equals 120° , and that not only shorls, which are fusible at 95° ; and garnets, are rejected from volcanos, unfused; but even calcareous and fluor spars, with their transparency unimpaired. These, he supposes undoubtedly to have pre-existed in the rocks or mother stones, before the eruption. In confirmation of his opinion respecting the aqueous origin of basalt, he remarks, that this substance is converted by fire into a most beautiful black glass, and that Mr. *Chaptal* has even converted certain kinds of lava into glass; which he employed in casting bottles.

Dr. *Beddoes* believes the origin of basaltes, from subterraneous fusion, to be thoroughly established by various authors, notwithstanding Mr. *Werner's* recent objections; he also believes there exists an affinity between granites and basaltes; that granite lavas are indeed granite rocks fused, and that they have cracked like the *basalte en tables*.—*Phil. Trans.* 1791.

Dr. *Hutton*, in his Theory of the Earth, differing from Mr. *Kirwan*, conceived that whinstone or basaltes, &c. attained their present position in a state of igneous fusion; but the conversion of whinstone, &c. by the heat of furnaces, into glass, was supposed to refute the doctor's hypothesis; since,

his opponents' said, if fire had been the agent, glass, and not whinstone, would have been formed.

Sir *James Hall*, believing that the mass might, by slow refrigeration in the bowels of the earth, have undergone a change similar to that of glass into Reaumur's porcelain; and have, by crystallization, lost the vitreous, and assumed the stony character, fused seven different species of whinstone, and by rapid cooling reduced them to a state of perfect glass. This glass he again fused, then reduced it to about 28° Wedgwood, in which temperature he kept it for some hours, and on allowing it to cool, the character of glass was lost, and by crystallization they had all assumed that of an original whinstone.—*Nicholson's Journal*, Oct. 1799.

Mr. *Watts*, of Birmingham, made similar experiments, which yielded additional proofs of the transition from the vitreous to the stony texture, which takes place in the gradual refrigeration of glass.—*Edinburgh Trans.* vol. v.—*Nicholson's Journal*, 4to. vol. v.

This same gentleman has since made a similar experiment with 700 weight of *rowley rag*, and from the appearances which this yielded after very slow refrigeration, he is induced to suppose that perfect similarity of structure may exist in the products of aqueous and igneous formation; but do not establish either the igneous or aqueous formation of basalt.—*Philos. Trans.* 1804.

Mr. *Kirwan* has, however, since offered some ingenious objections to the inferences drawn from these experiments, as to the high degrees of heat attributed to volcanos: acknowledging, however, the discovery of the cause of the stony appearances which lavas exhibit after cooling to be a discovery of great importance to geology.—*Philos. Journal*, 1800.

Dr. *Samuel Mitchill*, of New York, observed in a stiff loam several bodies of a pentagonal figure, formed from a solid circular mass of argillaceous iron ore, of about two feet and five inches in breadth, and four inches in thickness. In the natural fracture of the stone, the fragments took upon themselves

these regular forms, very much resembling basaltes; and like basaltes, though figured, they evidently, he says, are not crystallized, for they are as perfectly ferruginous and opaque as any argillaceous iron ore whatever. Do not these specimens, the doctor says, go very far towards deciding the dispute about the igneous or aqueous origin of basaltes? They support, he thinks, their Neptunian origin, and prove that argillaceous iron ore, which nobody has supposed to be a volcanic production, can take on a basaltic figure.—*Nicholson's Journal, Feb. 1799.*

Dr. *Garnet* accounted for the origin of BASALTES, by supposing that a quantity of pyrites very rich in iron, along with argillaceous and other earths, has been fused into a thin liquid mass by the fire of a volcano. On an eruption taking place, that part of the lava or liquid matter, which is thrown out by the expansive force of the vapours, or fire, and brought into contact with the air, cools too suddenly to admit of any regular form, but that which remains quiet within the bowels of the mountain, will cool very slowly, and be left without interruption to form crystals, or rather, by the gradual diminution of its bulk, to split into regular pillars, like starch when it is drying.—*Tour to the Western Islands of Scotland.*

Mr. *Baumé*, by a series of ingenious experiments, discovered that clays may be produced by the action of sulphuric acid on vitrified substances. Mr. *Ferber* applied this fact to the grand operations of nature on the matters ejected by volcanos; he discovered a fine white argillaceous matter in the hollow part of vitrified lava, evidently produced by the action of the sulphuric acid. Hence it appears that those substances which have, by the action of fire, been rendered otherwise intractable, again become, by the action of the sulphuric acid, subservient to vegetable life.—*Ferber's Letters.*

Spallanzani however observes, that although vitrified substances are thus changed by the action of sulphuric acid; the acid does not convert the vitrified substance to alumine, but merely disengages it.—*Voyage to the Two Sicilies.*

Dr. *Hutton* having founded his theory, in a great measure,

on the supposition that the combined action of heat and pressure, produced effects different from those of heat alone, and in particular that the carbonate of lime might thus be reduced to a state of fusion, without any calcination, and having undertaken thus to account for those circumstances in which minerals are found to differ from the usual products of our furnaces, *Sir James Hall* resolved to investigate experimentally the chemical law which had been thus assumed by *Dr. Hutton*, as the basis of his theory.

With this view *Sir James* instituted a very considerable number of experiments with apparatus, most carefully and ingeniously varied, to obviate the several difficulties and doubts which arose. The general results, all that can be here introduced, were:—That, by modifying the action of heat by compression, pounded chalk became a firm stone, in some instances possessing semi-transparency, exhibiting a fracture approaching to that of bees'-wax and marble, bearing a tolerable polish, and coloured like some specimens of marble. In other instances a shining grain—an appearance like internal stratification—evident marks of fusion—spathose appearance with rhomboidal fracture—and clear, but minute crystals of spar, in parallel plates.

Under similar circumstances, the fragment of a perriwinkle-shell was glazed by semi-fusion—a piece of horn was converted into a jet black, inflammable substance, resembling pitch or black sealing-wax—a piece of flannel was fused, becoming of a yellow red, and assuming a polish from the glass on which it had moulded itself, and resembling, in *Sir James's* opinion, the substance termed by *Mr. Hatchett* *resinasphaltum*; and a piece of wood was partially converted into coal: which in some parts resembled pitch, being full of air holes, and in others the fibres of the wood were still visible.

Thus, *Sir James* supposes we may account for the igneous formation of rocks. The sand would thus be changed to sandstone; the shells to lime-stone; and the animal and vegetable substances to coal. To do justice to *Sir James's* application

of these discoveries to the natural processes in volcanoes, &c. is not possible in the limits which must be observed.—*Edinburgh Transactions*, vol. VII.—*Nicholson's Journal*, vol. XIV.

TO ascertain the component parts of *stony substances*, the following processes must be adopted:—1st. Reduction into very fine particles, by rubbing with water in a siliceous mortar. 2nd. Fusion with three times as much PURE POT-ASH, in a silver crucible.—3d. Adding to this solution MURIATIC ACID, sufficient to redissolve the *silex*, *alumine*, and *other earths* which the alkali had sufficiently acted on, and which the first portions of the acid precipitates (that which remains requiring to be treated afresh with the alkali.) 4th. Evaporating the solution almost to dryness, and adding a small portion of muriatic acid to supply what the alumine may have allowed to escape, and then distilled water, when the *silex* will fall to the bottom, and may be separated by filtre, and by exposure to a red heat in a silver crucible. 5th. The remaining earthy substances are then precipitated from the solution, by the addition of CARBONATE OF POT-ASH, then well washed and dried, and acted on by a solution of PURE POT-ASH, which will dissolve the alumine, from which the other earthy substances may be separated by the filtre. 6th. The alkaline solution may then be saturated with an acid, in a sufficient quantity to redissolve the alumine, which it at first precipitates; this may be again precipitated by the carbonated alkali, and then dried and weighed. 7th. The earthy matters which had resisted the action of the caustic alkali are to be treated with the muriatic acid; and magnesia, lime, and oxide of iron separated from the solution by means of pure pot-ash, and the *barytes* is to be precipitated in a sulphate of baryt, by the addition of SULPHURIC ACID to the remaining liquor. 8th. The precipitate contain-

ing the lime, magnesia, and oxide of iron, is to be redissolved in muriatic acid; the solution is to be evaporated to the consistence of a syrup, and the *lime* precipitated in a sulphate by the addition of concentrated SULPHURIC ACID. 9th. The *iron* may then be precipitated by an ALKALINE PRUSSATE, and the *magnesia* by an ALKALI.

To separate ZIRCON from its combination with silex and oxide of iron in the jargon and hyacinth, the stones are powdered and fused with four times their weight of PURE ALKALI. After solution in water, and evaporation to dryness, the mass is to be dissolved in MURIATIC ACID, and again evaporated to a soft paste, when, by the addition of water, the muriate of zircon will be dissolved; and the *silex* precipitated. To free it certainly from the silex, the solution may be evaporated again to dryness, and water again added, by which any remaining portion of silex may be separated, and the *zircon* itself be obtained by precipitation with PURE ALKALI. The separation of the *iron* is most difficult; the best method is to expose the fine powder to the action of MURIATIC ACID for some days, by which the iron may be dissolved.

To separate *glucine* from its combination with silex, alumine, lime, and oxide of iron or of chrome, the *silex* is to be separated by the processes above described, and a precipitate is obtained from the muriated solution of the *alumine*, *glucine*, and *metallic oxide*, by a CARBONATED ALKALI, which precipitate is to be washed and dissolved in sulphuric acid, and a small quantity of SULPHURET OF POT-ASH is to be added to the solution, which is to be evaporated, by which the *alumine* will be obtained in octahedral alum. When, by repeated solutions and evaporations, all the alumine is thus separated, CARBONATE OF AMMONIA may be added to the mother water just beyond saturation; thus the glucine will be dissolved, and any small portion of *alumine* with the *metallic oxide* will be precipitated. The *glucine* is then separated from the ammonia by boiling, and from the carbonic acid by a red heat; whilst, by adding PURE POT-ASH to the precipitate, the alu-

mine is dissolved, and the *oxide of iron* or of *chrome* is left pure.

The oxides of iron, chrome, and of manganese, may be all thus precipitated at once, if contained in the substance exposed to analysis. The precipitate might then be boiled in ACETIC ACID, which would dissolve the chrome and manganese, and leave the *iron*. To separate the *chrome* and *manganese*, CARBONATED ALKALI must be added to precipitate them, and the precipitate must be heated in an open vessel to oxidize the manganese. Then by boiling on them WEAK NITRIC ACID, the chrome will be dissolved and the *manganese* remain.

The presence of *pot-ash* is determined by a proper treatment with the SULPHURIC ACID, which will give a sulphate of pot-ash.

To ascertain the presence of *strontian*, the powdered stone is boiled with three times its weight of CARBONATE OF POT-ASH, MURIATIC ACID is then to be added to the powder, by which muriate of strontian is formed, which may be dissolved in water, evaporated, and then dissolved in alcohol, which will burn with a purple colour; from which the strontian may be separated by a carbonated alkali.

When well concentrated alkaline solutions of *silex* and *alumine* are mixed in equal quantities, a firm, gelatinous, opalescent mass results in a few minutes, which is perfectly insoluble in water, yet soluble in acids, even diluted, and even in distilled vinegar.—*Guyton*.

Mr. *Chevenix* found the SUB-BORATE OF SODA (borax) produce an easy fusion of even the *corundum stone*, so difficult of fusion, diminishing the attraction of aggregation of its particles first, by repeatedly heating the stone and immersing it in cold water.—*Philos. Trans.* 1802.

Mr. *Davy* found the boracic acid a very useful substance in the analysis of stones, containing fixed alkali, the compounds formed by the fusion of the stones with boracic acid being easily decomposed by the mineral acids.—*Philos. Trans.* 1805.

FOR accomplishing the analysis of *MINERAL WATERS*, various re-agents are employed. Amongst these the first we shall notice are the *ACIDS*. The *SULPHURIC* demonstrates the presence of *baryt* by a heavy precipitate, and of *carbonic acid* and of *carbonates*, by an effervescence. The *SULPHUREOUS* shows the *sulphur* in a white precipitate, slow in falling, in waters containing sulphuretted hydrogen. The *NITROUS* does the same, destroying the fœtid odour, by separating the *sulphur*. The *OXYGENIZED MURIATIC* produces *similar effects*; but if in too large a quantity, it acts on the sulphur, and burns it as well as the hydrogen. From the *EARTHS* and *ALKALIES* are taken, for these purposes of analysis, *LIME* in solution (*LIME WATER*) to precipitate *carbonic acid* united with it and forming chalk; thus it decomposes the *carbonate of soda*, and by abstracting the acid throws down *magnesia* in slowly separating flocculæ. To ascertain how much of the carbonic acid was free, and how much was combined with the soda, exactly the same quantity of water is deprived of its free acid by boiling, and then its carbonate examined. *POT-ASH* is used to decompose the *sulphates*, *nitrates*, and *muriates of lime* and of *magnesia*, precipitating both their earths together; it precipitates the *carbonates of lime* and of *magnesia*, by attracting the carbonic acid which held them in solution. When highly concentrated it may disturb the solution of *alkaline salts*, by its attraction of the water; but in this case the turbidness is removed by adding more water. *Lime* and *magnesia*, it is to be remembered, unite with acids, without, but in the state of their *carbonates*, with, effervescence. The *metallic oxides*, precipitated by *pot-ash*, will be known by their peculiar characters. *AMMONIA* decomposes only the *magnesian* and the *aluminous salts*, precipitating only half their quantity, and forming triple salts with the rest. It also, by attracting carbonic acid, precipitates the *carbonates of lime*, of *magnesia*, and of *iron*. It also gives a blue colour, where the cuprous salts, and particularly the sulphate of copper, is present: but,

except in the latter case, it is not equal to lime water. MURIATE OF BARYT detects the *sulphuric acid*, and points out its quantity, by that which the precipitated sulphate contains. The *muriate of lime* precipitates a sulphate of lime from the *alkaline sulphates*. The alkaline carbonates, formerly termed alkalies, cannot be depended on. The NITRATE OF MERCURY and OF SILVER discover the *sulphuric* and *muriatic acids*, by throwing down a sulphate or muriate of silver or mercury. TURNSOLE reddens even with *hydroguretted sulphurets* and *carbonic acid*, losing its colour from the latter by exposure to the air, which takes away the carbonic acid. INFUSION OF VIOLETS is turned green even by the *carbonates of soda, of lime, and of iron*. TURMERIC becomes of a violet colour by *alkaline* and even *earthy* solutions; and the reddish or bluish infusion of MALLOWS is changed green by the same substances. OXALIC ACID precipitates *lime* from any combination, in an indissoluble oxalate. GALLIC ACID detects the presence of *iron* by a reddish hue or a black precipitate. The ACETATE OF LEAD is darkened by *hydroguretted sulphurets*; with *sulphates* it produces a precipitate of white indissoluble grains, and a white heavy powder soluble in vinegar with *muriates*; it also produces a precipitate with the alkaline and earthy carbonates. VINEGAR and ALCOHOL are chiefly employed as solvents of certain principles.

To obtain their gaseous matters, heat must be employed, and the gas received on mercury; or their quantities may be ascertained by their union with reagents; *carbonic acid* with LIME WATER; *sulphuretted hydrogen* with OXIDE OF LEAD and NITROUS ACID; and *atmospheric air* with SULPHATE OF IRON.

To obtain a knowledge of the *salts* and *fixed matters*, a gentle evaporation must be employed. The residue is to be digested for some hours, with five or six times its weight of ALCOHOL, which will take up the muriate of lime and of magnesia, and, rarely, nitrates of the same bases, all these being deliquescent and soluble in alcohol. This solution may be

evaporated, the salts redissolved in water, and the solution divided into three parts: the one will yield, with LIME WATER, its *magnesia*, and the other two may shew the quantity of *lime*, the one by the OXALIC ACID, the other by SULPHURIC ACID; the oxalate yielding the lime pure, by calcination. To ascertain the acid which is engaged with these bases, SULPHURIC ACID may be dropt on a small portion of the residue of the alcohol solution, when the disengaged vapour will show whether it be the *muriatic* or *nitric*. The residue is then to be subjected to eight or nine times its weight of cold water, which will take up the salts next in degree of solubility, *muriate* and *sulphate of soda*, *sulphate of magnesia*, *nitrate of potash*, and *carbonate of soda*. These will be obtained, one after the other, by gentle evaporation, and will be known by their form, taste, &c. BOILING WATER is then to be poured on the residue to obtain *sulphate of lime*, which may be detected by the OXALIC acid which unites with the lime, or a SOLUTION OF BARYT, which attaches itself to the sulphuric acid.

The remainder can only contain the *earthy carbonates*, and perhaps *iron*; the latter being to be suspected if the mass is of a yellow colour. By moistening it, and exposing it to the sun and air for a few days, the *iron* is oxidized, and rendered insoluble in the ACETOUS ACID employed to dissolve the earthy carbonates. This solution being evaporated to dryness, and left in the air, the *acetite of lime* may be separated from the *sulphate of magnesia*, by the deliquescence of the latter. The *iron* and *alumine* may be dissolved by MURIATIC ACID and then separated, when *silica* only can remain, which may be fused with SODA by the blow-pipe.

When it is considered that analysis requires in the operator the most accurate information, it must appear evident that not much aid can be derived from the slight sketch which is here given. To obtain such knowledge as may be employed in regular experimental investigation, the student is earnestly referred to the excellent works of the justly celebrated *Kirwan*;

Mr. *Henry's* excellent Epitome of Chemistry; Mr. *Accum's* Practical Essay on the Analysis of Minerals; and an ingenious paper on the Analysis of Soils, by Mr. *Davy*, in *Nicholson's Journal*, 1805.

VEGETABLE SUBSTANCES.

VEGETABLE LIFE is accompanied by so many chemical changes, that although we cannot regard it as a chemical process merely, we are still able, by examining chemically those changes, to advance considerably in the knowledge of the principles on which it depends.

Water, perhaps, conveys the greater part of the nourishment to plants. It not only becomes impregnated with air, during its descent as rain, but is the vehicle for conveying all it meets with in the earth, which is appropriate to vegetable nutrition. On its reception into the plant, it is reduced to its first principles, hydrogen and oxygen; the *hydrogen* constituting the greater proportion in the composition of resins, oils, and mucilage; whilst the *oxygen* is partly employed in producing sugar, vegetable acids, &c. and partly expelled by transpiration through the pores of the plant.

Oxygen appears to be necessary to the germination of seeds; forming sugar by its union with their mucilage, and thus, perhaps, forming the *stimulus* and proper *pabulum* of the germ. Hence, perhaps, the *oxygenized muriatic acid* promotes the evolution of the germ.

Air is necessary to vegetation, not only as a vehicle for water and caloric, but from its also yielding oxygen, which may either enter directly into the plant itself, and uniting with effete carbonaceous matters be expelled, as carbonic acid gas;

or it may enter the plant, impregnated with carbon; which having deposited, for the formation of the vegetable fibre, &c. it may be thrown off in a state of purity.

Carbonic acid gas appears to be highly necessary to vegetation, and to be formed as well by the process of vegetable as of animal life.

Vegetables deprived of the carbonic acid they form are injured in their growth; but less so in oxygen gas, because they produce in that case more than is destroyed. M. *Saussure* has also observed the formation of carbonic acid gas, by the oxygen of the atmosphere uniting with carbon yielded by germinating seeds. The carbonic acid thus formed appearing to be useful in the process of vegetation.—*Journal der Chimie, Jan. 1800.*

According to *Saussure*, vegetables neither absorb nitrogen nor hydrogen gas, and vegetate in a vacuum the same as if in nitrogen gas. These circumstances, however, vary in different species of plants.

Light is evidently necessary to the health of most vegetables; they appear even to seek it with greediness. If deprived of it, they become sickly, and the leaves they put out have not the usual green colour, but are nearly white, when they are said to be *etiolated*. It appears to act as a stimulus, and is a powerful agent in decomposing the various nutritive principles; and particularly in separating the oxygen gas from the water, carbonic acid gas, and other substances imbibed, whilst their bases become fixed in the plant. *Von Humboldt* finding plants green which had grown in the dark, but in inflammable gases, attributes their etiolation to the retention of too large a portion of oxygen, and supposes that it is remedied by the surrounding *hydrogen*.

The *heat* of vegetables sometimes exceeds that of the atmosphere. This heat is, undoubtedly, produced by the fixation and concretion of those matters which form the food of plants. Mr. *Gough* has discovered that the temperature of caoutchouc is increased in proportion as it is put upon the stretch.

Vegetables appear to be endued with digestive organs, and to possess the power of digesting and assimilating those substances which are taken up by their absorbents, and which are congenial to their nature. They also are capable, not only of throwing off those substances which cannot be assimilated by them, but even such of their principles as may exist in excess. Thus, during the night, the leaves of plants emit carbonic acid gas.

Dr. *Priestly* discovered that the leaves of plants ameliorated the air which had been vitiated by respiration and combustion. This effect was attributed by *Scnebier* to the property which he supposed the leaves possess of decomposing the carbonic acid by appropriating to themselves the carbon and eliminating the oxygen. *Saussure* has ascertained that the decomposition of the carbonic acid by plants, in the light, takes place thus: the whole of its carbon, with half of its oxygen is absorbed, whilst the other portion of its oxygen remains, and is mixed with a variable proportion of nitrogen which is exhaled from the plant. In agreement with this observation plants growing in the open air were found to acquire carbon from the carbonic acid contained in the air. He believes that the leaves inspire oxygen in the dark, and yield by expiration a similar quantity in the light. The oxygen they inspire, he supposes, is changed into carbonic acid, which is decomposed during expiration, leaving the half of its oxygen which assumes an elastic state.

The oxygen found in the vessel in which a plant has vegetated in the light, he supposes to have proceeded from the decomposition of the carbonic acid.

Green fruits and young bark, he supposes, are endued with similar powers; whilst roots, wood, sap, and petals, do not perform inspiration, but yield carbon to the oxygen gas which surrounds them, at the same time producing water.

Berthollet is of opinion that in ordinary vegetation, the water and carbonic acid undergo a simultaneous decomposition, whence proceeds the emission of oxygen gas, which is not to be attributed more to one than to the other: and that thus

vegetable matter is formed, its inflammable nature depending on its containing an excess of hydrogen and carbon, thus deprived of the oxygen with which they had been combined.—*Ann. de Chim.* cah. 150.

Dr. *Woodhouse* has shewn by appropriate experiments that growing plants do not actually emit oxygen gas; but that, whenever they appear to afford oxygen gas, it is by devouring the coal of carbonic acid for food, and leaving its oxygen in the form of pure air.

Plants likewise emit a very considerable quantity of water in the form of vapour.

Vegetable substances yielding, in the last period of their analysis, *carbonic acid* and *water*, manifest that their constituent principles are *hydrogen*, *carbon*, and *oxygen*; being, as it were, a species of oxides with binary radicals, the other principles being partly saturated with oxygen. From the difference of proportion of these three principles proceed the variety of vegetable substances.

It is a curious fact, that the combination of *hydrogen* and *carbon* does not admit of artificial union with *oxygen*, resembling that which exists in a vegetable substance, but directly as the oxygen alone is made to approach to these two principles, they separate, and each unites with a certain portion of the oxygen; and thus *water* and *carbonic acid* are the result of the last part of the analysis of vegetable matter.

SAP is that clear thin fluid which is directly formed by the elaboration of the various substances, which are taken up as *pabula* by plants. It is the general humour of vegetables, as the blood is of animals, and from this are secreted the proper juices of different vegetables.

The saps of different trees appear to differ considerably in their composition; but in general they contain in much *water*, *gum*, *sugar*, *extractive matter*, *tannin*, *gallic acid*, *carbonic acid*, *acetous acid*, and *salts with basis of pot-ash*.

The expressed juices of plants have some analogy with the

sap of trees, but in their chemical properties they more nearly resemble the extractive matter.

MUCILAGE is a transparent, tasteless, inodorous, and viscous matter. It is soluble in *water*, but insoluble in *alcohol*, which precipitates it from water in a pure state, and still soluble in water. It is also coagulable by *acids* and by *metallic salts*, and particularly by the *acetite of lead* and *sulphate of iron*. It exists in most seeds and young plants, in so great a quantity, that they are almost resolvable into it. It also forms the basis of the proper juices of the plants: and sometimes, as in *ruphorbium*, *celandine*, &c. it is combined with matters insoluble in water, which it keeps suspended in the form of an emulsion. It is sometimes found almost entirely alone, as in mallows, linseed, bulbous roots, &c. Sometimes it is united with sugar, and at other times with oil, forming the fat oils. It sometimes constitutes the permanent state of the plant, as in the *conferva*, lichens, champignons, &c.

Mucilage consists chiefly of *carbon* and *hydrogen*, with *some oxygen*, and perhaps a *small portion of nitrogen*. Its products being *water*, *hydro-carbonate*, and *carbonic acid*, but less of the latter than is separated from sugar, shows plainly that it holds less oxygen.

The characters of mucilage are:—1. Insipidity. 2. Solubility in water. 3. Insolubility in alcohol. 4. Coagulation by the action of acids and metallic solutions. 5. The emission of carbonic acid, when exposed to the action of the fire, and the being converted into a coal without exhibiting any flame. It likewise, when diluted with water, readily passes to the acid fermentation; and by distillation yields acetic acid.

Its formation seems almost independent of light.

Lord *Dundonald* has discovered that a gum, resembling gum senegal in its properties, may be extracted from *lichens*. 1801.

GUM is transparent, brittle, tasteless, and inodorous; it exudes from different parts, but, chiefly, from the trunks and

branches of trees. It is generally supposed to be only inspissated mucilage, which, in its chemical properties, it exactly resembles.

Gum appears to consist of *oxygen, hydrogen, carbon, nitrogen, and lime*, with a little *phosphoric acid*, differing from sugar, not only in containing less oxygen, but also by its combination with nitrogen and lime.—*Cruikshank*.

From the experiments of *Vauquelin* it appears that the gums contain—1. A *calcareous salt*, generally *acetate of lime*. 2. Sometimes *malate of lime*, with excess of acid. 3. *Phosphate of lime*. 4. *Iron*, probably united to *phosphoric acid*.—*Ann. de Chim.* tome LIV.

JELLY is discovered in the juice of ripe currants and of other fruits, upon allowing the juice to stand: the property of jelling is lost by long boiling.

FÆCULA of vegetables appears to be a slight alteration of mucilage, it differing from that substance, only in being insoluble in cold water, in which liquid it falls with wonderful quickness. If it be put into hot water, it forms a mucilage, and resumes all its characters. It seems that the fæcula is simply a mucilage, deprived of caloric. To extract the fæcula, the plant must be bruised or ground, and diffused in water; and the fæcula, which is at first suspended in that fluid, falls to the bottom. Thus are obtained *potatoe flour, cassava, sago, &c.* *Paper* is also a fæcula. In obtaining *starch*, the extractive and glutinous parts are destroyed by fermentation, the fæcula or starch precipitating purer and whiter. Nitric acid converts starch into oxalic and malic acids.

Coloured fæcula, as indigo, are employed in the art of dying.

VEGETABLE GLUTEN. This has been called the *vegeto-animal substance*, from its properties resembling those of animal substances. To procure it, a paste is formed with flour and water, which is kneaded and wrought in the hands, under water, till it no longer communicates any colour to that fluid. The substance which then remains in the hand is tenacious,

ductile, and contractile, becoming more and more adhesive as it dries. During the operation the fæcula falls to the bottom of the water, and the extractive matter remains in solution. If a large quantity of water be employed, the gluten does not form; perhaps from the too great separation of its particles.

The glutinous matter emits a very characteristic animal smell. Its taste is insipid; and, on being dried in a gentle heat, it resembles glue, and breaks short like that substance. If it be placed on burning coals, it curls up, and burns like an animal substance. By distillation it affords the carbonate of ammonia, and seems, in several instances, to shew a very decided animal character.

Fresh-made gluten, exposed to the air, readily putrifies, and when it has retained a small quantity of starch, this last passes to the acid fermentation, and retards the putrefaction of the gluten; in this way it passes into a state resembling that of cheese.

Water does not dissolve the vegetable gluten; but if it be boiled with this fluid, it loses its extensibility and its adhesive quality: it also loses its elasticity and glutinous quality by drying. *Alkalies* dissolve it, by the assistance of a boiling heat; and it is precipitated by *acids*, but deprived of its elasticity. It is insoluble in *alcohol*.

The *nitric acid* dissolves it with activity, emitting at first nitrogen gas, as when an animal substance is employed. This is followed by an emission of nitrous gas, and the residue affords, by evaporation, the malic and oxalic acid, yellow oily flocculæ being also formed.

The *sulphuric* and *muriatic acids* likewise dissolve it, and salts with base of ammonia may be obtained from the combinations; acetic acid, and an inflammable gas, in consequence of the separation of hydrogen, being produced.

Dissolved repeatedly in *vegetable acids*, and precipitated by alkalies, it is brought to the state of fæcula; and if vinegar be distilled from it, it is reduced to the state of mucilage.

This gluten becomes soluble in *alcohol*, when it has under-

gone acid fermentation, and thus furnishes a varnish, which may be employed in the arts.—*Darracq*.

It is to this gluten, that wheat owes its property of making a good paste with water, and the facility with which it rises to form *bread*. Thus gluten is sometimes destroyed by the fermentation of flour, by which change it is rendered incapable of rising and forming good bread.

It exists in much less quantity in the flour of other corn, but is supposed to be formed in some other plants, particularly in the *fungi*. It has also been supposed to have been separated during the process of *paper making*. Its principles appear to be carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, and oxygen.

FARINA, or flour, therefore, is composed of three principles, the *amylaceous* principle, or *starch*, or *ſæcula*; the *animal* or *glutinous* principle; and the *saccharine principle*.

EXTRACTIVE MATTER of plants, obtained by evaporation of their juices, varies in colour, taste, &c. in consequence of the admixture of other principles. *Acetic acid*, with the *acetites of pot-ash, lime, and of ammonia*, are constantly found in it.

It is obtained by evaporating the decoctions of different vegetables. This substance is said to be obtained, nearly pure, by the evaporation of an infusion of saffron in water. It is very soluble both in alcohol and water.

It differs from all other vegetable matters by its strong attraction for oxygen, and the indissolubility and brown colour it thereby acquires. Thus alum and oxy-muriatic acid, if added to a solution of any vegetable extract, unite with the extractive matter, and are precipitated of a brownish colour. It is not precipitated by *tan*.

It appears to be an oxide with a triple radical, being a compound of *carbon, hydrogen, and nitrogen*, with a portion of *oxygen not sufficient for its saturation*; and is therefore capable of absorbing much more than it originally holds. It appears to differ only in the proportion of its primitive principles from the *colouring matter*.

SUGAR is a true salt, of a peculiar nature, yielding a sweet taste; it may be extracted from a number of plants, as the maple, birch, carrot, wheat, corn, beet, parsnips, grapes, &c. by digesting in alcohol. This fluid dissolves the sugar, and leaves the extractive matter untouched, which falls to the bottom.

The sugar generally used, proceeds from the sugar-cane, *arundo saccharifera*. The juice of the cane is obtained by expression, and boiled repeatedly with wood-ashes, and lime, to part the acid, which prevents the sugar from coagulating, until it acquires a sirupy consistence. It is then farther concentrated by boiling with alum and lime, and the thinner sirup, or MELASSES, or TREACLE, allowed to separate from the sugar, which in this state is called CLAYED SUGAR. This sugar suffers then a farther refinement, by boiling with lime and with bullock's blood, the albumen of the latter coagulating by heat, involves and separates most of the foreign matters the fluid contains; thus producing its clarification. It is then put into reversed earthen cones, through openings, at the small end of which, the water trickles away, carrying with it also a portion of the colouring matter. It is then called REFINED or LOAF SUGAR. If allowed to crystallize, it will form tetrahedral flattened prisms, the smaller lateral surfaces being sometimes composed of two, joining in an obtuse angle; the summits dihedral, truncated on two sides: it is then called *sugar-candy*. It is easily fused, and when cooled, forms the substance called *barley-sugar*.

Sugar is a non-conductor of electricity. Two pieces of sugar being rubbed together, light is evolved, and the peculiar smell of electricity is yielded. Powdered sugar also very readily emits a phosphoric light, if heated below ignition or fusion: and at a red heat it bursts suddenly into white flames, with blue edges.

It unites with *oils*, is very soluble in *water*, and is dissolved in six times its weight of *alcohol*.

It is decomposable by distillation or combustion. Its pro-

ducts are *water, carburetted hydrogen, carbonic acid, and charcoal*, manifesting it to be, according to Mr. *Cruickshank's* valuable experiments, a *true vegetable oxide*, containing *carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen*.

By fermentation it forms alcohol and acetic acid; but if deprived of its oxygen, it bears a resemblance to gum, and, like pure mucilage, is not susceptible of the vinous fermentation.

It differs from sugar of milk in containing less oxygen, and much more carbon; and from gum, in containing more oxygen, and in not holding any nitrogen, which it is probable gum does.

Sugar is converted into a substance like gum by the action of *sulphurets, hydro-sulphurets, and phosphurets*.—*Thomson's Chemistry*, IV. 214.

Oxalic acid is obtained from it by the *nitric and oxygenized-muriatic acids*. It is also obtained from sugar by the addition of *sulphuric acid*, sulphurous acid gas being thus freely separated, evincing the subtraction of oxygen during the process.

That sugar contains the same principles as mucilage, but more oxygen, is beautifully evinced by an experiment of Mr. *Cruickshank*. Phosphuret of lime being added to a solution of sugar, mucilage is found in the place of the sugar. During the formation and separation of the phosphuretted hydrogen, the oxygen of the sugar quitted it to unite with the phosphorus and form phosphoric acid, the sugar being thus changed into mucilage. Oxygenized muriatic acid being added to mucilage, another proof offers itself; oxalic acid is thus formed, and with it a substance possessing the sweetness of sugar.

Sugar inflames and detonates strongly with the hyper-oxygenized muriate of pot-ash, by percussion.—*Rollo*.

SARCOCOLL is the name which Dr. Thomson gives to a set of vegetable substances, which, he thinks, are of an intermediate nature between sugar and gum; but approaching nearer to sugar than to gum. The species of this genus enumerated by Dr. Thomson is the *common sarcocoll* which exudes from an

African plant, named *penæa sarcocolla*; common liquorice obtained from the roots of the *glycyrrhiza glabra*; and *manna* which exudes from the *fraxinus ornus*, and perhaps other species. It is collected in Sicily and the southern parts of Italy.

ALBUMINOUS matter of vegetables is obtained by filtering the expressed juice of cresses, white cabbage, &c. and placing it in a phial in boiling water, when it deposits in a flocculent form. It is also obtained from the water in which flour has been washed to obtain the vegetable gluten: but it is obtained in the purest state and the largest quantities from the papaw tree, (*carica papaya*) of Peru. The vegetable albuminous matter resembles the white of eggs; it is soluble in cold water, and coagulates with heat or spirit of wine, the coagulum being insoluble. Alkalies dissolve it, particularly *ammonia*. It putrifies without passing through the acid state; and with *nitric acid* it forms nitrogen gas, before it yields the oxalic acid.

A substance exactly resembling *fibrina* as it exists in the blood, has also been detected by Vauquelin in the juice of this tree.—*Ann. de Chim.* XLIII. 267.

OILS are inflammable substances, immiscible with water, and generally of less specific gravity than that fluid. They are obtained by expression, or distillation, from various vegetable substances, and particularly from the seeds of bicotyledinous plants, and are either *fixed* or *volatile*. They are composed of *hydrogen*, *oxygen*, and *carbon*; the VOLATILE containing most *hydrogen*, and the FIXED most *carbon*. They may be decomposed by being passed through ignited tubes; *charcoal*, *carburetted hydrogen*, and *carbonic acid*, being the result.

The oily principle appears to be the same in all oils; but is combined with *mucilage* in FIXED, and with *aroma* in the VOLATILE.

1. *Fixed*, or *fat oils*, are obtained from seeds or kernels, by expression in proper sacks between metallic plates. The separation is aided, generally, by heat, and when heat is not em-

ployed the oil is said to be *cold drawn*. They are insoluble in alcohol or water, and are generally mild. They all congeal at certain low temperatures, and are volatilized at a degree of heat beyond that of boiling water: and, when volatilized, take fire by the contact of an ignited body.

Oil easily combines with oxygen. This combination is either slow or rapid. In the first case, *rancidity* is the consequence, and combustion in the latter. It seems, more strictly speaking, that when the oxygen combines with the mucilage in the oil, it forms RANCID OIL, but that when it unites with the oil itself, DRYING OIL is formed. The rancidity of oils appears to be an effect analogous to the oxidizement of metals; and the proof of its being produced by a change in the mucilage is derived from this circumstance, that if the mucilage be separated from the oil, by strong agitation in water, the oil may be preserved for a long time without any change.

Some of the oils, as *linseed-oil*, *nut-oil*, *poppy-oil*, and *hempseed-oil*, become dry without losing their transparency: which property is promoted by boiling them with a little litharge. These are called *drying oils*. *Oil of almonds*, of *rapeseed*, and of *ben*, are called *fat oils*, from their becoming thick and opaque like tallow.

The oxides of lead, bismuth, and mercury, combine readily with oils, and become the basis of certain PLASTERS and OINTMENTS. But *Deyeux* observes, that plasters made with linseed oil are most soft and pliant. This difference he supposes to arise from the mucilaginous matter in the linseed oil; observing also, that olive oil, boiled with fænugreek or linseed, acquires the properties of linseed oil: it being his opinion, that it is the mucilage which renders certain oils drying.—*Annales de Chim.* 1800.

If oil is burnt without a sufficient access of oxygen, a soot is formed, called *lamp-black*.

The fixed oils unite with *sugar*, also with the *acids*. They may by certain *media* be intimately mingled with water, when they form a milky white fluid called an *emulsion*. With the

sulphuric acid they form a mass soluble in alcohol and water. With the *nitric* they turn black, and such as are drying inflame at the time of combination. Their inflammation is more certainly effected by a mixture of the concentrated nitric and sulphuric acids. The *muriatic* forms a saponaceous mass with them, and the *oxy-muriatic* thickens and whitens them. These masses have been called *acid soaps*.

Linseed oil, by long digesting on the oxides of lead, affords a pellicle of considerable firmness, transparent, wonderful elastic and extensible, and burning like elastic gum. A pound of this oil, spread on a stone, and exposed to the air for six or seven months, acquired almost all the properties of elastic gum.—*Chaptal*.

The *alkalies* also combine with the fixed oils, and form **SOAPS**, by which oils are rendered miscible with water. Soda is chiefly used for this purpose.

The *soaps* generally made in England are: 1. *White soap*, from tallow and a ley of soda. 2. *Mottled soap*, from tallow, kitchen-stuff, and soda. 3. *Yellow hard soap*, with tallow, rosin, and soda. 4. *Soft soap*, from whale or fish oil with pot-ash, the ley of which is not drawn off; and when it is combined, a small quantity of tallow is added, which forms the white spots.

By mixing a solution of soap with a solution of the sulphate of magnesia, lime, alumine, or of the muriate of baryt, an **EARTHY SOAP**, either *magnesian*, *aluminous*, *barytic*, &c. is precipitated.

A similar effect is produced by the addition of metallic solutions; a *metallic soap* being precipitated.

Ammonia forms a saponaceous fluid with oils, but its action is much less feeble than that of the fixed alkalies.

It has been proposed to employ *wool* in place of oil in the making of soap. It has also been attempted to substitute the *muscular part* of animals for oil in the making of soap; but the latter has not succeeded.

The fat oils perfectly dissolve *sulphur*, and form a reddish

balsam, of a disagreeable odour, called BALSAM OF SULPHUR. They also dissolve *phosphorus*, and then become luminous at the surface.

2. *Volatile or essential oils* are contained in all the different parts of plants. When pure, they evaporate, without leaving a stain on paper.

They vary in their colour, consistence, odour, &c. and are obtained chiefly by distillation. They absorb oxygen with greater facility than fixed oils, acquiring colour and consistence, and passing to the state of resin; depositing at the same time needle-formed crystals, which have by some been supposed to be camphor. They are soluble in alcohol.

Water actually dissolves a part of the essential oils, receiving both taste and smell on being distilled from the plant, as appears in the DISTILLED WATERS.

The *nitric*, *sulphuric*, and *oxygenized muriatic* acids, decompose them more readily than they do the fixed oils.

If 2 parts of oil of turpentine, and 1 of strong sulphuric acid, be quickly stirred together with a glass rod, and a little concentrated nitric acid be added, a sudden inflammation takes place. With *alkalies* the ethereal oils form a soap called *essential oily soaps*. They also dissolve *phosphorus* and *sulphur*.

CAMPHOR is a white, concrete, crystalline, and very combustible substance. Though chiefly obtained from the roots of the *laurus camphoratus*, it is said to exist in all odoriferous vegetables. It has a strong smell and taste, is soluble in *alcohol*, in *essential oils*, and in *acids*, without decomposition. With a gentle heat it rises unaltered; if ignited, it burns with a white flame, leaving no residue. It is very slightly soluble in *water*, but communicates its smell to that fluid. *Alkalies* do not unite with it, but *sulphur* does by fusion in a gentle heat, or by the alkaline sulphuret. The mixture of camphor and sulphur is more fusible than either of the substances by themselves. Camphor being inflamed, burns in oxygen gas with a vivid white and blue flame, which is projected from the centre in a beautiful manner.

It is dissolved by the *mineral acids*, from which it may be precipitated by the addition of water.

By the *nitric acid*, the peculiar acid termed *CAMPHORIC ACID* is obtained.

Camphor is capable of crystallization either by sublimation or precipitation; it forming in hexagonal plates. It appears to be a volatile oil, rendered concrete by carbon.

If passed through a heated porcelain tube it is decomposed into *charcoal* and *carburetted hydrogen*. If burnt in oxygen gas, camphoric and carbonic acid is formed, and charcoal deposited.

Romieu and others have observed that small pieces of camphor obtain a rotatory motion, when placed on water, in a glass, the motion ceasing if the water be touched by a conductor of electricity, but continuing if touched by an electric *perese*. It does not turn upon hot water.—*Bergen*.

M. Kind having exposed *oil of turpentine* to the action of *muritic gas* at the moment of its disengagement, obtained a concrete mass resembling camphor, of about half the quantity of oil employed. A similar substance had been obtained nearly in the same manner by *M. Marges* in 1774. *Meyer* speaks of a concretion of a camphoric nature, yielded by a mixture of *oil of turpentine* and *caustic alkali*; and *M. Tromsdorff* is said to have obtained camphor by distilling *essential oils* from *lime*.—*Journal de Pharmacie*.

RESINS appear to be oils rendered concrete by their combination with oxygen. They appear to be volatile oils oxygenized and in part dishydrogenized.—*Fourcroy*.

They are inflammable, and yield much soot, during their combustion; their products being chiefly water. By distillation they yield *carbonic acid*, *carburetted hydrogen* and *charcoal*. They are soluble in *alcohol* and in *oils*, but not in *water*. They are generally less sweet than the balsams, and afford more volatile oil by distillation. They unite by fusion with *sulphur*, but difficultly with *phosphorus*. It has been asserted, and even by *Vauquelin*, that neither the alkalies nor acids have any

action on the resins ; but Mr. *Hatchett* has found them soluble in nitric acid, and both in pure and carbonated soda. Indeed soapmakers have long employed resin in the making of soap ; the alkali holding it in solution with the unctuous matters employed. Among the resins may be placed *mastich, sandarach, &c.*

Mr. *Hatchett* even ascertained that almost every species of resin may, by long digestion, be dissolved in nitric acid, and so changed, that it is not precipitated by water, and on being evaporated it yields a deep yellow viscid substance, equally soluble in alcohol and in water.—*Philos. Trans.* 1805.

It is ascertained by Mr. *Hatchett*, that *acetic acid* dissolves the resins without changing them ; that *sulphuric acid* dissolves them, but continues to act on and to decompose their principles, and that *nitric acid* produces decomposition to a certain degree before solution is effected.

TAR is separated from pine, and Scotch firs, in *tar-furnaces*, and when inspissated becomes BLACK PITCH. The TURPENTINES appear to be resins containing volatile oil.

GUM RESINS appear to be a natural mixture of mucilage and resin. Under this head may be placed *scammony, gum gutta, asafetida, aloes, gum ammoniac, &c.* They flow in a milky form on breaking the plants which contain them. They are partly soluble in water, and partly in alcohol, and render water turbid in which they are boiled.

Mr. *Hatchett* found that they were dissolved readily in alkaline solutions when assisted by heat, and were also acted on by the nitric acid.

They yield by distillation, besides *volatile oils, ammonia* combined with an acid, proving the presence of *nitrogen*, and a considerable portion of *carbonic acid gas* ; and leave a bulky saline coal.

Sulphuric acid renders them a coal, the *nitric* converts them, in part, into oxalic acid, and the weaker acids dissolve them. The *alkalies* have also some power in dissolving them.

Some gum resins are cleared by art of their extractive principle, for the purpose of applying them to various uses. Such is the intention, in the process for making *bird lime*. Resins dissolved in fixed oils form the fat or *oily varnish*; in volatile oils, the *essential varnish*; and in alcohol, the *spirit varnish*.

CAOUTCHOUC, called the *elastic gum*, may also be placed here. It exudes from the *hevea*, the *urccola*, and the *jatropha elastica*. When pure it is white, the dark colour being derived from the fires employed in drying it. It is a non-conductor of electricity. It excites so high a degree of electricity, by rubbing on paper, that sparks may be obtained, and even a phial charged by it. Its elements appear to be *nitrogen*, *hydrogen*, *oxygen*, and *carbon*.

The *nitric ether* dissolves this gum, first softened by boiling in water. If placed in contact with a volatile oil, such as that of turpentine, it swells, softens, and becomes very pasty, and may, in this state, be applied as a varnish. Dr. Thomson found that the alkalies were capable of dissolving this substance.

Many vegetable substances possess a strong bitter taste, which in Dr. Thomson's opinion they owe to the presence of a peculiar substance, which deserves to be distinguished by the name of the BITTER PRINCIPLE.

THE NARCOTIC PRINCIPLE has been separated from opium in white crystals, possessing peculiar chemical properties.—*Dersonc. Ann. de Chim.* XIV. 263.

BALSAMS are substances containing a principle which does not exist in resins, and which, combining with oxygen, forms an acid, the *benzoic acid*; while the oil, saturated also with oxygen, forms the resinous part, which is therefore found united with a concrete acid salt. In this class may be placed *benzoin*, *balsam of Tolu*, &c.

TANNIN, or that substance which acts as a *tanning principle*, rendering the skins of animals imputrescible and inso-

luble in water, and combining with the gelatinous parts of animals, and thereby preventing their decay, is generally found to accompany the gallic acid in nut-galls, and in the bark, ligneous part, &c. of vegetables.

It is readily obtained from a strong cold infusion of *oak bark*, &c. by adding to it a solution of *muriate of tin*, when a precipitate is thrown down containing pure tannin and oxide of tin. This precipitate is then to be diffused in water, and *sulphuretted hydrogen* is to be added, which unites with the tin and leaves the pure tannin free. As some of the tannin may be held in solution by the muriatic acid, *Proust* recommends its precipitation by a careful addition of *alkali*.

Tannin may be obtained by adding lime water to an infusion of tan, and dissolving the precipitate in an acid, as the nitric, which unites with the lime and separates the tannin in a powder.—*Guillot*.

Mr. Davy found that 500 grains of nut-galls contained 130 of tannin, 31 of gallic acid and extract, 12 mucilage and extract, and 12 lime and saline matter.

Various processes have been proposed for separating the tannin; but none yield it, in the opinion of *Dr. Thomson*, in equal purity, with the oldest and simplest, that of infusing coarsely powdered nut-galls in water till it is saturated, and then boiling it to dryness, when a blackish matter remains, which is tannin nearly pure. In this mode, the boiling heat dissipates the gallic acid, and renders a portion of the extract insoluble in water. In mass it is friable, resembling aloes in its fracture; it has a sharp bitter taste, and is soluble in water, but still more so in alcohol.

When cautiously obtained it may be had in a pulverulent form, of a light brown colour, which, when diffused in water, becomes darker. Its solution in water is also of a dark brown; but in alcohol, which will take up a sixth of its weight, its solution is lighter. It combines with *alkalies*, but is precipitated by the alkaline carbonates and by all *acids*. When mixed with *metalliz* solutions a precipitate falls, which contains besides

the metallic oxide, tan, extract, acid of the infusion, and, according to Mr. Davy, of the metallic salt. None however is produced from the sulphate of iron; but from the oxy-sulphate of iron, a deep blue precipitate falls, consisting of the tan, with the oxide.

It combines with the *gelatin* of animal substances, precipitating it from water in an insoluble state, and forming an insoluble *magna*, resembling leather. This immediately takes place if a solution of tannin be added to a solution of glue, or of isinglass, provided the solution is fresh and concentrated. This compound, when dried at 150°, contains gelatine 54, tan 46.

Mr. *Chevenix* found a peculiar principle in *raw coffee*, totally different from all other vegetable principles. But as roasted coffee possesses tannin, and as *Seguin*, *Davy*, &c. suppose that heat develops the tannin principle in many vegetables, Mr. *Chevenix* doubts whether this principle may not be converted into *tannin*, whilst in the vegetable, by heat.—*Nicholson's Journal*, 1802.

The bark of several trees, the poplar, the willow, the chestnut, the hazel, the ash, and many other trees, contains this principle; but the oak bark appears to contain the largest quantity. It abounds in the bark in proportion as it is nearer to the woody fibre. Tannin exists in tea and in red port, but in no substance has it been found so abundant, as in the *terra japonica*, or *extract of catechu*, produced from a species of the *mimosa*, in the East Indies. This substance indeed principally consists of tannin. This was suspected by Sir *Joseph Banks*, from the strong taste resembling tannin, which he thought was yielded by this substance; and by the examination of Mr. *Davy*, it appeared that at least two-thirds of this principle enter into its composition. Mr. *Hermstädt* recommends the *septfoil*, or tormentil (*tormentilla erecta*) and the bistort or snakeweed (*polygonum historta*) as preferable to oak bark.—*Phil. Mag.* vol. xx.

Proust indeed is of opinion, that there exist, in different vegetables, several species of tannin.

Mr. *Hatchett*, to whom the chemical world is already so highly indebted, has lately made a most curious and interesting discovery—that a substance very analogous to tannin, which has hitherto been considered as one of the proximate principles of vegetables, may be produced from carbonaceous substances by certain chemical processes. His first experiments were made on such substances as were almost entirely composed of carbonaceous matters; the experiments succeeding best when the carbon was uncombined with any other substance excepting oxygen. The substances employed were charcoal, mineral coal, jet, asphaltum, the coal of isinglass, and highly carbonized bevy coal. These substances being dissolved in nitric acid, the solution evaporated to dryness, yielded a brown glossy substance, which exhibited a resinous fracture, and was found to possess the same characteristic properties as tannin.

Mr. *Hatchett* also succeeded in the production of this substance by another process. Apprised of the power of sulphuric acid, in producing the slow carbonization of different substances in a humid way, and which he thought was the mode more likely to be employed by nature, than by the action of fire, he thus reduced to a coal, turpentine and resin, and found that, in proportion to the quantity of carbon they originally possessed, and its succeeding oxidizement, was the quantity of tanning matter which was obtained, by their subsequent digestion in nitric acid. Thus were successfully treated various kinds of wood, copal, amber, wax, the gum resins, &c. Nor was the help of nitric acid absolutely necessary to the formation of this substance; since on the coal, yielded by the action of the sulphuric acid, being digested with alcohol, a substance was obtained, which, like tannin, is soluble in water, as well as in alcohol, and precipitates acetite of lead, muriate of tin and gelatine, but produces a very slight effect on oxy-sulphate of iron. Tanning matter being frequently found where peat exists, Mr. *Hatchett* concludes that it is formed in favourable circumstances, during the gradual carbonization of the

vegetable matter, converted into peat. Proceeding on these principles, Mr. *Hatchett* converted skin into leather, by means of deal sawdust, wax candle, and even a piece of the same sort of skin. A considerable difference existed in the natural tannin contained in different substances, in resisting the action of nitric acid; oak bark resisting it much more than galls; but the artificial tanning substance was found unaltered in its properties, after repeated distillations of nitric and muriatic acid from it. Its solutions also appeared to be perfectly imputrescible, and never to become mouldy.

Another variety of the artificial tanning matter was formed by repeated digestion and distillation of several vegetable substances with nitric acid. Thus were successfully employed common resin, stick lac, balsam of Peru, benzoin, balsam of Tolu, dragons' blood, gum ammoniac, asafœtida and liquorice; but none yielded so much of this tanning substance as indigo.

It appears that Mr. *Hatchett* obtained three varieties of artificial tanning substance: 1st. By the action of nitric acid on carbonaceous matter. 2dly. By distilling nitric acid from common resin, dragons' blood, and various other substances; and 3dly, by the digestion of common resin, elemi, camphor, asafœtida, &c. with sulphuric acid, and by subsequent digestion with alcohol.

Referring to the first variety, Mr. *Hatchett* observes that 100 grains of charcoal may be concluded to yield 116 or 117 grains of the dry tanning substance. Carbon, he considers, as the base of this substance, and the predominating essential ingredient: the other component parts being oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen.

As to the formation of the second variety of this substance, Mr. *Hatchett* supposes, that the oxygen of the nitric acid combines with the hydrogen of the original body, and forms water; the carbon being thereby left denuded, and capable of being acted on, by the nitric acid, in a manner similar to that which takes place, when it has been previously converted to a coal.

Of the third variety, he observes, that such substances, as the gums, which yield much oxalic acid by treatment with other acids, do not apparently yield any of this tanning substance. There does not appear to be any positive evidence of its containing nitrogen, like the first and second varieties, and hence perhaps its less powerful action on gelatine and skin.

Mr. *Hatchett* also obtained this variety of the tanning substance from a great number of the resins, balsams, gum resins and gums, by simple digestion in sulphuric acid, washing the residuum and then digesting it in alcohol, which was separated by distillation; the remaining dry substance being infused in cold water, and the dissolved portion subjected to the action of the proper tests. In this manner the tanning substance was obtained from most of the resins and gums already mentioned, and from mastich, tacamahua, copaiba, copal, oil of turpentine, olive oil. Caoutchouc and elastic bitumen were only slightly acted on by sulphuric acid: but elastic bitumen by the long-continued action of nitric acid, not only yielded a portion of tanning matter, but an orange-coloured mass, which being dissolved in alcohol and precipitated by water, was found to be a substance, in some of its properties, resembling the resins, and in others vegetable extractive matter. A similar substance was also thus obtained from Newcastle coal, Cannel coal, and asphaltum.

With reference to the tanning matter existing in substances previously roasted, a set of experiments were made on horse-chesnuts and their peels. From these it appeared that the small portion of tannin which the horse-chesnut peels originally contained, was destroyed by the process of roasting; but the artificial tanning substance was speedily produced from them by the addition of nitric acid, and by subsequent evaporation. It is hence inferred that vegetable bodies, when roasted, yield solutions by digestion in water, which essentially consist of carbon, approaching to the state of coal: not absolutely converted into it, for if so, all solubility in water would cease. A similar combination of carbon and oxygen, predominating over the other elementary principles, appears to be effected also, with

some modifications, when vegetable matter undergoes the putrefactive process. This appeared to be the case, from experiments on walnut peels allowed to become soft and black, the action of the nitric acid on the carbonaceous matter forming the tanning substance.

The natural *tannin* contained in galls is destroyed by nitric acid, and is diminished and ultimately destroyed by roasting; but galls which have been roasted yield the artificial tanning substance freely, by being treated with nitric acid. Oak bark being roasted was deprived of its natural tannin; but on being then digested with nitric acid, the artificial tanning substance was formed. After having the whole of this extracted, it was again slightly roasted, moistened with nitric acid, and, as before, gently heated, dried, and digested with water, when the dissolved portion was found to contain more of the artificial tanning matter: it seeming that these processes might have been repeated, until the whole of the bark had been converted into this substance. Considering that all refuse vegetable matter may be thus converted into a tanning substance, by simple and unexpensive means, there is reason to hope with Mr. *Hatchett*, that the discovery may be productive of some real public advantage. Peat, as well as the trees of the submarine forest in Lincolnshire, appears to have had its *tannin* dissolved and carried away by the water in which it has been immersed; yet the imperfect carbonization of peat renders it capable of being converted into artificial tanning substance, by digestion with nitric acid.

It is extraordinary that the artificial tanning matter, even when prepared from charcoal, should, under some circumstances, emit an odour similar to animal matter; and under others, yield a smell similar to that of oak bark.—*Phil. Trans.* 1804, 1805, 1806.

THE BITTER PRINCIPLE, it appears, was formed along with the above-described substance, during the action of the nitric acid upon indigo. This principle, we know, naturally exists in various vegetable substances.

THE NARCOTIC PRINCIPLE is said to have been ob-

tained in a separate state, in crystals, destitute of taste and smell.

• **VEGETABLE ACIDS** have all a compound basis. Every one have *carbon* and *hydrogen*. The variety in their habitudes and properties proceed from the different proportion of these principles, and of *oxygen*, in each particular acid.

FIRST, Vegetable acids ready formed, and obtained by very simple processes.

CITRIC ACID, or the *acid of lemons*. This is obtained in a concrete state, by saturating the juice of lemons with powdered chalk; with which it forms a difficultly soluble salt, **CITRATE OF LIME**, which is to be washed with water, and then a sufficient quantity, previously ascertained, of well-diluted sulphuric acid, to fully saturate the chalk employed, is to be added, then boiled for some minutes, with ten parts of water, and then filtered. The sulphate of lime remains on the filtre, and the fluid, by evaporation, will yield the **CRYSTALLIZED CITRIC ACID**, which will be obtained in a state of purity, and in fine crystals, by repeated crystallizations. Its crystals are octahedral prisms, truncated on their solid angles.

By exposing the juice of lemons to a freezing cold, the water it contains will be frozen, and the acid remain in a liquid state, highly concentrated. But this process does not destroy the mucilage, nor the extract; the juice will therefore run into fermentation in warm situations.

It seems to be one of the strongest of the vegetable acids, and of course the least decomposable. *Scheele* thought it was not changed by the *nitric acid*; but *Fourcroy* and *Vauquelin* find, by long-continued action it is converted to acetic acid, with a small portion of oxalic. It is also changed into acetic acid by the *sulphuric acid*.

Distilled in a retort it yields *acetic acid*, *carbonic acid gas*, and a small portion of *carburetted hydrogen*, a light coal remaining. Its affinities are in the following order: baryt, lime, pot-ash, soda, strontian, magnesia, ammonia, and alumine.—*Vauquelin*.

It acts on several metallic substances by the aid of water, and forms CITRATES with the *alkalies* and *earths*.

2. The MALIC ACID may be extracted from the juice of many unripe fruits, particularly of apples, by saturating the juice with pot-ash, and adding a solution of acetate of lead; the acetic acid combining with the alkali, and the lead with the malic acid, forming a MALATE OF LEAD, which is precipitated. This precipitate being washed, and diluted sulphuric acid added to it, sulphate of lead is formed, and the malic acid left.

Besides various fruits, many of which yield both it and the citric acid, sugar also yields it, when treated with nitric acid.

Vauquelin has also discovered the malate of lime in the *sedum album*, *acre*, *et telephium*, in many species of *crassula*, in all the cotyledons he examined, in many of the *mesembry-anthema*, and in common parsley. He observes, when the juice of a plant furnishes an abundant precipitate with an oxalate of ammonia, and also a light flocky precipitate, with acetate of lead, which is easily soluble in vinegar, it assuredly holds a malate of lime.—*Ann. de Chim. c.* 104.

The GALLIC ACID is chiefly obtained from nut-galls; it is also yielded by many barks, roots, fruits, &c. To procure it, one pound of powder of nut-galls may be infused in two pints and three-quarters of water for four days, shaking the mixture frequently, and then filtered and left in a vessel covered merely with blotting paper. The liquid will then become covered with a thick pellicle of mouldiness, and a precipitate fall down in proportion as the infusion evaporates. These precipitates being collected, and dissolved in boiling water, form a liquor of a brown yellow colour, which, on evaporation by a gentle heat, deposits the acid in a precipitate like fine sand and crystals of a yellowish grey, it not being possible to obtain it white. It may also be obtained in lamellated crystals by sublimation, if care be taken that heat be very slowly applied.

M. Fiedler adds *alumine* to a strong infusion of nut-galls,

which precipitates with the extractive matter and the tannin, leaving a clear solution of the gallic acid, yielding fine acicular crystals.—*Nicholson's Journal*, vol. I. 236.

Mr. *Davy* obtains it by boiling together carbonate of barytes and infusion of galls, adding diluted sulphuric acid. Sulphate of barytes is deposited in an insoluble powder, and the colourless solution of gallic acid remains. But as it generally is mixed with a small portion of extract, *Deyeux* recommends its sublimation by a gentle heat, into a capsule inverted over that which contains it, by which it may be obtained perfectly pure.

Richter obtains a tincture from the watery extract of galls, the residuum being pure tannin almost. This tincture being distilled to one-eighth, the remaining extract is dissolved in water, and the solution, upon evaporation, yields the acid in pure white crystals.—*Ann. de Chim.* tom. LIII.

It gives an acid astringent taste, effervesces with chalk, and reddens turnsole. Half an ounce of this salt is soluble in an ounce and a half of boiling water, or in twelve ounces of cold water. Boiling spirit of wine dissolves its own weight of this acid; but cold spirit only one-fourth. It is inflammable, it also melts and leaves a coal of difficult incineration. By distillation it gives out an acid phlegm, in which an impure acid exists; and a sublimate, nearly of the smell and taste of acid of benzoin.

It precipitates the several metals in different colours. Gold, *brown*; silver, *brown*; mercury, *orange*; copper, of a *brown*; lead, of a *white*: and *bismuth*, of a *citron yellow*. Nickel, *grey*; antimony, *white*; tellurium, *yellow*; uranium, *chocolate*; titanium, *reddish brown*; chrome, *brown*. But these colours vary with the degree of oxidizement. With the *red oxide of iron* it forms a *black* precipitate; but with the *grey oxide* a *green* precipitate. On the surface of the fluid, from which gold and silver is thus precipitated, a pellicle of the reduced metal is formed. Platina, zinc, tin, cobalt, arsenic, and manganese, are not precipitated by the gallic acid: it appearing that these are the metals most tenacious of the quantity of

oxygen necessary to their saturation, and which seldom stop at any lower degrees of oxidizement; whilst those metals, which are precipitable by this acid, are susceptible of various degrees of oxidizement, are but little retentive of the last portions of oxygen with which they are saturated, and form an union with this acid best, when they are at their *maximum* of oxidizement.

Thus *Proust* observes, that it is only the red oxide of iron (oxidized *ad maximum*) that forms the ink with the galls; but whichever sulphate is employed, when the ink is spread on paper it blackens, from the oxygen it absorbs. The black solution, the basis of ink, resulting from the mixture of infusion of galls and solution of sulphate of iron, is formed of the *gallate* and *tannate of iron*. Iron filings added to ink lessens its blackness by abstracting oxygen from the oxide of iron.

Boil four ounces of logwood near an hour in six quarts, beer measure, of water, supplying the waste during boiling, and afterwards adding water to make up five quarts; to this liquor strained whilst hot, add when cold 20 ounces of galls coarsely bruised, 4 ounces of sulphate of iron calcined to whiteness, 3 ounces of coarse brown sugar, and 6 ounces of gum arabic or senegal. This makes a good black ink; but for ordinary purposes, half the quantity of the two latter ingredients may suffice.

Mr. *Desormeaux* adds to the foregoing half an ounce of acetate of copper, first moistened and pounded into a paste.

Sulphuretted hydrogen gas passed through ink makes its colour disappear, but on being used, the oxygen it absorbs presently blackens it; at first the oxide of the sulphate is oxidated *ad minimum*, and then becomes oxidated *ad maximum*.
—*Ann. de Chim.* c. 103.

Writing in common ink may be effaced by diluted oxymuriatic acid, and may be again restored by dipping the paper in a very weak solution of sulphuret of ammonia, or of the prussiate of pot-ash, to which a few drops of the sulphuric acid have been added. Old writings may be revived by a similar employment of these substances.

To prepare inks which will not be effaced by the oxy-muriatic acid, indigo and the oxide of manganese may be added. 25 grains of copal, dissolved in 100 grains of oil of lavender, to which $2\frac{1}{2}$ or 3 grains of lamp black are added, form an ink, with a basis similar to printers' ink, which is not effaced by acids.

Gallic acid produces no change in solutions of alkaline salts. It occasions a precipitate from barytes and lime waters, and, according to Dr. Thomson, from strontian water. *Glucine*, *yttria*, and *zirconia*, are alone precipitated by it from their acid solutions.

BENZOIC ACID is obtained by boiling 4 parts of benzoin with one of lime, and 30 of water, stirring them together over a gentle fire for half an hour, by which, the acid uniting with the lime, the BENZOATE OF LIME is formed. After settling, the clear liquor is poured off, and the process twice repeated with fresh lime-water. The liquors should be then filtered, and muriatic acid added as long as any precipitate, which is the ACID OF BENZOIN, falls. To have its crystals, which are compressed prisms, it must be dissolved, filtered, and gently evaporated. It may be also obtained by *sublimation*, in the form of *flowers of Benjamin*.

It acts very powerfully on the tongue, reddens the infusion of turnsole, and unites with the earths, alkalies, and metallic oxides, forming BENZOATES. It is soluble in *alcohol* and in *boiling water*.

A similar acid is obtained, from *balsam of Tolu* and *storax*, from the urine of children, and even of adults; and of some quadrupeds which live on hay, as the horse, the camel, and the cow. It is also found in the water of dunghills. The effects produced on it by the *nitric acid* are not thoroughly known.

Mr. Hatchett considers the balsams as peculiar substances, and supposes that the combination of their elementary principles is, with facility, modified by various causes, and especially by a certain increase of temperature; so that a new arrangement of the elementary principles takes place, part being formed into resin, and part into benzoic acid. He obtained this acid when

benzoin, balsam of tolu, and balsam of Peru, were dissolved in sulphuric acid: also when dragons' blood was dissolved in nitric acid. He therefore considers it, as well as the succinic acid, as a product, and not as an educt.

It differs, however, from the other vegetable acids, and retains an essential oil, which gives it smell, volatility, combustibility, and solubility in alcohol.

The two vegetable acids next to be considered, are those which naturally combine with a portion of pot-ash, to a state of demisaturation, and are called *vegetable acidules*. They are two in number, the *oxalic* and the *tartareous*.

TARTARIC ACID is obtained from TARTAR, more properly named the TARTAREOUS ACIDULE, or the ACIDULOUS TARTRITE OF POT-ASH; it being a combination of acid of tartar with a less portion of pot-ash than is required for its saturation.

Tartar is formed on the sides of casks during the insensible fermentation of wine. It may be also obtained from must or unfermented wine, and from several fruits and vegetables. Exposed to heat it yields oil, an acid phlegm, and a prodigious quantity of gas, three-fourths of which is carbonic acid gas, and the remainder carburetted hydrogen; and leaves, in its ashes, a considerable quantity of vegetable alkali.

Ammonia is said also to be yielded by it; but farther enquiries seem necessary to determine whether this substance exists as a principle in the tartar.

So strong is the attraction of the tartaric acid for the portion of pot-ash which it holds, when in the form of an acidule, that it only yields it to the strongest acids, in consequence of undergoing, by their action, an actual decomposition; the muriatic and sulphuric forming with it the acetic acid; and the nitric, the oxalic.

The tendency of the tartaric acid to unite with a certain portion of pot-ash, to form tartar, is so great as to produce a seeming exception from the general laws of affinities. Even such acids, the acetic for instance, as are not so strongly at-

tracted by pot-ash, as is the tartaric, decompose the neutral tartrate of pot-ash, and separate from it, not the tartaric acid, but the acidulous tartrate, the consequence of the tartaric acid retaining this certain quantity of alkali. A similar circumstance is observable also with the following (the oxalic) acid, a sufficient quantity of alkali being left to form the acidule.

Lime, strontian, and barytes, unite with the tartaric acid in a precipitate, and leave the pot-ash of the acidule free; but *alumine* and *magnesia* only unite with the acidule, and form triple salts.

PURIFIED ACIDULOUS TARTRATE OF POT-ASH, or *crystals*, or *cream of tartar*, is obtained by solution of the above, and by subsequent filtration and evaporation. It crystallizes in tetrahedral prisms, cut off slantwise, and requires for its solution 160 parts of cold, and 28 of hot water.

The ACID OF TARTAR may be obtained by dissolving two pounds of crystals of tartar in water, and throwing in *chalk*, or, according to *Fourcroy*, *lime*, by degrees, until the liquid is saturated. A precipitate forms which is a true TARTRATE OF LIME, tasteless, and crackling between the teeth. By adding sulphuric acid, diluted with water to this tartrate, and digesting them together for twelve hours, the tartaric acid is set at liberty, and may be cleared from the sulphate of lime by means of cold water. This acid yields tabular and spear-like crystals, which become black when exposed to the fire, yielding hydrocarbonate, and carbonic acid gas, an acid phlegm, and some oil, and leaving a spongy coal behind. Its radical, therefore, consists of hydrogen and carbon, which, with oxygen, form this acid. One hundred parts contain 70,5 of oxygen, 19 of carbon, and 10,5 of hydrogen: it only requiring the subtraction of 6 parts of carbon, and the addition of as much oxygen, to form the oxalic acid.

This is one of the strongest vegetable acids. It has no action on *platina*, *gold*, or *silver*, and scarcely any sensible action on *copper*, *lead*, *antimony*, and *tin*; but it dissolves

their *oxides*. It acts on *iron* with a considerable degree of effervescence. It dissolves readily in water.

By a neutralization of the acidulous tartrate by a farther addition of pot-ash, the TARTRATE OF POT-ASH, or, as it was improperly called, *soluble tartar*, is formed.

The presence of *tartaric acid*, in any acid liquor, is detected by dropping in solution of *pot-ash*, which uniting with the tartaric acid forms tartar, which precipitates in a gritty powder.

This triple salt contains, according to *Vauquelin*, 0,54 of tartrite of pot-ash, and 0,46 of tartrite of soda.

The TARTRATE OF AMMONIA forms crystals of tetrahedral prisms with obliquely truncated summits.—*Gren.*

Thenard has proved that most of the tartrates can combine with each other, and form triple salts, which have particular properties. Some, in fact, have for their basis two alkalies; others an alkali and an earth; others an alkali and a metal; and others an earth and a metal. It is remarkable, that most of these bases, which are separated by the alkalies from their simple combinations with the tartaric acid, are not separated when in the state of triple salt.—*Ann. de Chim.* XXXVIII. 1801.

The crystals of tartar are rendered more soluble by the addition of *boracic acid*.

OXALIC ACID is procured from SUGAR, and several other substances, by the aid of the nitric acid; but as it is obtained chiefly from the salt of sorrel, of that we will therefore first speak.

OXALIC ACIDULE, or *salt of sorrel*, consisting of oxalic acid and oxalate of pot-ash, is obtained, by evaporation, from the expressed and clarified juice of the *oxalis acetosella*, and of the *rumex acetosa*. It forms small white needle-like crystals, of a penetrating austere taste, and, as the acid unites with other bases, without quitting its own, like the acidulous tartrite of pot-ash, it forms triple salts with the alkalies, earths, and some of the metals.

Dejeux has discovered the pure acid, not in the state of acidule, passing out of the stalks and pods of the grey pea (*cicer arietinum*).

The oxalic acid may be obtained from the oxalic acidule, by saturating it with *pot-ash* or *ammonia*, then pouring a solution of this salt into a solution of nitrate of barytes; the oxalate of barytes thus formed, insoluble in cold water, is then to be well washed, and sulphuric acid added; sulphate of barytes then forms, which precipitates, leaving the oxalic acid in the liquor above it, which may be freed from any sulphuric acid by adding a boiling solution of oxalate of barytes, and may be crystallized by a due evaporation.

It has a penetrating sour taste, it is soluble in twice its weight of cold, and in its own weight of hot water. It contains more oxygen than tartaric acid, and is so strong that it will affect turnsole when diluted with 3600 parts of water, and cannot be made to pass into a higher degree of acidification. Its composition appears to be oxygen, 77; carbon, 13; hydrogen, 11.

It forms OXALATES with the *alkalies*, making, with *pot-ash*, in small quantity, the oxalic acidule, or it may combine with it to saturation. It combines more readily with *metallic oxides*, than with the *metals* themselves. With *arsenic* it forms very fusible volatile crystals; with *cobalt*, a light rose-coloured pulverulent salt; with *nickel*, a greenish yellow salt; with *calx of bismuth*, a salt in powder; with *calx of antimony*, in crystalline grains; with *manganese*, a powder becoming black by heat; with *zinc*, a white pulverulent salt; with *tin*, if the solution be slowly evaporated, it forms *prismatic crystals*; if quickly, a *transparent mass* like horn; with *lead* it forms white, with *iron* greenish, and with *copper* light blue crystals. AN OXALATED SILVER is obtained by adding this acid to the nitrate of silver in solution: it also dissolves the precipitate of *platina*, by soda; but has scarcely any action on the *calx of gold*.

By readily dissolving the *black oxide* and the *gallate of iron*, this acid becomes useful in the removal of the spots of ink,

It combines with *alumine*, *magnesia*, and *barytes*. Its affinity with *lime* is such that it takes it from every other substance, forming an almost indecomposable OXALATE OF LIME. It is therefore employed to discover this earth in combination or solution. The *oxalate of ammonia* is preferable for this purpose, and is particularly useful in separating the phosphorus from the phosphate of lime, precipitating an oxalate of lime, and forming a phosphate of ammonia.

Brugnatelli says, that the oxalic acid cannot be depended on as a re-agent on lime, since he discovered that, in several instances, the presence of lime was ascertained by other known re-agents, when the oxalic acid failed.—*Ann. de Chim.* No. 86.

It is more highly oxygenized than the other vegetable acids, and most of the other vegetable acids are changed to oxalic by a further degree of oxygenizement.

Acidulous tartrite of pot-ash, and *acidulous oxalate of pot-ash*, being heated till no fumes or flame appear, and then wetted with a few drops of water, ammonia is produced: the ammonia may be thus produced, as long as any carbonaceous matter remains, by merely heating it, and then wetting it with a few drops of water. Charcoal mechanically joined to pot-ash does not produce the effect.—*Lampadius*. 1801.

VEGETABLE ACIDS *obtained by the more complex processes.*

SUGAR, MUCILAGES, MILD OILS, FLOUR, and even a great number of *animal substances* afford, when heated with the *nitric acid*, an acid perfectly similar to the acid last described. These substances contain, therefore, the *oxalic radical*, to which oxygen only is wanted to be added, to convert it into oxalic acid; this acid, like other vegetable acids, being probably a compound of *hydrogen*, *carbon*, and *oxygen*. *Berthollet* obtained from *wool* more acid than half the weight of it. Since several vegetable acids, and in particular that of *tartar*, pass to the state of oxalic by distillation with weakened nitric acid, we may conclude these vegetable acids have the same radical, and differ only in the proportion of oxygen.

By concentrated nitric, or sulphuric acid, and stronger heat, both the tartaric and the oxalic are converted into the acetic acid.—*Gren.*

MUCIC ACID is obtained by nitric acid from any mucilaginous substance; and from it having been chiefly procured from the sugar of milk, it has generally been termed *saccho-lactic acid*.

It is sourish to the taste, and reddens litmus. It yields, by destructive distillation, a brown acid salt, smelling like the flowers of Benjamin, or acid of amber. It is easily soluble in spirit, but not in water, and burns in the fire with a flame. It forms MUCATES with the *alkalies* and *earths*; those with the *earths* being almost insoluble, and that with *ammonia* soon loses its base by heat. On the *metals* it acts very feebly, and with their calces it forms salts of very difficult solubility.

This acid is precipitated in the form of a white powder, by gently heating two parts of nitric acid with one of gum. The fluid in which this is held also contains another acid, called, by *Scheele*, the *malic acid*, and by *Fourcroy*, the *oxalous acid*, since it only requires the continued, or the augmented, action of the nitric acid to oxygenize it farther, to render it the oxalic acid; which acid is always formed at the end of the process, if the action of the nitric acid is not interrupted. By fire, and by the action of the muriatic and sulphuric acid, it is converted into the acetic acid.

CAMPHORIC ACID, which is obtained by means of the nitric acid, seems to differ in some respects from the oxalic. It yields crystals resembling the muriate of ammonia, which are very sparingly soluble in water. Its salts are termed *camphorates*. With *pot-ash* it forms crystals in regular hexagons; with *soda*, irregular crystals; with *ammonia*, it forms needle-formed crystals; with *magnesia*, a white pulverulent salt. It dissolves *copper*, *iron*, *bismuth*, *zinc*, *arsenic*, and *cobalt*; the solution of *iron* yielding a yellowish white, insoluble powder. With *manganese* it forms crystals, the figures of which, in some respects, resemble basaltes.

It burns without leaving any residue, forming gaseous compounds. It does not precipitate lime from lime-water; nor does it produce any change in the sulphuric solution of indigo. Its salts exhibit a blue flame with the blow-pipe.—*Bouillon la Grange*.

Doerffurd has proved that this pretended acid is the same with the benzoic acid. Nor is this an educt obtained or separated from the camphor by the process, but a product at that time generated.—*Gren. Principles of Modern Chemistry*.

SUBERIC ACID is obtained, as its name imports, from cork. During the action of nitric acid on cork, carbonic acid and carburetted hydrogen gas are separated, a greasy or resinous matter being at the same time also separated, which floats on the liquid. The suberic acid is bitter, pungently acid, and deliquescent, becoming brown by exposure to solar light. Its elective attractions are first to *baryt*, then to *pot-ash*, *soda*, *lime*, *ammonia*, *magnesia*, and *alumine*. It differs from the gallic acid in its yellow precipitation; from the malic in its solid form; and from the acid of tartar, in not burning or smoking on hot coals. It gives a green hue to a solution of the nitrate of copper, without occasioning any precipitate; and has a weaker attraction for lime than the oxalic acid. Unlike the camphoric, it turns the sulphuric solution of indigo green.—*Bouillon la Grange*.

PRUSSIC ACID has been found in bitter almonds, the kernels of apricots, peaches, &c.

Mr. *Klaproth* examining a saline substance found on the back of the white mulberry (*morus alba*) in the botanic garden at Palermo, discovered that it contained a new acid: this acid, in taste, strongly resembles the succinic acid; it suffers no change by exposure to the air, dissolves easily in water and alcohol, and does not precipitate any of the metallic solutions. This acid he names the MORONILIC ACID, and its saline combinations, *moronilates*.—*Journal de Scherer*, Cah. 55.

FERMENTATION OF VEGETABLE SUBSTANCES is accompanied by a decomposition, in the various parts of vegetables,

when the action of water is favoured by the combined aid of air and heat.

The first agent of fermentation appears to be oxygen gas, which is afforded either by the atmosphere, or by the decomposition of the water; oxygen gas being absorbed, and caloric separated during the process.

Fermentation appears to be the natural process for reducing vegetable substances to a simpler state of combination; thus carbonic acid, a binary compound, is one of its results.

The SACCHARINE FERMENTATION is considered by *Fourcroy* as the first chemical change which a vegetable undergoes; the conversion of the insipid matter of seeds into a saccharine substance, on the imbibing of moisture, being an immediate effect of germination. It is by this change that different seeds are converted to *malt*, by the process called *malting*, which is thus performed. Barley, which is generally chosen for this purpose, is softened by soaking in water, and then piled up until the grain has germinated two-thirds of its length; the farther germination is then stopped by drying in a kiln, when it is called *kiln-malt*; or in airy lofts, when it is called *air dried malt*. It will now be found that the insipid matter of the seed has become a real saccharine substance. It is this fermentation which also gives the sweetness to fruits, which they gain by keeping.

By the experiments of *Fourcroy* and *Varquelin*, barley contains—1st. a fat oil, weighing 100th part; 2dly. sugar, about 700th; 3dly. starch; 4thly. an animal matter, partly soluble in the acetic acid, and partly consisting of glutinous flakes; 5thly. phosphates of lime and magnesia; 6thly. silex and iron; and 7thly. acetic acid, which, though not formed in all barleys, is often sufficient to deserve notice.—*Annales du Mus. Hist. Nat.* vol. VII.

VINOUS FERMENTATION cannot take place unless saccharine matter is present, with which water must be conjoined. But water and sugar, alone, in a state of purity, do not pass into this fermentation, but require the presence of some other matter, perhaps to divide the saccharine matter.

This fermentation is employed for making *wine, cider, beer, perry, &c.* Thus the *juice of grapes*, at about 70° F. soon becomes turbid, and agitated through its whole mass, separating carbonic acid gas, and a frothy substance called *must*. This process ceasing, the liquor becomes clear and bright, and obtains a vinous odour and taste, with certain intoxicating powers; the *lees of the wine* settling to the bottom. Even after this an *imperceptible fermentation* goes on, which occasions the difference between *new* and *old* WINE.—During this fermentation *tartar* is deposited on the sides of the vessels. If the fermentation be impeded, whilst at its height, by the exclusion of air, as in bottling, the wine on the first opportunity lets the imprisoned gas, formed after its seclusion from the air, escape rapidly, as in the sparkling *champaigne wines, cider, perry, &c.*

An *acid* exists in all wines, which is the *malic acid*, and which by acetification, is converted into acetic acid. Alcohol, the product of the decomposition of sugar, is more or less abundant in all wines.

Flour is likewise disposed to fermentation, especially if the grain be first *malted*.

BEER is made from malt by infusing ground malt in boiling water in a *mash-tub*, it being then called *mash*, and the infusion drained off is called *sweet-wort*. To give it a pleasant flavour, it is then boiled with *hops*: then the decoction is speedily cooled to prevent the acescent fermentation, and removed to the *fermenting vat*, where, by the addition of a little recent yeast, fermentation is soon excited. Then, lastly, when fermentation has thus continued a proper time, it is preserved from the air in casks or bottles, and is then called *casked or bottled* BEER. When it derives a colour from the malt having been *high dried in the kiln*, it is called BROWN BEER; and when the malt has been but slightly heated, or dried in the air, it is then called PALE BEER.

These fermented liquors yield, by distillation, an ardent and inflammable spirit, possessing an aromatic and resi-

nous smell, a penetrating and hot taste, and an inebriating quality.

Such is RHENISH BRANDY, distilled from *wine- lees*; FRENCH BRANDY, from the *husks* and *stalks of grapes*; RUM, from the juice of the *sugar-cane*; MELASSES SPIRITS, from the *refuse of sugar*: and MALT SPIRITS, from *grain*. Even *animal milk*, from the sugar it contains, is capable of the vinous fermentation, and of affording a spirit: such is the KOUMISS, made from mare's milk, by the Tartars.

ALCOHOL, or SPIRIT OF WINE, is the produce of a redistillation or *rectification* of these spirits; it may also be obtained by the addition of pure fixed alkalies, which, attracting the water which the spirit contains, become dissolved in it: the alcohol swimming above, and containing a small portion of the alkali, from which it may be freed by rectification.

When purest, its Sp. gr. is 820. It is composed, like the carburetted hydrogen, of hydrogen, carbon, and oxygen; but the two latter principles in a larger quantity than in those gases: it being decomposed into heavy carburetted hydrogen, carbonic acid, water, and charcoal, by being passed through a tube heated red. It assumes a gaseous form at 176°. By combustion it is resolved into water and carbonic acid gas.

Alcohol is employed for lamps, in preference to oil, owing to its not clogging the wick so much, by the deposition of charcoal. But where heat is required as well as light, another mode is to be adopted. In the ordinary lamp, a portion of the heat is lost in raising into a state of gas that part of the alcohol which is next to be consumed. To compensate for this loss, the following plan is proposed:—Instead of a wick, a small opening is to be left at the top of the vessel for the passage of the gas, which is to be liberated by the application of the lighted wick of another lamp at the bottom of the vessel: the gas inflaming at its exit from the small opening, immediately on the approach of any flaming body. If a number of very minute orifices be used, the flame will be formed in as many beautiful jets, making a pleasing firework.

So ardent is the heat of the flame which is thus obtained, that Prof. *Pictet* has applied it ingeniously to the formation of a most powerful and useful blow-pipe. For this purpose the gas is made to pass out in an horizontal direction through the flame of another lamp, properly disposed before it; thus constantly and regularly impelling a flame so ardent that glass and most of the metals yield to it immediately.

Alcohol dissolves *sugar*, but in less quantity than water, and as it coagulates mucilaginous matters, it serves to clear the saccharine matter from mucilaginous particles. It dissolves the *resins*, *the alkalies*, *acids*, *many saline substances*, *essential oils*, and *soaps*, but does not dissolve *fat oils*, *animal fat*, *sulphur*, or *Prussian blue*.

Alcohol also dissolves a small portion of *phosphorus*, and yields the smell of phosphuretted hydrogen. A little of this spirit being dropt on water, in the dark, a beautiful undulating flame manifests itself.

The flame of alcohol becomes differently coloured by the solution of certain saline substances in it. With *nitrate of strontian*, it is *purple*; with *boracic acid* or *cupreous salts*, *green*; with muriate of lime, *red*; and with *nitre* and *oxy-muriate of mercury*, *yellow*.

The mixture of a portion of water and of alcohol has been observed to fill a less space, than would be filled by the sum of their several volumes.

Although alcohol is a product of the vinous fermentation of saccharine matter, it does not exist, perhaps, completely formed in wine. *Lavoisier* having found 100 parts of sugar to contain 0,64 of oxygen, 0,28 of carbon, and 0,08 of hydrogen, he subjected it to the vinous fermentation, and then found that its products, alcohol, carbonic acid, and acetous acid, contained the precise quantity, nearly of the principles he had found existing in the sugar. The change of fermentation he supposes to consist in a new combination of the original constituent principles, by which two new substances are formed, one of which is oxygenized at the expence of the other, and becomes car-

bonic acid, whilst that which has been deprived of its portion of oxygen becomes alcohol.

Sage obtained 1 ounce, 1 drachm, and 24 grains of concrete oxalic acid, from 16 ounces of spirits of wine.—1800.

Cadet obtained crystals of oxalic acid from a mixture of alcohol and sulphuric acid, intended to form sulphuric ether.—1801.

ETHER, or *naphtha*, the lightest of all fluids, is formed by distilling *sulphuric, nitric, or muriatic* acids, and alcohol.

Ether is a clear liquid, exceedingly volatile, evaporating rapidly at the common temperature of the atmosphere, and boiling if poured on the surface of warm water. The cold produced by its rapid evaporation is so great as to freeze water. It has a peculiar taste and smell; is sparingly soluble in water, and burns freely with a bright flame, even on the approach of an inflamed body; leaving a trace of charcoal, and producing carbonic acid. Sp. gr. 0,7581. Air is rendered inflammable, by holding ether in solution, and is not changed by passing through water.

Ether may be obtained with the *phosphoric, fluoric, oxalic, and acetic* acids. That obtained from the nitric is the lightest, and that from the acetic the heaviest. The sulphuric is the most free from colour. The colour seems to depend on the presence of some matters, not essential to the existence of ether, which, perhaps, in every process, is the same fluid. This opinion is however doubted by Dr. *Thomson*.

Equal parts of alcohol and sulphuric acid being allowed to stand together for 30 hours, *Cadet* observes, that crystals of oxalic acid often form in it. But the same mixture being exposed to heat in a proper apparatus, ether is formed at 78°. After this, water, acetic acid, and the fluid called the sweet oil of wine, which is heavier and less volatile than ether, comes over: this is accompanied by an inflammable gas smelling like ether, and which actually forms an oil on being mixed with oxygenized muriatic acid; and is therefore called the *olefiant*,

or the *carburetted oily hydrogen gas*. When this ceases, water, sulphurous acid, and carbonic acid gas come over, leaving sulphuric acid thickened by charcoal in the retort.

In consequence of the alcohol being thus obliged to undergo the influence of so high a temperature, a decomposition takes place, in the same manner as when it is exposed to the red heat of a porcelain tube: the heat at which it in general rises in vapour, not being sufficient to effect a separation of its principles.

Alcohol alone boils at 176° ; but is so fixed by the sulphuric acid, that it does not boil until it has attained 207° . The constituent principles are volatilised according to their affinity for caloric, and carry with them a small portion of the more fixed elements; so that whilst the acid is strongly attached to the alcohol and to the water, the ether combines with caloric, and is volatilised. When the greatest part of the alcohol has been thus changed into ether, the attraction of the acid for the remainder of the alcohol is increased with the increase of heat, and the principles of the acid are separated; so that, on the one hand, its oxygen uniting with the hydrogen of the alcohol, forms water: whilst, on the other, ether, volatilising with it, a large portion of carbon forms the sweet oil of wine, which may be considered as ether loaded with carbon.

If *nitric acid* be employed, ether may be obtained without any other heat than that evolved during the process. Ether is the first product, then an inflammable gas composed of heavy carburetted hydrogen and nitrous gas, and lastly pure nitrous gas. If the process is not performed with considerable care, the evolution will be so rapid as to occasion considerable inconvenience.

Brugnatelli recommends the following process for obtaining nitric ether without employing heat:—One part of sugar and 3 of alcohol are to be put in a tubulated retort, to which are to be added by the tube of the retort 3 parts of well-concentrated nitric acid: and from this an ether will pass over,

which will not redden the vegetable blues. Fire being used to the remaining portion separates the oxalic acid.—*Bibliothèque Italienne*.

Ether is obtained by the *muriatic acid*, only when it is in its oxygenized state, particularly when applied in its nascent state to the alcohol, as when the oxymuriate of tin is distilled with alcohol.

The *muriatic ether* has an aluminous taste, and whilst burning yields an odour like the acid of sulphur. This proceeds most probably from the presence of some extraneous matters.

Messrs. *Bondt, Dieman, Van Troostwyk*, and *Lawrenberg* discovered that by the distillation a mixture of 4 parts of sulphuric acid with 1 of alcohol; or by causing the vapours of alcohol and ether to pass through a tube of clay ignited, or through the component parts (alumine and silex) of such a tube, a gas is obtained, which they called the *carbonated oily hydrogenous gas*, which, on being mixed with oxygenized muriatic acid gas, manifested the extraordinary property of forming an oil. But if the distillation be made through a glass tube, or if this gas be made to pass through a glass tube, the property of forming oil is lost, carbon being deposited.—*Ann. de Chim.* XXI.

Two parts of *muriate of soda*, one of *oxide of manganese*, three of *alcohol*, and one of *sulphuric acid*, being distilled with a gentle heat, a dulcified oxy-muriatic acid first rises, and at last a little oily fluid of a pleasant odour and aromatic taste, which sinks in water, comes over. This has been called *oil of salt*; perhaps it resembles the *oil of wine* in its mode of production.—*Gren.*

This olefination of ether, *Van Mons* observes, is an effect of the oxygenizing action of the acid, continued after the ether is formed; similar to the action exercised by the air of the atmosphere on natural oils. Agreeable to this opinion, when the excess of oxygenized gas was considerable, he has seen the ethereous oil converted into a real white grease, opaque,

and of the consistence of half-melted tallow. These effects depend on withdrawing a portion of hydrogen; so that ether is oil, *plus* a certain portion of hydrogen; oil is grease, *plus* a certain proportion of hydrogen.

He therefore recommends the following process, as fitter to remove every difficulty in this preparation:—Put 1,00 of any weight of the muriate of soda, perfectly dry, into the retort of *Wolfe's* apparatus improved by *Lavoisier*, and distribute in the receiver and bottles, of which only two should be employed, the same weight of good alcohol. The joinings being luted, and the tube of safety fixed, 0,50 of concentrated sulphuric acid is to be poured on the salt, and after proceeding in the cold for five or six hours, fire is to be gradually applied. Thus a muriatic alcohol is obtained, which is to be poured into the retort, from which the salt has been removed, and 0,20 of the oxide of manganese been put in: a certain quantity of a solution of caustic pot-ash being put in the bottles, which enchains the oxygenated acid, which is in excess at the formation of the ether, and prevents the action which olefies this liquid.

Ether doubles the bulk of any gaseous body, with which it is mixed over mercury. Oxygen gas thus expanded burns on the application of flame, with great rapidity: but if to this expanded gas 3 parts of pure oxygen gas be added, a very loud explosion takes place on its being kindled: the products being water and $2\frac{1}{2}$ parts of carbonic acid. One part of ethereal vapour requires 6,8 of oxygen gas to consume it entirely. Mr. *Cruikshank* concludes from the products, that the proportion of carbon to hydrogen, which in alcohol is about 4 to 1, is in ether 5 to 1.

Like alcohol it may be decomposed by being passed through a tube heated red; a great quantity of carburetted hydrogen being produced.

If pure it forms a transparent solution with a small portion of phosphorus; but if sophisticated with alcohol the solution is milky.

A dram or half a dram of ether being thrown into 3 or 4 pints of oxymuriatic acid gas, and the mouth of the vessel covered with a piece of paper, a white vapour will in a few seconds be seen to move circularly in the vessel, and soon afterwards a loud explosion with flame will take place; and the bottle will be found to contain carbonic acid, much charcoal also being deposited.—*Nicholson's Journal*.

Like alcohol, its flame may be used for the blow-pipe, and for pleasing illuminations.

By simply mixing the sulphuric and muriatic ethers, instantaneous evaporation takes place, and the absorption of caloric is so rapid as, it is said, immediately to congeal quicksilver.

Hoffman's anodyne liquor is a solution of ether in alcohol, and is made by uniting two ounces of spirit of wine with two ounces of ether and twelve drops of sweet oil of wine.

ACETOUS FERMENTATION appears to depend, as has been just remarked, on the mucilaginous principle. Vegetables or their juices containing this principle, being exposed to the air, become heated, and the liquid parts turbid; a lively smell is emitted, and much air is absorbed. After some time, a considerable quantity of lees settle, leaving above them a clear acid liquor.

If wine be allowed to continue too long fermenting, or if exposed to too great a heat, it runs into the acetous fermentation, and forms *wine vinegar*. Beer, in the same manner, produces *common vinegar*, or *alegar*.

The *growing sour of milk* is a true acetous fermentation, and both the *oxalic* and *tartaric* acids may, without addition, be changed to the acetic acid, by fermentation.

VINEGAR formed during the acetous fermentation, is of a yellowish brown colour, pleasantly acid, and becomes aeriform by heat. Sp. gr. from 1,0135 to 1,0251. It is decomposable by heat, showing that it is composed of oxygen, hydrogen, carbon, and probably nitrogen. It has no action on *hydrogen*, *phosphorus*, *carbon*, or *sulphur*. *Scheele* has remarked,

that by being suffered to boil for a few moments it will keep, without alteration, for a considerable time.

ACETIC ACID is procured by combining distilled vinegar with some of the metallic oxides, and exposing them to distillation, when the higher acid is obtained. Or half its weight of *sulphuric acid* may be mixed with *acetite of soda* and distilled. A few drops of sulphuric acid added to a phial of the acetite of pot-ash, makes a strong smelling bottle, by the evolution of the acetic acid.

Acetic acid is very acrid and volatile, emitting, when heated, very inflammable vapour. It combines with *alkalies*, *earths*, and *metallic oxides*, and forms salts termed ACETATES. It will also form ether with alcohol.

Mr. Hatchett has shewn that it acts powerfully on *resin*, *gluten*, &c. so that it may become a valuable agent in the analysis of vegetable bodies. He even considers the acetic acid as the true acid solvent of *resinous substances*: it dissolving them speedily, without altering their properties, so that they are precipitable, pure, and unaltered.—*Phil. Trans.* 1804 and 1806.

Gren, *Adet*, *Darracq*, and *Proust* have shewn that there exists no difference between the constituent parts of acetic and acetous acids, except the latter containing mucilaginous or extractive matter, and more water. There is therefore only one acid of vinegar, which being at its maximum of oxygenizement ought to be called *acetic acid*, and its salts *acetates*. The term *acetous* is therefore inadmissible.

Fourcroy and *Vauquelin* observe, that the greater part of the products of vegetable life, and among those of animal life, the animal jelly, cheesy matter, and *urée*, the peculiar matter of urine, are susceptible of acetification.

This formation of acetic acid may take place, according to *Fourcroy*, entirely independent of fermentation: gums, mucilages, tartrites, and woods being acetified merely by the action of fire. Acetification indeed appears to depend on four dif-

ferent circumstances. 1st. The decomposing action of fire by distillation, by which the constituent parts of the substance are so combined as to form the acetous acid; water and carbonic acid gas being also formed at the same time with charcoal, which is precipitated. 2dly. The action of strong mineral acids on vegetable matters. Thus the *sulphuric acid*, by its strong affinity for water, attracts a part of the oxygen and hydrogen under that form, whilst part of the carbon is precipitated, and darkens the mixture, and another portion of these principles of the vegetable combine afresh, and form the acetic acid, which is separable by distillation. The *nitric*, *muriatic*, and *oxygenized muriatic acid* also produces acetous acid, by their action on vegetable substances, and on alcohol. Acetification appears to be the last step of vegetable acidification; since if the decomposing action of the mineral acids be employed to the acetous acid, it destroys its acid nature, and reduces it to carbonic acid and water, as is the case with every vegetable decomposition pushed to its *maximum*. 3dly. The acetous fermentation, in which there is neither precipitation of charcoal, nor disengagement of carbonic acid. In this process the oxygen of the atmosphere is absorbed, and the pre-existence of a vinous state is supposed. 4thly. A species of fermentation not requiring the presence of wine, and has some connexion, perhaps, with the putrid decomposition. It takes place in many vegetable substances, and in some animal fluids, particularly in urine.—*Ann. de Chim.* Cah. 104.

The acetification of wine has been generally attributed to the absorption of oxygen, whence its acidity has been supposed to proceed. But *Saussure* is of opinion that oxygen is, in this case, no otherways absorbed, than as it unites with the carbon and forms carbonic acid; the acidity he supposes rather to result from an excess of the oxygen, which has become predominant from the application of a part of the hydrogen to the formation of water.—*Annales de Chimie.* Cah. 150.

The process by which **BREAD** is formed, and by which the

colouring matter of vegetables is evolved, seems to be the commencement of a spontaneous decomposition, which, if not checked in its commencement, would terminate in the putrefaction and total dissolution of the vegetable matters acted on.

In the making of *bread*, the flour kneaded into *dough* with water passes into a state of fermentation; having acquired this state, it is called *leaven*, and if added to more dough it hastens its fermentation. If baked before sourness is discoverable good bread is formed. Yeast is used to promote the rising of dough.

Cit. Chautran has obtained an *acid* from the MILDEW of corn. This acid differs from phosphoric acid, forming an insoluble salt with lime and ammonia, and crystallized salt with pot-ash. The mildew itself, he thinks, is of an animal nature. —*Soc. Philom.* 1800.

ALKALIES exist in plants, combined with oils, acids, &c. and sometimes very slightly engaged. They are generally obtained by destroying all the other principles of the plant by fire. The alkali, in general, obtained from vegetables, is *pot-ash*. Marine plants yield *soda*. Plants also are found to contain *ammonia*. Such are onions, mustard-seed, tobacco, the *fungi*, &c. Plants also yield neutral salts formed by the combination of the acids with the alkalies.

Whilst considering the alkalies thus discovered in plants, we are however not to omit to reckon on the considerable effects attributable to the combinations which ensue, in consequence of combustion. The atmospheric air, during this process, will unite with some of the vegetable principles, and produce certain results: and perhaps the nitrogen may, by its union with certain principles, form alkalies, or at least augment or acuate those which existed in the plant.

The alkali thus obtained contains carbonic acid; which, as

is the case with the boracic acid, in borax, is chemically, not merely mechanically, super-saturated with its alkaline basis.—*Crell's Journal*, 1800.

Vauquelin observes, that the pot-ash is found in the sap of trees, in the state of *acetate*.

The COLOURING PRINCIPLE is found in vegetables in four states of combination:—

1. With the extractive principle, as in logwood, cochineal, &c.
2. —————resinous principle.
3. —————fæcula, as archil, indigo, &c.
4. —————gummy principle.

The ART OF DYEING, consists in transferring the colouring principle of one body to another, so that it shall be durably fixed; and depends on the exertion of particular affinities between the colouring matters and the substances to which they are applied.

Colours are all formed from the solar light; the various tinges of colours resulting from the absorption of some of the rays of light, and the reflection of others. By the art of dyeing, a substance possessing the property of reflecting particular coloured rays, is transferred to the surface of another body.

The *pigments* or colouring matters employed in dyeing are, according to Dr. *Bancroft*, either *substantive*, such as are taken up by stuffs not previously prepared; or *adjective*, which are not absorbed by the stuff unless it has been macerated in some substance called a *mordant*, or, more properly, a *base*, which, either by imparting oxygen or otherways, alters its substance, or by an intermediate affinity, becomes a bond of union between the colouring matter and the stuff; or, acting on the colouring principle, gives to it the desired tint, or, by coagulating it, renders it fixed, since being no longer soluble in water, it is not removable by washing.

The MORDANTS chiefly employed are the *sulphate of alumine*, or the *acetate of alumine*, made by the addition of alum to a solution of acetate of lead, when by a double decomposition, sulphate of lead is formed and precipitated, and the acetate of alumine is also formed and remains in solution. The *nitro-muriate*, the *acetate*, and the *tartrate of tin*; the *red acetate*, and the *red sulphate of iron*. The colour may be considered as a simple property of the triple compound; the dye, the cloth, and the mordant.

When the colouring principle is held in a substance of the nature of extracts, water dissolves the whole of it, as in log-wood, madder, &c. Into an infusion of this colouring substance the stuff to be dyed is therefore plunged, being first, if necessary, steeped in its mordant.

Haussman has discovered, that the brightness of colour from maddering is secured by correcting any acid in the water or madder, by adding chalk to the water.

Some resinous colouring matters are only soluble in spirit of wine, and are therefore only used in the smaller articles, such as ribbons, &c. Other colouring matters are combined with *facula*, which water alone does not dissolve, such are *archill*, *indigo*, &c. The colouring matters of this class are, however, all soluble in alkali, or lime; these substances are therefore used to dissolve them in water, that they may be precipitated upon stuffs; this may be done by the addition of an acid. Acids may be used instead of alkalies, in fixing some of these colours upon stuffs; thus may indigo be dissolved in the acid of vitriol, instead of in lime. Some colouring principles are fixed by a *resin*; but which, by the assistance of *extractive matter*, may be suspended by water. Stuffs being boiled in this solution, the resinous part applies itself and adheres, so as not to be liable to be again carried off by water. The chief substances of this kind are *sumach*, *santal*, *the husks of walnuts*, &c. The colouring matter of some vegetables are only extracted by *oils*; such is the *alkanet root*.

The simple colours of the dyes are four; blue, red, yellow, and black.

BLUE is obtained from indigo, which is a fæcula obtained from the Indigo plant, *Indigofera tinctora*, by steeping it in water and allowing its fermentation, the coloured fæcula falling in a blue flocculent sediment. WOAD (*isalis tinctoria*) affords a similar fæcula. The leaves are bruised, and formed into roundish lumps, in which form they are sold by the name of *woad*. The leaves in this state undergo a slight fermentation, by which the colouring matter is in a great measure set free.

In indigo, besides carbon and hydrogen, with some nitrogen and oxygen, there is, according to *Berthollet*, 1-30th part of iron.

Brugnatelli obtained, by distilling the nitric acid from indigo, a peculiar resin, of a deep yellow colour, and of half the quantity of indigo employed.—*Ann. de Chim.* lxxxvii.

Indigo combines with the substances usually dyed with it, without the aid of a mordant. It is employed either in its deoxygenized state with lime, when it gives a green colour, which changes blue by attracting oxygen from the atmosphere, or in an oxygenized state with sulphuric acid, when it yields a blue at once.

RED is yielded by *cochineal*, *archil*, *madder*, and *Brazil wood*. These require the intervention of mordants, which precipitate their solutions upon cloths; those generally used are sulphate of alumine and nitro-muriate of tin. The red colouring matter of *carthamus* is dissolved by the aid of carbonate of pot-ash; and its tints are heightened by acids.

YELLOW dyes are given by infusions of *weld*, *fustic*, and *quercitron bark*, and fixed by alumine. NANKIN YELLOW is obtained by a solution of the *red sulphate of iron*, which is combined with the cloth by carbonate of pot-ash.

BLACK is produced by the tannogallate of iron combining with the cloths, at the moment of its formation during the de-

composition of the red sulphate of iron by a decoction of gall-nuts. The colour is much deepened by the addition of log-wood.

The juice of aloes produces a lively violet, highly proper for works in miniature, and which may serve, either cold or warm, for dyeing silk, from the lightest to the darkest shade.—*Fabroni. Ann. de Chim.* xxv.

Turnsole has been discovered to be made by finely powdered *lichen*, *archil*, or even the greater moss of the oaks, first mixed with an alkali, and kept moist with human urine; it becoming red and then blue, when it is mixed with one-third of pot-ash, by remaining with which it acquires a dark blue colour. It is then made into cakes, by a mixture with chalk, to increase the profit.—*Journal de Commerce.*

SAP COLOURS are either inspissated juices of plants or extracts from them.

LAKE COLOURS are formed by precipitating alumine with the colouring matter, by adding fixed alkalies to a decoction of the plant, or its parts, in alum and water.

By combining the fundamental colours, on the stuffs, rarely in the bath, the various compound colours are formed.

The stuff, preparatory to the application of the colouring matter, must be cleared of all glutinous matter which belongs to it in its natural state; it must also be bleached, and impregnated, when that is necessary, with the mordant.

The removal of the glutinous matter from the fibres of the stuff, which would prevent the reception of the colour, is accomplished by washing in a solution of soap, of alkali, and particularly of soda.

The operation of BLEACHING, or whitening, which will much contribute to the brilliancy of the subsequent colour, depends on the action of oxygen, which combines with the colouring principle which stains the cloth, and destroys it. The most common mode is that of boiling the pieces in an alkaline lixivium, and exposing them afterwards to the air, to render

the whiteness more perfect. But the oxygenized muriatic acid produces the effect with so much facility, that all former processes must yield to it.

The oxygenized muriate of pot-ash is also employed for this purpose. Mr. *Higgins* recommends alternate immersions in a solution of this salt, and in a solution of the sulphuret of lime.

The piece being prepared so far by these processes, it is then impregnated with the mordant or principle which is to receive the colour, and render it incapable of extraction. The stuff thus impregnated, is then passed through the colouring liquid, and by the decomposition or change of principles between the mordant and the principle which holds the colour in solution, the colour is precipitated on the base of the mordant, and adheres to it.

Some vegetable substances are likewise disposed to take some colours by being animalised. For this purpose, cow's dung and bullock's blood are used in dyeing cotton.

CALICO PRINTING is effected by impressing the mordant in the desired forms on the cloth, which is afterwards subjected to the colouring matters; these becoming fixed where the mordants have acted, and being easily washed out from the other parts.

Guyton supposes the red colour of fruits to be owing to the re-action of their own acid on the colouring matter: and the tin, in restoring the colour of violets, attracts from it the acid which had turned it red: lead, bismuth, zinc, antimony, and particularly iron, doing the same. The metallic oxides are not equally powerful; but the oxide of tungstein, he thinks, is superior to all others, in forming cakes for painters.—*La Decade Philos.* 1798.

POLLEN, or the fecundating powder of the stamina of vegetables, is generally of a resinous nature, soluble in alkalies and alcohol. Like resin it is inflammable. The *aura* round certain vegetables may, it is said, at the time of fecundation, be set on fire.

WAX appears to exist in the very texture of some parts of various vegetables; a matter analogous to wax covers and polishes the surface of some leaves, as those of the laurel. Other trees form a fatty matter around their fruits, or on the surface of their leaves. It is obtained from vegetables or honey, and deposited by the bees in their hives.

It appears that wax and the pollen have for their basis, a *fat oil*, which passes to the state of resin by its combination with oxygen. If the *nitric* or *muratic acid* be digested on fixed oils for several months, it passes to a state resembling wax.

Wax, by repeated distillations, affords an oil possessing all the properties of volatile oils. It is reduced into water and carbonic acid by combustion.

Alkalies dissolve wax, and render it soluble in water. It is this saponaceous solution which forms the *punic wax*, which may be used as the basis of several colours, and may be made into an excellent paste for washing the hands. It is likewise used with a brush, as a varnish, on several bodies; but it would be highly advantageous if it could be deprived of its solvent, which constantly acts, and is the cause why it cannot be applied to several uses, in which otherwise it might be found advantageous.

Ammonia likewise dissolves it; and as this solvent is evaporable, it ought to be preferred when it is proposed to use the wax as a varnish.—*Chaptal*.

HONEY, or the nectar of flowers, is contained chiefly in the nectaria of flowers, from which it is collected by bees. It appears to be a solution of sugar in mucilage; but resembles more the sugar of figs than common sugar.

PROPOLIS is a substance, most probably, collected by bees from vegetables, and employed by them in forming the structure of their hives. 100 parts contain 57 of a resinous matter, 14 wax, 14 impurities, 15 acid and loss.

The LIGNEOUS part of the vegetable forms the vegetable fibre; and not only constitutes the basis of the vegetable, but also the husks of seeds, lanuginous coverings, &c. It is the

most insoluble and unchangeable of all vegetable substances; even the concurrence of air and water alters it very difficultly, and it is said so absolutely to resist every kind of fermentation, as to be almost indestructible, but by insects. It contains the greatest quantity of carbon of any vegetable substance.

Wood boiled long in water, until deprived of taste and colour, is reduced to a light fibrous substance, which may be called the ligneous principle. This substance yields by heat, water, acetous acid impregnated with empyreumatic oil, oil in a concrete state, carbonic acid, hydro-carbonate gas, and a portion of ammonia combined with the acid, proving that it holds nitrogen, and, according to the observations of *Fourcroy*, it contains 100 parts of its weight. The coal which remains constantly retains the form of the wood, and yields pot-ash, sulphate of pot-ash and of lime, and phosphate of lime. With nitric acid it yields nitrogen gas, and malic, and oxalic acid, and the latter in a greater quantity than most other vegetable substances.

AROMA, the odorant principle in vegetables, which from its fineness, invisibility, &c. has been said to be of the nature of gas, perhaps should only be considered as the odour of the volatile oil.

CHARCOAL is obtained from wood by the process termed *charring*, which is performed by burning it, whilst the air is excluded as far as possible, and yet to allow the combustion to proceed. It is a solid, black, friable and infusible substance, still exhibiting the fibrous structure of the vegetable from which it has been produced.

Its habitudes with other substances have been described when speaking of *carbon*, and its combinations.

Charcoal possesses the property of clarifying various turbid fluids, which, according to Mr. *Lowitz*, it appears to do by chemically combining with, and thereby separating the discolouring particles.—*Crell's Journal*, 1800.

Besides those already mentioned, various other principles have been found in the vegetable kingdom. Thus in *garden*

beans, starch, an animal matter, phosphates of lime, magnesia, pot-ash, iron, and free pot-ash are found.—*Ann. du Mus. d'Hist. Nat.* vol. VII.

Sulphur, in substance, is said to be found in the dried scum which rises from the herb *patience*, whilst boiling in water. *Phosphorus* has been found by *Margraaf* in seeds of mustard, by distillation. *Iron*, *manganese*, and, according to *Becher* and *Kuuckell*, *gold*, have been found in the ashes of plants; and, it is said, that particles of *native iron* have been found in strawberries. *Lime*, *alumine*, *magnesia*, and *silica*, are also found in plants. *Flint* has been found within the joints of the bamboo.

Bonnet cane, and all cane of this kind, when briskly rubbed together, produce sparks of white light; and when violently struck together, sparks, nearly as vivid as those from a gun-lock, are perceived, and a strong smell at the same time produced. Similar effects follow when the cane is sharply struck by steel or any siliceous stone. These phenomena appear to proceed from the epidermis of the cane containing silex; 22 grains of epidermis yielding about 9 grains of silex. From 240 grains of the internal part of the cane, about 2 grains, apparently silex, were obtained. Other canes yielded much less silex; but it was found in the English reeds and grasses, in wheat, oats, barley, &c. Possessing also carbonate of pot-ash with the silex, they yield glass by the blow-pipe, a straw being thus converted into a fine pellucid globule of glass.—*Mr. H. Davy. Nicholson's Journal, May, 1799.*

The epidermis of the *equisetum hyemale*, or Dutch rush, appears to be almost wholly composed of silex. *Mr. Notcutt* obtained a globule of glass from it by the blow-pipe.—*Phil. Jour.*

Vegetables being exposed to the joint action of heat and air, the oxygen combines with the inflammable principles of the plant, and combustion takes place with the production of smoke, and the disengagement of heat and light.

Tauquelin found that 100 parts of oat grain left 3,1591 re-

siduum, which was composed of 60,7 silica, 39,3 phosphate of lime: and that the residuum of the whole of the *arena sativa*, stalk and seed together, consisted of 55 silica, 15 phosphate of lime, 20 pot-ash, 5 carbonate of lime.

The SMOKE of burning vegetables is a mixture of water, oil, volatile salts, and all the gaseous products which result from the combination of caloric and hydrogen, with oxygen and the several principles of the vegetable: and hence carbonic acid and carburetted hydrogen gases are also formed, and the empyreumatic acids. With the smoke arises SOOT, partly composed of the carbon of substances imperfectly burned, having escaped the action of the oxygen. Hence the soot may be again burned; and hence it is, that as in the lamps of Argand, and in violent furnaces, where the combustion is more perfect, there is no perceptible smoke.

SOOT, by analysis, yields an oil, a resin soluble in alcohol, an acid formed by the decomposition of mucilage, also volatile salts, such as carbonate of ammonia and other neutral salts. The fixed principles remaining after the combustion, form the *ashes*, containing salts, earths, and metals already treated of. By this process are obtained the *fixed alkalies* already spoken of. *Sulphate of pot-ash* is also sometimes found in these ashes. The sulphuric acid, here, in the opinion of *Gren*, is derived from the sulphur, which he considers as one of the constituent parts of wood, combining with oxygen, during combustion.

The PUTRID FERMENTATION takes place when vegetables are heaped together, and softened with the humidity with which they are impregnated, and by their own effused juices. Their colours change, the mass becomes of a dark brown, swells, becomes heated, and is reduced to a magma. Their constituent principles enter into new combinations; the *hydrogen* unites with the *oxygen*, and is volatilized in *water*, or is separated in a gaseous form, carrying with it a portion of carbon; a third part of this principle unites with *nitrogen*, in those plants which contain it; and a fourth portion remains in the putrid mass, supplying it with colour and smell. The *carbon* is partly united

With *hydrogen*, and partly with *oxygen*, forming with the latter *carbonic acid*, whilst another portion is left in the magma. The *oxygen* is employed in forming the combinations already mentioned with the other two principles. The whole is at last resolved into a brown mass, which for the most part forms vegetable mould, being a mixture of all the primitive earths, and of the metals which are found in vegetables as well as the oil, salts, &c. This process of vegetable decomposition may be considered as the great agent and means, by which nature returns to the earth those principles of which it had been deprived for the support of vegetable life.

It is by this fermentation, carried only to a certain length, that the fibrous texture of *hemp* and other vegetables are separated, for the purpose of forming *thread*, *linen*, &c.

If this decomposition be accomplished in a close place, a foul *musty* smell is perceived from the separation of the *hydrogen*.

When, as in marshes, a portion of animal matter is at the same time decomposed, *ignes fatui*, and such luminous appearances as accompany the disengagement of *hydrogen* and of *phosphorus*, make their appearance.

PEAT, or QUICK MOSS, appears to be vegetable matter which has undergone a particular change: during the process a black carbonaceous matter, called *peat earth*, separates, and this combining with oxygen, an acid is generated resembling the suberic acid. The peat in this state appears to be what Lord *Dundonald* calls oxygenated peat.—*Jameson's Mineralogy*.

AGRICULTURE cannot but be improved by an attention to the daily discoveries in chemistry, these have taught us the food of plants, and the art of correcting the vices of a soil, so as to render it most fit for vegetation. The substances by which this is accomplished are termed MANURES, and which are, of course, varied, according to the nature of the soil on which they are employed.

For *clayey soils* the best manure is marl; that which is most calcareous is, with limestone-gravel, most useful. Marl and dung is still more advantageous. Where these cannot be had,

coarse sand, lime, coals, ashes, chips of wood, burned clay, brick dust, gravel, or even pebbles are useful, for all these improve the texture, and some of them supply carbon.

For *chalky soils* the best manure is clayey or sandy loam, they wanting the argillaceous and sandy ingredients. For *sandy soils* the best manure is calcareous marl, and next to this clayey marl, and then clay mixed with lime, or calcareous or clayey loams.

For *gravelly loams*, marls, whether argillaceous or calcareous, are proper; and if the gravel be calcareous, clay may be employed. For *ferruginous loam or till, and vitriolic soils*, the calcareous ingredient is required to neutralise the acid.

Boggy soils generally are helped with limestone-gravel, or lime mixed with coarse sand or gravel, especially when of a clayey nature; but if more sandy, lime or calcareous marl will answer well; in general they should first be burned, to liberate the carbonaceous principle.

Heathy soils should, for the same reason, be burned, and limestone-gravel should be added when the soil is clayey, and lime when it is gravelly.

By *paring* and *burning* the old sickly roots are destroyed, and coal is formed, by which the carbonaceous principle is restored, which has been exhausted by too many crops. But it is to be recollected, that by this process much useful vegetable matter is dissipated in the atmosphere.

Gypsum from its accelerating putrefaction is a most excellent manure, especially for clayey lands, and such as are dry and naturally suit clover. It should be strewed on the surface in February, when it converts the old grass into coal, and nourishes the young growth.

Carbonate of lime promotes vegetation, being soluble in water, and may therefore be absorbed. *Red oxide of iron* also is beneficial by contributing a portion of oxygen.

Besides the manures already mentioned, *charcoal* itself has been successfully used, the charcoal being slowly converted by the action of water into carbonic acid and carburetted hydro-

gen gas. *Soapboilers' waste* is also sometimes employed as a stimulating manure.

Lime has been found to be very serviceable as a manure, but Mr. *Tennant* discovered, that lime procured from *magnesian* limestone was injurious to vegetation.

The fertilizing powers of *dung* proceed from its resolution into *soil* or animal earth, and from its yielding carbon and hydrogen. Dr. *Ingenhouz* recommends as manures those substances yielding most carbon, which, taken up by the oxygen and caloric of the atmosphere, would form carbonic acid gas, the food of plants. Instead of *fallowing*, he therefore recommends impregnating the earth with sulphuric acid, as this, with the calcareous earth, would form gypsum, and with the magnesia, Epsom salt, from both which would carbonic acid gas be developed.

In situations where but little rain falls, the soil should be retentive of moisture, and should therefore contain much clay; but in wet situations, sandy and siliceous soils are preferable.

The oxygenized muriatic acid, mixed in the proportion of half a cubic inch of acid and three cubic inches of water, made into a paste with the black oxide of manganese, and seeds, produced the germination of seeds, which no efforts before could cause to vegetate. The application of oxygen, in a mode somewhat similar, to the roots of plants, appears also to promote vegetation.—*Humboldt. Journal de Physique, 1798.*

Von Humboldt, who, we observed, when speaking of the earths in general, attributes to them the power of absorbing oxygen from the air, especially when aided by heat and moisture, observes that the same property is possessed by every sort of CLAYS, and FRESH MOULD.

Saussure, junior, having made numerous experiments, denies that oxygen is absorbed by *pure* earth, either silica, lime, or alumine. In this he is confirmed by the experiments of *Berthollet*, and others. He asserts, however, that it is absorbed by mould formed of decomposed and decomposing organic substances.—*Ann. de Chim. 1800.*

This mould he considers as formed of all those elements of the vegetable which have not been expended in the formation of water and of carbonic acid. It is found to contain a greater proportion of carbon than belong to the plants from which it proceeds: this superabundance of carbon depending on the consumption of the oxygen and hydrogen, in the formation of water.—*Ann. de Chim.* Cah. 150.

From this property, which the mould possesses, of absorbing oxygen, results much of the advantage proceeding from TILLAGE, since by frequently changing the surface of the earth, the process must necessarily be accelerated. The tilled earth thus absorbing oxygen from the air, leaves the air at the surface in possession of more than its common proportion of nitrogen.—Hence, on the Alps the atmospheric air contains more oxygen than that of the warmer plains, the snow preventing the contact of the air with the earth, and of course this absorption of oxygen.

The agriculturist will derive the greatest advantage from the careful study of a paper by Mr. *Davy*, on the Analysis of Soils, as connected with their improvement, in *Nicholson's Journal*. October, 1805. ♦

BITUMINOUS SUBSTANCES.

NAPHTHA is a transparent white, or yellowish white substance, exceedingly light, and fluid as water. It feels greasy, has a penetrating odour, and burns with a light flame, leaving scarcely any residuum.

It is insoluble in *spirits of wine*, and passes over intirely in distillation; it is thickened, but not inflamed by *nitric acid*.

PETROL, or PETROLEUM, is a brown semi-transparent sub-

stance; being naphtha, thickened, and altered in colour and other respects by the air.

MINERAL TAR is petrol further altered by the air, having become of the colour and consistency of tar.

ASPHALTUM, or MINERAL PITCH, is produced by a still further exsiccation. There are three varieties described of this substance, depending chiefly on the degree of solidity they possess. 1. *Cohæsive*, MINERAL PITCH. 2. *Semcompact*, MALTHA. 3. *Compact*, ASPHALT.—*Kirwan*.

JET is a substance of a full black, harder, and less brittle than asphalt; and, according to *Weidenman*, is a species of coal; but in the opinion of *Fourcroy*, it is indurated asphalt.

CANNEL-COAL appears to be next to jet, in gradation of purity, of the compound mineral bituminous substances.

MINERAL TALLOW is rarely met with, and imperfectly known. It much resembles tallow.

MINERAL CAOUTCHOUC is a substance much resembling, in its elastic properties, the substance from which it takes its name.

The varieties which exist in the bitumens can hardly be conceived by any one, who has not seen those which have been collected by Mr. *Mawe*, and described by that gentleman in his *Mineralogy of Derbyshire*.

Mr. *Hatchett* observes, that we can only infer that animal substances have contributed to the formation of bitumen from the vestiges, and exuvia of animals, which so commonly accompany bituminous substances; but no doubt can be entertained in respect to vegetables; for it appears that bitumen is formed from them by long maceration, and by other processes at present unknown to us.

The elementary principles of bitumen are, carbon and hydrogen, sometimes nitrogen, and probably some oxygen, which, by its action on the other principles, tends to form the concrete bitumens; and also produces that portion of acid obtained by chemical operations. These same principles, carbon and hydro-

gen, constitute the vegetable oils and resins; and the same with some nitrogen, from the oils and grease of animals.

The quantity of carbon contained in these substances is ascertained by repeated projections on melted nitrate of pot-ash, until no farther inflammation is produced; and then calculating from the result, 12,709 parts of carbon being required to alcalise 100 parts of nitric. The proportion of bitumen may be learnt by distillation.—*Kirwan*.

Organized bodies, buried and subjected to the action of mineral bodies, under certain favourable circumstances, may form, Mr. *Hatchett* thinks, with some small change, perhaps, in the respective proportions of their principles, a new combination which we call bitumen.—*Mr. Hatchett, Nicholson's Journal*.

Humboldt relates, that he converted the *phallus esculentus* into a substance resembling tallow, by means of the sulphuric acid, and also made soap of it.—*Ann. de Chim.* t. XXII.

Mr. *Jameson* asks, may not the mineral tallow of peat-mosses be a species of fungus, altered by some natural operation similar to the one just mentioned?—*Mineralogy of Shetland Isles*.

PIT-COAL, according to Mons. *Gensanne* and others, is an earth or stone, chiefly of the argillaceous genus, penetrated or impregnated with petrol, or asphalt. It has also been supposed to have been formed by vegetables growing in the sea, and by vast forests which have been buried by subsequent revolutions. M. *Arduino* supposes it to be of marine formation, deriving its existence from the fat and unctuousness of the numerous tribes of animals that inhabit the ocean.

Lord *Dundonald* thinks fossil coal is a substance formed of the remains of antediluvian vegetables, animal juices, and mineral substances.—*Treatise on Agriculture and Chemistry*, 1795.

As pit-coal affords ammonia by dry distillation, instead of its being an earth penetrated by asphaltum, there seems reason to suppose it of an origin rather more animal than vegetable. Its

composition appears to be carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, oxygen, alumine, and iron, in a variety of proportions, forming a bitumen of a peculiar kind.—*Gren's Principles*.

Mr. *Kirwan* objects to the above opinions. He supposes the carbonic substance and petrol, to have entered into the composition of various stones, of which many mountains have been composed: having been derived from the primordial chaotic fluid. He also thinks that coal-mines, or strata of coal, as well as the mountains or hills in which they are found, owe their origin to the disintegration and decomposition of primeval mountains, which contained, most probably, a far larger proportion of carbon and petrol, than those of the same denomination now contain, since the disintegration took place at so early a period.—*Geological Essays*, 1799.

Mr. *Kirwan* remarks that coals are not soluble in acids.—*Mineralogy*, vol. II.

Mr. *Jameson*, however, observes, that they are all rendered completely soluble in water, by means of the nitrous acid, the carbonaceous basis appearing to be converted into an oxide.—*Mineralogy of Shetland Isles*.

Proust has ascertained that the following are the proportions of charcoal, or oxide of carbon, in certain sorts of wood, and in pit-coal:—

Green oak, from 100 parts gives	20
Wild ash	17
Willow	17
White ash	17
Pine	20
Heart of oak.....	19
Black ash	25
Guaiacum wood	24
Pit-coal	70 to 80

Some sorts of pit-coal, which burn without either flame or smoke, shew no vestiges of hydrogen. Good pit-coal affords as small a proportion of ashes as the dried woods.

Besides the known products, pit-coal is thought by *Proust*

to yield *succinic acid*. Thirty pounds of pit-coal yielded him a drachm of salt, the smell of which indicated the presence of that acid.—1800.

Proust, discovering that a coal containing no pyrites, and burning to white ashes, manifested the smell of sulphur in passing from the state of incandescence to incineration, concluded that it contained a peculiar carburet of sulphur, which is decomposed by combustion only, since no sulphur is yielded by it on distillation.

As phosphorus becomes much less combustible when combined with coal, as well as difficult to separate, in the same manner, he thinks, sulphur, combining with carbon, forms this carbure in animal charcoal. Wool and other animal matters contain sulphur, but none appears on distillation, it therefore passes, he thinks, in this peculiar form, into the carbonaceous residue.—*Journal de Physique*, 1800.

Coal, Mr. *Hatchett* remarks, meaning the coal of any substance, animal, vegetable, or mineral, is apparently nothing more than carbon oxidized in a certain degree, and may be formed by the humid, as well as by the dry way.—*Phil. Trans.* 1806.

Wood, Mr. *Hatchett* found, was converted into a coal by sulphuric acid: and by its mode of burning, and by its ashes yielding no alkali, it resembled those mineral coals which are devoid of bitumen.—BITUMEN he supposes to be a modification of the resinous and oily parts of vegetables produced by some process of nature operating slowly on immense masses. PIT-COAL he supposes to have been formed in the humid way, principally from vegetable bodies, and most probably by the agency of sulphuric acid.—*Phil. Trans.* 1806.

Coal, by dry distillation, yields the carbonate of ammonia, and an empyreumatic oil in the form of *tar*, which is called *COAL TAR*. If this be performed in a proper oven, the coal being piled in the manner of wood for charring, it also becomes charred and forms *COKE*, which burning without smell, flame, or smoke, is employed in preference to coal itself in

several processes. Like charcoal it emits much carbonic acid gas.

AMBER is a bitumen, generally of a yellow or brown colour. It is found either under the surface of the ground, among the clay, sand, and iron bog ore, when it is called *fossil amber*, or is thrown on the shore by the waters of the sea, and is then called *mineral amber*. It is tasteless, but when rubbed it yields a faint odour, and manifests electric powers. It is not soluble in water, and but lightly in spirits of wine, except by the addition of alkalies, when the solution is termed *tincture of amber*. It is soluble in expressed oils, and also in oil of turpentine, when it forms the *amber varnish*.

By distillation it yields an acid phlegm; a light, dark-coloured oil, which, from repeated distillations from water or clay, becomes limpid, and is then called *rectified oil of amber*; and a concrete *acid salt*, the *salt of amber*, or *succinic acid*.

The SUCCINIC ACID may also be obtained pure and white, by distilling diluted *nitric acid* with half the quantity of salt of amber, the nitrous gas coming over, and leaving the succinic acid in beautiful white, three-sided columnar crystals, whose points are truncated.—*Hermstaedt*.

SUCCINATES are formed by the union of the succinic acid with the alkalies and earths.

By mixing ten or twelve grains of soap, four ounces of alcohol, and one drachm of oil of amber, with a proper quantity of caustic solution of ammonia, a compound of a milky colour is formed, called EAU DE LUCE.

MELLILITHUS, or *honey-stone*, is found among the strata of *braunkohle*, in Saxony. It is formed in crystals, of a honey yellow colour, which are soft, brittle, and reducible to a greyish powder.

The primitive form of its crystals, according to *Haüy*, is the rectangular octahedron; they are frequently blunt octahedra, the terminating faces being curvilinear; and sometimes they are dodecahedra approaching to the rhomboid. He also remarks that it has a double refraction, unlike amber, and that

its crystals, when insulated, easily acquire a strong electricity.

It was supposed by some to be a gypsum impregnated with petroleum; and by *Born* it was thought to be a kind of amber.

It appears to be a salt with a base of alumine and a peculiar vegetable acid, blended with a small proportion of lime and bitumen. It proceeds like amber from the subterraneous decomposition of trees.

This acid, which Mr. *Klaproth* calls the MELLILITHIC ACID, he thinks is not a simple mineral acid, but appears from its properties to be a peculiar modification of those elements which constitute vegetable acids, and is consequently a specific vegetable acid. It enters into combination with several mineral oxides, and its affinity to them is greater than that of acetic acid, though less so than that of mineral acids. It is not very soluble in water, is not converted to oxalic by the nitric acid. It is speedily decomposed by heat, yielding abundance of smoke. It resembles the oxalic in some of its properties, but differs much from it in others. *Lampadius* supposed that he had detected *bitumen* in the honey-stone. Mr. *Klaproth's* analysis gives—46 mellilithic acid, 16 alumine, 38 water.

UMBER appears to be a vegetable residue, and consists of oxide of iron and manganese, both at their maximum, with argil, sand, &c.—*Proust*.

Gren asserts, that bitumens must necessarily have had their origin from the decomposition of animal bodies.

OF ANIMAL SUBSTANCES.

THE compound constituents (*materiaux immediats*—*Fourcroy*) of animal bodies, consist of but a small number of simple principles; their various natures chiefly resulting from the

different proportion in which these are combined. These principles appear to be *oxygen, nitrogen, carbon, hydrogen, phosphorus, and sulphur.*

GELATIN, or *animal jelly*, is a mucous, semiductile, and transparent substance, contained particularly in the tendons, cartilages, membranes, ligaments, and in the skin of animals. It is obtained merely by boiling any of the foregoing substances in water: it has in general no smell, is insipid to the taste, and is very soluble in water, but not in alcohol. Its solution concretes into a gelatinous mass on cooling, and this even when the solid gelatine does not exceed 1-100th part of the solution.—*Bostock.*

By distillation this jelly yields an insipid and inodorous phlegm, with earburétted hydrogen and carbonic acid gas. By a stronger heat it swells, becomes black, and emits a strong odour, with white acrid fumes: an empyreumatic oil, and a little carbonate of ammonia; a spongy coal remaining, which contains muriate of soda and phosphate of lime. During the putrefaction of gelatin, ammonia, hydrogen, and carbonic acid gas, are emitted, and water is formed, shewing that its principles are nitrogen, hydrogen, carbon, and oxygen.

It is dissolved by acids, but more readily by alkalies; and, with nitric acid, nitrogen gas is disengaged. It seems to differ from the vegetable jelly, chiefly in the lymph it contains, which is evidently much more animalized than the other constituent parts of the jelly. If concentrated to such a degree as to give it the form of a cake, its disposition to putrefaction is stopped; on this principle dry or *portable soups* are formed. By a similar concentration of the jelly, made from the parings of leather, the skins of animals, with the ears of oxen, calves, sheep, &c. are the strongest *glues* made. With the clippings of gloves and of parchment is made *size*, used by plasterers, &c. *Gilders' size* is made by boiling eel-skin with a small quantity of lime in water, to which some whites of eggs are added: that which is employed to fortify *paper*, and repair its defects, is made of wheat flour diffused in boiling water. From the

mucilaginous parts, chiefly the air bladders of a large fish, in the Russian seas, is formed *fish-gluce* or *isinglass*, which possesses a very strong agglutinating power, and is useful in stiffening, and giving a lustre to gauzes, &c. Isinglass forms a strong glue, by solution, in either water or alcohol.

GELATIN, Mr. *Hatchett* observes, may exist in all the different degrees of tenacity and viscosity which characterize *mucilage*, *size*, and *glue*: the different forms in which it appears. This difference is evidently an inherent quality, and not caused by mere inspissation: the glue made from certain parts of animals, such as the skin, being of a better quality than that which is made from the sinews; and the best and strongest glue is always made from the more aged animals. Gelatin, when completely dried, is affected by water, according to its original degree of viscosity: cold water dissolving dried mucilage in a short time; but only occasioning a cake of glue, after steeping three or four days, to swell much, without being dissolved.

There is every reason to conclude that the substance which in very young animals was at first mucilage, becomes progressively more viscid, and assumes the character of gelatin, which, as animals increase in age, becomes more and more viscid.

SKINS of animals yield gelatin proportioned to the degree of flexibility they possess. Thus the skin of the eel and the shark yields a large proportion. The skins of the hare, rabbit, calf, ox, and rhinoceros, yield similar results; that of the rhinoceros yielded the strongest and most viscid gelatin.

The true skin or *cutis* is completely soluble by long boiling, and seems to be essentially formed of gelatin; but the *cuticle* is only softened, but not dissolved, and appears to contain gelatin only in a small proportion: it is however necessary to its flexibility; since it becomes quite brittle when deprived of it. The cuticle is not even acted on by alcohol. It is however dissolved by alkaline lees and by lime, which is employed in the process of tanning for removing it, to allow the tanning matter to have access to the true skin.

The *cartilages* of the articulations are also completely solu-

ble when long boiled with water; but this by no means happens when other cartilages are thus treated.

Hair imparts a small portion of gelatin to water, losing thereby its elasticity and flexibility, the softest and most flexible hair yielding most.

Feather, quill, human nail, ox's hoof, tortoise shell, and the *scale of a scorpion*, shewed no trace of gelatin by the test of the tanning principle, and but a faint white cloud with nitromuriate of tin.

Horns, such as those of the *ox, ram, goat, and chamois*, yield small quantities of gelatin, and in proportion to their flexibility. But *stag's or buck's horn* differ from these, both in composition and construction; containing, like bone, much phosphate of lime; and, like bone, a large quantity of gelatin: phosphate of lime generally being accompanied by gelatin as in *stags' horn, bone, ivory, &c.* but when carbonate of lime is the hardening substance, as in shells, madrepores and millepores, no gelatin can be discovered.

The *ink of the cuttle fish* appears to be chiefly formed of gelatin, with much charcoal mechanically combined.

Horny scales of the *mantis, of lizards, serpents, &c.* yield but very slight traces of gelatin: seeming to consist of the membranaceous substance merely, appearing to be devoid of phosphate of lime, as an ossifying matter.

Gelatin is evidently the principal cause of flexibility and elasticity, and the putrescibility of various parts.—*Hatchett. Phil. Trans.* 1800.

Gelatin and tannin precipitate together in a glutinous elastic, and extensible mass, resembling leather: this precipitation taking place even when gelatine constitutes only 1-500th part of its solution.

Gelatin thus tanned becomes, when dry, a hard, smooth substance, of a very close texture, and unchangeable by air, water, and most other re-agents. This substance might undoubtedly be employed in the arts with great advantage, for making boxes, taking impressions, &c.—*Davy.*

GELATIN, according to Dr. *Bostock*, is characterised by its *liquefying even by a gentle heat, and becoming concrete by cold*. It is readily obtained by the solution of isinglass. One hundredth part in water completely stiffens by cooling. It is precipitated freely by *tannin*, whilst little or no effects are produced by aqua lithargyri acetati, oxymuriate of mercury, nitrate of silver, nitro-muriate of tin, or nitro-muriate of gold.—*Nicholson's Journal*, Supp. to vol. XIII.

The ART OF TANNING consists in impregnating the skins of animals with the *tanning principle*, which renders them tenacious, durable, and impermeable to water; in a word, converts them to *LEATHER*. The first step towards this process is clearing the skin of all unnecessary matter. The hair is removed by the depilatory power of incipient putrefaction, or of lime, by the action of which, on the albumen of the epidermis, their separation is rendered easy: the oily and other matters, insoluble in water, are then removed by an alkaline lixivium, and, in some instances, sulphuric acid is employed.

The skin thus cleansed and prepared is placed in a *pit*, containing a solution of tannin, to undergo the necessary impregnation with this principle. This part of the process is accelerated by employing strong solutions; beginning, however, with the weaker, and gradually augmenting their strength.

The SKIN is composed of—1. the *epidermis*, consisting chiefly of albumen, with a little gelatin;—2. the *mucous membrane*, formed of a gelatinous substance;—and, 3. the *cutis*, or true skin, the important part for this purpose, constituted by a fibrous intertexture, the component parts of which are fibrine, albumen, and phosphate of lime, in very small proportion to the gelatin, of which it is chiefly composed; which matter becomes glue by evaporation, or leather by the action of tanning.

As the *gallic acid* corrugates the surface, and does not seem to combine with the matter of skin, Mr. *Biggin* thinks its presence in tanning is not only useless but detrimental.—*Phil. Trans.*

To render leather impenetrable by water, Mr. *Hildebrandt* recommends it to be soaked in oil in which minium is dissolved and boiled to a deep brown.—*Ann. de Chim. de Crell.* 1799.

ALBUMEN, or as it has been called, coagulable lymph, besides being the principal constituent of the serum of the blood, forms the cheese in milk, and makes up the greatest part of the white of eggs. It coagulates at about 150° Farenh. being transparent, when dry, like horn. It has but little taste, is dissolved by alkalies, is insoluble in water, oils, or ardent spirits; the latter as well as acids, and metallic solutions promoting its coagulation. When considerably diluted with water, it no longer coagulates with heat.

Dr. *Bostock*, by his examination of the primary animal fluids, or those into which the compound animal fluids are capable of being resolved, by the application of different re-agents, without decomposing them into their ultimate elements, finds that albumen gives oxalic acid when treated with the nitric acid, and that it contains carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, oxygen, phosphorus, and lime.

ALBUMEN is, according to Dr. *Bostock*, with the exception of water, the fluid which enters most largely into the composition of the animal body. It forms a considerable proportion of the blood, and is found in nearly all the secretions. It assumes the solid form; being the basis of all the membranous substances: it composes the cellular tissue of the bones, and enters into the structure of the muscles, skin, glands, and vessels. It is most conveniently obtained in a state of purity from white of eggs: 100 parts of which consist of 80 water, 4,5 uncoagulable matter, and 15,5 of pure albumen.

Its distinguishing character is its *coagulability by heat*: a perceptible opacity being produced by *heat* in water containing only a one thousandth part. *Oxymuriate of mercury* and TANNIN also produce a degree of milkiness in a solution in the same proportion. *Nitro-muriate of tin* occasioned milkiness in a solution, containing $\frac{1}{500}$ of albumen. *Aqua lithargyri acetati*, *nitrate of silver*, and *nitro-muriate of gold*

also precipitate it plentifully.—*Nicholson's Journal*, Supp. to vol. XIII.

It is, according to Mr. *Hatchett*, the predominant and essential part in the tissue or web of membrane, cartilage, sponge, the horny stems of *gorgonia*, horn, hair, feather, quill, hoof, nail, horny scale, crust, and tortoise shell: and although of similar chemical properties, yet it varies in consistency, from a tender jelly-like substance, to a completely formed membrane; or to an elastic, brittle, and hard body, like tortoise-shell, manifesting a stratified arrangement. Moreover the chemical properties of these substances resemble, in every respect, those of pure *albumen*; so that it evidently appears to be the original substance from which tortoise-shell, hair, horn, muscular fibre, &c. have been derived and formed.

Mr. *Hatchett* thinks there is also much reason to believe that gelatin, although it appears so different from albumen in many respects, is yet formed from it, and that albumen, or the coagulating lymph, is the primary animal substance from which the others are derived. Pure albumen, which has not been subjected to the effects of organization, appears to contain a considerable portion of saline matter, and very little of any earthy substance; but in such bodies, which (although derived from albumen) have suffered various changes by the action of the vital principle, the quantity of saline substances appears to be diminished, while that of the earthy matter is increased; and as lime, in the states of phosphate and carbonate, is so much more abundant in the muscle of beef than in that of veal, we may infer, that the earthy matter is more abundant in the coarse and rigid fibre of adult and aged animals, than in the tender fibre of those which are young.

There appears much reason, Mr. *Hatchett* says, to believe that the gelatinous substances and muscular fibre, differ from simple and unorganized albumen, by a diminution of the carbonic principle in the one, and by an excess of it in the other, the muscular fibre containing by much the greatest quantity: resembling, in that respect, the vegetable fibre.

In respect to economical purposes, Mr. *Hatchett* observes, that all animal substances whatever (exclusive of carbonate and phosphate of lime) may be converted into two substances of much utility, glue and soap; the gelatin yielding the one and the albumen the other.—*Phil. Trans.* 1800.

ANIMAL MUCILAGE, which has been considered as a modification of gelatine, Dr. *Bostock* observes is characterized by very different properties. It may be obtained by the agitation of saliva, or of an oyster in water. It is neither coagulated by a moderate heat, nor gelatinised by cooling. *Oxy-muriate of mercury* produces no effect; *galls* precipitate a very minute quantity of jelly, and *nitro-muriate of tin* produces only a very slight opacity; but *aqua lithargyri acetati* occasions an immediate opacity and a white fleaky precipitate. There is a great resemblance between the mechanical and chemical properties of animal mucus and vegetable gum.—*Nicholson's Journal*, Supp. to vol. XIII.

The order of analysis recommended by Dr. *Bostock* of a fluid supposed to contain either albumen, jelly, or mucus, is first to employ oxy-muriate of mercury, to detect albumen; next infusion of galls, to discover jelly; and then, if no precipitate is thus occasioned, it may be considered as only containing mucus.—*Nicholson's Journal*, Aug. 1805.

Dr. *Bostock*, in a subsequent paper, points out the mode of adapting these principles to the analysis of those *compound* fluids, of which these three substances form the principal part.—*Nicholson's Journal*, June, 1806.

FIBRINE is that white fibrous substance which is left after freely washing the coagulum of the blood, and which also chiefly composes the muscular fibre. It is insoluble in water and alcohol, and is dissolved only by the alkalies when concentrated and aided by heat. It is soluble in many of the acids, and precipitated by alkalies. On heat being applied, it shrivels like parchment. It yields, by distillation in a retort, water containing carbonate of ammonia, zoome acid, a thick fetid oil, carburetted hydrogen, and carbonic acid gas, with much con-

crete carbonate of ammonia; it hence appearing to be a substance highly nitrogenized. It is undoubtedly highly animalised, and constituting the muscular fibre, it performs most important offices. It is perhaps the seat of irritability, and the medium by which the vital energies are directed to the various organs.

The coal it leaves is compact, and difficult to incinerate; then leaving phosphate of lime, known so to be by its dissolving in nitric acid, and being precipitated by ammonia.

The MUSCULAR OR FLESHY PARTS afford, by distillation, water, empyreumatic oil, nitrogen gas, carbonate of ammonia, and a coal which yields a small quantity of fixed alkali. *Thouvenel* found, in flesh, a *mucous extractive substance*, soluble in water and in alcohol; and when concentrated, possessing an acrid and bitter taste. On hot coals it swells, liquifies, and emits a smell like that of burnt sugar: all its characters, indeed, show a resemblance between it and the saccharine matter of vegetables. *Thouvenel* also obtained, by a slow evaporation of the decoction of flesh, salt, in the form of down, and in crystals of an indeterminable figure: this salt appeared to him to be a phosphate of pot-ash in frugivorous, and a muriate of pot-ash in carnivorous, animals. *Fourcroy* thinks these salts may be phosphates of soda, or ammonia, mixed with the phosphate of lime. Mr. *Hatchett* found that 500 parts of the muscular part of beef, left, after combustion, a residuum of 25,6 parts, consisting chiefly of phosphate and carbonate of lime.

A curious detonating salt, first noticed by *Welter*, whilst treating silk with the nitric acid, as will be noticed under the article Silk, may be obtained by boiling nitric acid on animal or vegetable substances, containing nitrogen. Thus four parts of nitric acid, of 18° or 20° of strength, being boiled on one part of powdered indigo, until the indigo is deprived of its colour, the acid becomes yellow, and a thin layer of resinous matter appears on the surface. This, which may be used with a fresh portion of acid, being removed, the solution is to be inspissated, and then dissolved in hot water and filtered.

To this a solution of pot-ash of commerce is to be added, and a new inflammable and detonating substance will be found, in yellow crystals of a circular shape, soluble in water, alcohol, and nitric acid, becoming of a blood-red colour by the application of alkalies, and detonating strongly, with a clear purple light, when wrapped in paper and struck with a hammer. In one part of this process the benzoic acid is discoverable. This substance is obtained by a similar process from any vegetable or animal matter containing nitrogen: the nitric acid taking from them a portion of carbon, hydrogen, and nitrogen, and giving birth to a substance supersaturated with oxygen, and possessing these peculiar properties.—*Annales de Chimie*. Cah. 165.

Fourcroy and *Vauquelin* obtained from equal parts of muscular flesh and nitric acid, with water, a gas which was composed of 9-10ths of nitrogen and 1-10th of carbonic acid, agreeable to the observations of *Berthollet*. They also thus obtained the formation of a fatty matter, of oxalic acid, and of a peculiar bitter substance. Besides these products and pot-ash, lime and sulphur, they also obtained: 1. A yellow, insipid, but slightly insoluble, though acid matter. 2. Another yellow matter, bitter, more soluble, and equally acid. 3. An inflammable, detonating substance. 4. The malic acid. The yellow matter was found to resemble the yellow rancid matter of fat, and a very analogous matter was found in bilious concretions and in the urine of an icteric subject.—*Annales de Chimie*. vol. LVI.

The most abundant part of muscles, and that which constitutes their predominating character, is the *fibrous matter*. The other matters contained in flesh, the lymph, and fat part, have been already spoken of.

Fourcroy found the muscular parts of bodies, which had been interred in the *Cemeterie des Innocens*, converted into a substance resembling spermaceti, which he terms *adipocire*.—*Annales de Chimie*, v.

Lord *Bacon*, in his *Sylva Sylvarum*, states, that such a

change may be effected, by putting pieces of flesh into a glass covered with parchment, and allowing the glass to stand six or seven hours in boiling water.

Thomas Sneyd, Esq. of Staffordshire, found in the mud, at the head of a fish-pool, the body of a duck or young goose, converted into a hard fatty matter resembling spermaceti; having apparently suffered a similar change with that of the human bodies, observed by *M. Fourcroy*, in the *Cemeterie des Innocens*.—*Phil. Trans.* 1792.

Mr. G. Smith Gibbes, having placed the leanest part of a rump of beef in a box with holes, so as to float on the side of a river, found, at the end of a month, it was converted to a mass of fatty matter. He also found a piece of lean mutton, on which nitrous acid had been poured, three days before, to be exactly the same with some which he had before got from the water, and which, though changed, was not so much so as the beef.—*Phil. Trans.* 1794.

Mr. Gibbes further remarked, that the fatty matter formed from the flesh of quadrupeds, does not crystallize, whilst that from the human subject assumed a very regular and beautiful crystalline appearance. To purify this matter, he exposed it to the sun and air for a considerable time, reduced it to powder, and poured on it diluted nitrous acid, this remaining on it an hour; he then washed it repeatedly, and finally melted it with hot water, and, on allowing it to concrete, it was of a beautiful straw colour, and had the agreeable smell of the best spermaceti.—*Phil. Trans.* 1795.

The BLOOD is that red fluid which circulates in the animal body, by means of the arteries and veins; and supports life, by supplying all the organs with the peculiar juices they demand. It varies in the same individual, not only with regard to the state of health, but as to the part it occupies. The blood, which circulates through the veins, possesses a greater intensity of colour and degree of consistence, than that which is passing through the arteries. It putrifies by a gentle heat, and when slowly dried, effervesces with acids; if exposed to the air, it

extracts humidity, and, at the end of several months, yields a saline efflorescence, ascertained by *Rouelle* to be soda.

The blood, when at rest, coagulates; and then separates into a yellow liquid, called *SERUM*, and a clot or *COAGULUM*. It may also be coagulated by alcohol and the acids, but alkalies render it more fluid.

The *SERUM* has a greenish yellow colour, is of a slightly saline taste, turns syrup of violets green, and hardens in a moderate heat. Being poured into boiling water, it directly coagulates, a part communicating a milky colour to the water, and possessing, according to *Bucquet*, all the properties of milk. It easily putrifies, and then affords much carbonate of ammonia. Distilled on a water bath, it yields an insipid fluid, very readily putrifying; the residue being transparent, like horn, and no longer soluble in water. By a higher degree of heat, ammonia, carbonate of ammonia, sulphuretted hydrogen, water, and a fetid blackish oil, more or less thick, are obtained: the remaining coal is very voluminous, and difficult to incinerate. The serum appears to contain *albumen*, *gelatine*, *hydro-sulphuret of ammonia*, *soda*, *muriate of soda*, *phosphate of soda*, and *phosphate of lime*, contained in much water. The extravasated fluid, in dropsy, does not appear to differ much from the serum of the blood in its constituent principles.

The whole of the blood, which by anatomists is divided into serum, red globules, and coagulating lymph, is found, when chemically examined, to consist of *albumen*, *gelatin*, and *fibrine*. The *serum* which remains liquid after the coagulation of the blood, is composed of albumen, gelatin, some saline matter, and much water. The clot of *crassamentum* also affords, by repeated washing, a large portion of albumen and gelatin; after which a substance remains, in appearance very analogous to animal fibre, excepting that it is in a more attenuated state. This substance, *fibrin*, may be regarded as that part of the blood which has undergone the most complete animalization; and from which the muscular fibre and other organs of the body are formed.—*Mr. Hatchett. Phil. Trans. 1800.*

The blood is found to derive its colour from iron, combined with phosphoric acid, reduced to the state of a sub-phosphate of iron by the soda of the blood.

The colour of the blood appears certainly to depend on the iron it contains; but on considering the changes which take place during respiration, and the different colour of arterial and venal blood, it seems that the colour is produced by the oxidization of the iron, during the passage of the blood through the lungs.—The blood, which has just circulated through every part of the animal, and has been brought back by the veins to the heart, is propelled into the lungs of a dark red colour, and impregnated with hydrogen and carbon. By inspiration the lungs are distended with air, the oxygen of which combines with the carbon, forming carbonic acid; and with the hydrogen, forming water; another part of the oxygen unites with the blood, which returns from the lungs, and passes into the arteries of a bright red.

It appears from the experiments of *Deyeux* and *Parmentier* that the *buffy coat*, observed in inflammatory diseases, consists of *fibrine*.

The CHYLE has not hitherto been subjected to any analysis, from which its chemical history can be much illustrated. It separates in the air into a gelatinous coagulum and a milky fluid: the coagulated parts possessing the semi-transparency of opal, with something of the rosy tint, both in its substance and on its surface.

The GASTRIC JUICE is secreted in the stomach of animals, and produces the digestion of their food, which may be considered almost as a chemical process. The gastric juice varies in different animals, according to the nature of their aliments: this difference extending to its chemical properties, and hence a variety in the analysis of the gastric juice of different animals. It, however, in general, yields water, animal gelatin, and phosphates.

The PANCREATIC JUICE is next added to the *ingesta*:

this liquid appears to be resolvable into the same principles as those of the gastric juice.

The BILE is a fluid secreted by the liver, deposited in the gall-bladder, and thence conveyed into the duodenum. It is glutinous, of the fluidity of oil; of a very bitter taste, a green colour, inclining to yellow; and froths by agitation like a solution of soap. It mixes readily with water, becoming yellower as it is diluted: but it does not blend with oil.

It unites with oils, and cleans stuffs in the same manner as soap; but does not appear to mix with oily substances in the same manner as soap.

It contains a considerable portion of water, albumen, and soda, in a caustic state, united with an oily matter, which, according to *Fourcroy*, although it does not nearly approach to either, has somewhat of the nature of fat, resin, and *adipocire*; with a colouring matter not hitherto separated from the last-mentioned oily matter. Besides pure soda, the bile also appears to contain muriate of soda, phosphate of soda, and phosphate of lime.

Cadet relates, that the odour of *sulphuretted hydrogen* is perceived on the addition of muriatic acid to even fresh bile; and that he discovered traces of iron in the residuum, after the separation of the salts.

Thenard discovered a peculiar matter in bile, which is slightly deliquescent, and soluble in water and in alcohol. It is not precipitated by common acetite of lead, but entirely so by the saturated acetite of lead; which precipitate is soluble in acetite of soda. It does not ferment with yeast; it yields no ammonia, nor is affected by galls. It dissolves the oily matter of bile. Bile, he finds, is composed of this—

Peculiar matter	41 parts.
Oily matter	43
Animal substance; perhaps albumen...	4
Soda	4
Muriate of soda.....	3,2

Sulphate of soda	0,3
Phosphate of soda	2
Phosphate of lime	1,2
Oxide of iron.....	0,5
Water	700
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	799,7
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An oily bitter substance, yielding the smell of musk, has also been spoken of, but has never been exhibited in a separate state; it is, perhaps, only the result of some new combination, formed during the decomposition of the oily matter already mentioned.

On the addition of alcohol, the albumen is separated, whilst the other constituent parts are held in solution.

By adding a part of muriatic acid to 32 of bile, a coagulum is formed, which being separated, a green liquor remains, which on evaporation precipitates a green-coloured substance, which is named the *resin of bile*, possessing some of the properties of vegetable resins, but differing much from them in other respects.

Biliary concretions seem to owe their origin to inspissation of the bile, and to the deposition of a peculiar matter in a crystallized or laminated form. This matter was supposed by *Poullétier* to resemble the light brilliant particles of the acid of benzoin; but *Fourcroy* is of opinion, that it is a true adipocire, a matter resembling spermaceti.

These concretions appear to be soluble in alcohol, ether, caustic alkalies, the fixed and volatile oils, and in the solutions of soaps.

Calculi of another species have been noticed, which are insoluble both in alcohol and oil of turpentine, and do not flame, but become red, and burn to an ash-like charcoal.

MILK is secreted in the breasts of the females of certain animals, therefore called lactiferous animals; but the following observations will chiefly refer to that of cows. It is the least animalized of all the secreted fluids, partaking of the nature of the chyle, and even of the qualities of the aliments. When exposed to the air, *cream* rises on its surface, the remaining *skimmed milk* becoming sour, in a longer or shorter time, according to the temperature of the atmosphere, in summer acquiring its greatest acidity in three or four days, and separating into a *coagulum* or *curd*, and a *serum* or *whey*. The whey is also separated from milk by the addition of acids; and it appears that the serum does not retain the acids made use of to coagulate the milk.

Milk appears to contain a fat oil, and a particular gluten, formed into a kind of animal emulsion, by means of a saccharine substance.

Milk is very remarkable for the phosphate of lime it contains, and which seems to be destined to favour the first period of ossification.—*Fourcroy, Tabl. Synop.* 1800.

By distillation, milk first yields an insipid water, then a fetid, coloured water, containing zoonic acid and ammonia, a fluid brown oil, a concrete empyreumatic oil, carbonate of ammonia in a solid form, carburetted hydrogen, and carbonic acid gas. In the ashes of the remaining coal are found muriate of soda, but much more of muriate of pot-ash, and phosphate of lime.

Rouelle remarks, that the muriate of pot-ash is not found in the blood, and that therefore the milk must derive this from some other source; and if from the chyle, then the salts contained in the chyle must be changed in their passage into the blood.

LACTIC ACID, or the ACID OF MILK, is thus obtained. Sour milk being evaporated to one eighth, the cheesy matter separated by the filtre, and *lime-water* poured on the residue, an earth is precipitated, and the lime combines with the acid of the milk. The lime may then be displaced, by adding the

oxalic acid, which forms with it an insoluble oxalate, and is precipitated, the acid of milk remaining disengaged. The fluid is then evaporated to the consistence of honey, and upon this very pure alcohol is poured, which takes up the acid, all the other principles remaining undissolved. The mass being now filtered, the lactic acid may be separated from its solvent by distillation.

The lactic acid forms deliquescent LACTATES with the *alkalies, barytes, lime, alumine, magnesia, &c.* It dissolves *iron* and *zinc*, and produces hydrogen gas. With *copper* it assumes first a blue colour, then a green, and afterwards an obscure brown. It also dissolves *lead*, the solution depositing a white sediment, considered by *Scheele* as a sulphate of lead, and as evincing the presence of a small portion of sulphuric in this acid.

From the experiments of *Bouillon le Grange*, it appears that new milk reddens the tincture of turnsole, that the distillation of milk, as well as of sugar of milk, to dryness, yields the acetic acid; that the formation of carbonic acid and of alcohol from milk is attributable to the mucous saccharine matter; that a quantity of acetic acid is formed by the fermentation of these substances; he supposing an acid to exist, in a free state, which appears to be the acetic acid. He lastly concludes, that the lactic acid of *Scheele* is composed of acetic acid, muriate of pot-ash, and a small portion of iron.—*Annales de Chimie*. Cah. 150.

SUGAR OF MILK is obtained from *whey*, or milk, deprived of its cream and of its curd, and evaporated to the consistence of honey. This is formed into cakes, which are dried in the sun, then dissolved, clarified, and set to crystallize; it then yielding white crystals, in tetrahedral prisms, with tetrahedral summits. It has a slight earthy saccharine taste, is soluble in three or four pints of hot water, and exhibits the same appearances as sugar, either by distillation, or on the fire.

SACCHOLACTIC ACID, or the acid of sugar of milk, is ob-

tained by distilling the nitric acid from sugar of milk. *Scheele* obtained oxalic acid in long crystals, and the ACID OF SUGAR OF MILK, in a white powder. Its solution is sour to the taste, and reddens turnsole.

The serum of milk may, by several processes, be made to pass into the vinous fermentations. Six spoonfuls of alcohol, with three pints of milk, exposed in closed vessels for a month, giving vent occasionally to the gas, will be converted into good acetous acid. A spirituous liquor is also made from mares' milk. Milk is turned, or its various constituent parts are separated, spontaneously, or by the addition of rennet, and several other substances, such as neutral salts, acids, and even certain vegetables. The solid mass thus separated from the whey, contains two substances, *cheese* and *butter*.

Milk may be curdled by passing through it the electric fluid, and then restored to its fluid state by fixed alkali.—*Bouillon le Grange's Manual*, 1800.

CHEESE is formed by the curd undergoing a commencement of the putrid fermentation, by which it acquires consistency, taste, and colour; and is then pressed and dried for use. No substance has a stronger resemblance to cheese than boiled white of egg, both being soluble in diluted acid, in caustic alkali, and in lime water. The earth of cheese, according to *Scheele*, is a phosphate of lime. *Ammonia* dissolves cheese more effectually than fixed alkalies, and *nitric acid* disengages nitrogen from it.

BUTTER is procured from the cream which floats on the top of milk, by agitation; the remaining milk being termed BUTTER-MILK. Butter, unless salted, soon changes, becoming rancid like oils; the acid, thus developed, may be washed off by water, or by the spirit of wine. With *fixed alkali*, butter forms a soap. By distillation it yields water, a coloured concrete oil, and a strong pungent acid, the sebacic acid.

At Constantinople the butter is obtained from the Crimea and the Cuban; they do not sell it, but melt it over slow fire,

and scum off what rises ; it will then preserve sweet a long time, if it was fresh when melted.—*Eaton's Survey of the Turkish Empire.*

Cadet de Vaux recommends the following mixture, as a cheap substitute for oil-paint:—Skimmed milk, two quarts ; lime newly slaked, six ounces ; linseed oil, four ounces ; Spanish white or chalk, well ground, three pounds. Pour over the lime such a portion of the milk as renders it of the consistence of a thick soap, and gradually the oil, then pour in the remainder of the milk, with the chalk diluted in it.

For out-door work he adds to the above, slaked lime, two ounces ; oil, two ounces ; white Burgundy pitch, two ounces ; melted in the oil and added to the smooth mixture of milk and lime.—*Decade Philos.* 1801.

Darvet, who thinks the serous part of the milk, the oil, Burgundy pitch, and part of the lime, may be omitted, recommends the following:—Cheese or curd, five ounces ; slaked lime, a quarter of an ounce ; whiting, ten ounces ; charcoal, one drachm ; water, three ounces ; and a sufficient quantity of water to be again added to give it a proper degree of fluidity, when it is used.

FAT is a condensed inflammable animal juice, contained in its proper membrane. Its colour is usually white, but sometimes yellow ; its taste insipid, and its consistence varying in different animals. It is obtained in a state of purity, by boiling in water, after being finely shred : it being thus separated from the membranes, fibres, &c. It differs, with the individual, and the part of the body which produces it, thus we have *tallow*, mixed with offal parts ; *lard*, from the hog ; and *train oil* and *spermaceti* from fish. Fat much resembles oils ; like them it is not miscible with water : is liable to rancidity, forms soap with alkalies, and burns by the contact of an ignited substance.

Beef suet distilled on the water bath, affords oil and phlegm ; the phlegm is reddish, has an acid taste, effervesces with alkalies, and turns the syrup of violets brown. *Marrow*

yields the same products, and a substance of the consistence of butter.

SEBACIC ACID, OR ACID OF FAT, has been supposed to have been concentrated by various processes by Mr. *Crell*.

This acid, he supposed, to exist ready formed in the fat, since earths and alkalies disengage it.

Mr. *Crell* also obtained it, as he thought, by distillation from the butter of cocoa, and from spermaceti. He observed that it seems to approach to the nature of the muriatic acid in some respects, but not in others.

Thenard contends, that *Crell* only obtained, by some of his processes, muriatic acid, which was derived from muriate of pot-ash, which is always contained in the pot-ash of commerce, and which it is probable he used. By *Crell's* other processes, he believes he obtained acetous acid.

He distilled pork fat, washed the product, and precipitated with acetite of lead, and distilling it with sulphuric acid, a matter resembling fat was found floating in the retort, which, by the aid of heat, was dissolved in water, and afterwards crystallized, proving to be the real *sebacic acid*, hitherto not discovered. It is inodorous, slightly sour, more soluble in hot than cold water, and does not render the waters of lime, barytes, and strontia turbid.

Oxygenated lard is formed by melting one part of *nitric acid* with sixteen parts of *axungia*, stirring it with a glass rod, and leaving it over the fire till it throws up bubbles. The nitric acid is decomposed, the nitrogen is disengaged, and the oxygen combines with the fat, without giving it acidity.—*Alyon*.

SPERMACETI is a concrete oil, extracted from a species of the whale, the *cacholot*. It burns with a very white flame, and rises totally if distilled on a naked fire, assuming a reddish tinge, and losing its natural consistence by repeated distillations.

Alcohol dissolves it by the assistance of heat, but lets it fall as it cools. It is also dissolved by *ether*, and by the *fixed* and

volatile oils. It seems to bear the same relation to fixed oils which camphor does to the volatile oils, whilst wax seems to be analogous to their resins.

URINE is an excrementitious fluid, secreted by the kidneys: in its natural state, it is transparent, of a peculiar smell, a citron yellow colour, and a saline taste. Besides the differences proceeding from peculiarity of habit, there are other differences in the urine, arising from other circumstances. That which is voided soon after copious drinking, is aqueous; having hardly colour or smell, and is called *crude urine*, or *urina potus*: whereas that which is made after the sanguification, succeeding to a full meal, possesses all the characters of urine, and may be called the *faeces sanguinis*.

By the spontaneous decomposition of urine, it soon loses its original smell, and acquires that of ammonia; which being also dissipated, the smell becomes very fetid and offensive, and the colour brownish: in this state it manifests much less acid than when fresh.

By evaporating urine to the consistence of a syrup, and allowing it to stand in a cool place, crystals are formed. This precipitate of crystals has been called *fusible salt*, *native salt*, and *microcosmic salt*. It is chiefly composed of the phosphates of soda and of ammonia, and is used as a flux to the earths.

The analysis of urine is very difficultly accomplished, owing to the complication with the substances employed as re-agents, and to its vast susceptibility of change by the application of the slightest degree of heat, or even exposure to the air. A carefully conducted spontaneous evaporation, afterwards aided by heat, fermentation, the action of alcohol, and a close observation of the several appearances yielded by the action of various re-agents, are all necessary to ascertain the principles which urine contain.

According to *Fourcroy*, there are twelve principles which are constantly found in urine.

1. *Urea*, the substance on which the characteristic properties of urine depend, which is contained in the urine of all quadrupeds, and which *Rouelle* distinguished by the name of *soapy*; *Scheele*, *extractive oil*; and *Cruikshank*, who has ascertained several of its properties, particularly its immediate formation into a mass of crystals by the addition of nitric acid, *animal extractive water*. To obtain it in a state as pure as it will admit, urine is to be gently evaporated to the thickness of honey, and to this alcohol is to be added, which dissolves the urée and but few of the other principles. The alcohol being distilled, leaves a thick mass, which on cooling crystallizes in brilliant micaceous lamina, composed of urée and muriate of ammonia, with benzoic acid, from which it cannot be entirely freed. It is undoubtedly a quaternary compound of *nitrogen*, *hydrogen*, *carbon*, and *oxygen*, in which the nitrogen predominates; but which is the least durable, and most easily decomposable, of any known animal compound, since the slightest change in the equilibrium of its constituent principles, by the action of the gentlest heat, of alkalis, and even of baryt and strontia, is sufficient to decompose it, and make it pass into the state of ammonia, and of carbonic, prussic, and acetic acids, its constituent principles quitting their quaternary combination to form one ternary compound and several binary ones. It possesses the curious property of occasioning the reciprocal inversion of the forms of the crystals, of muriate of soda, and of ammonia, giving to the former the figure of the octahedron, and to the latter that of the cube.

2. URIC ACID, which sometimes forms the urinary calculus: it was discovered by *Scheele*, and is the red sandy matter which concretes on the sides of vessels containing urine, and perhaps forms the pink sediment deposited in some diseases. But *Proust* considers this latter sediment to consist chiefly of a different substance, which he calls ROSACIC ACID, and which he says is, in these cases, mixed with uric acid and phosphate of lime. Phosphate of lime and uric acid chiefly constitute the precipitate which is generally deposited by urine.

This precipitate is dissolved by diluted nitric acid; and if evaporated and dried, it assumes a fine rose colour, if the uric acid is present.

Uric acid is tasteless, inodorous, and forms in yellow crystals, not soluble in cold, and requiring a large quantity of warm water. It unites with the alkalies, and with an excess of them becomes very soluble. The sulphuric and muriatic acids have little action on it. The nitric acid, acting on the animal colouring matter, changes it to a red colour, and converts a portion of it to oxalic acid. The oxygenized muriatic acid dissolves it, and decomposes it into ammonia, and the carbonic, oxalic, and malic acids. By the action of fire, it in part sublimes, and also yields carbonic acid, carbonate of ammonia, prussic acid, and a charcoal not containing any saline matters.

3. PHOSPHORIC ACID, existing in excess in the following substances.

4. PHOSPHATE OF LIME, which being supersaturated with the acid, becomes soluble, and yields the sensible acidity, discoverable in recent urine. The ammonia, which is so speedily produced, seizes the excess of acid, and the phosphate, now insoluble, is precipitated.

5. PHOSPHATE OF MAGNESIA, hardly separable from the other salts.

6. PHOSPHATE OF SODA, remarkable for not yielding its phosphorus in the ordinary mode, and for uniting, when added to metallic solutions, with the precipitate so formed, and then being capable of yielding the phosphorus, with the aid of charcoal.

7. PHOSPHATE OF AMMONIA. This salt crystallizes the first, after the inspissation of the urine, and from it phosphorus is obtained. It is always mixed with the phosphate of soda, forming a triple salt, which is the basis of the mass of crystals which form in inspissated urine, and which have been called fusible or microcosmic salt.

8. BENZOIC ACID, chiefly abounding in the urine of children.

9. MURIATE OF SODA in octahedra.

10. MURIATE OF AMMONIA, in cubes. To these perhaps may be added,

11. GELATINOUS ANIMAL MATTER. These substances being held in solution in a large proportion of,

12. WATER.

Proust states that *carbonic acid* exists in urine. He also believes that the colour of the urine depends on a *resinous matter*, somewhat similar to the resin of the bile, and that silver and the acetate of lead is blackened by *sulphur*, which the urine contains.

These substances, particularly the phosphoric acid, may be considered as excrementitious, and destined to be carried off by this channel.

The following substances, muriate of pot-ash, sulphate of soda, sulphate of lime, oxalate of lime, albumen, silex, and saccharine matter, which exists in the urine in diabetes, and other diseases, may be considered as only accidentally present in urine.

Fermentation takes place in urine very rapidly, the animal gelatin and uréa, the only substances it contains susceptible of this kind of change, yielding ammonia, carbonic acid, and acetic acid: hence the following additional combinations, benzoate, urate, acetate, and carbonate of ammonia, and ammoniaco-magnesian phosphate. The urée, as appears from the colour of the precipitated matter, has a portion of its carbon separated, and on the whole the urine becomes a very different liquor from what it was at its evacuation, ammonia prevailing in the place of acidity.

The urine of young children does not contain the earthy phosphates, but much benzoic acid; whilst in that of the aged is contained a large proportion of the uric acid and the phosphate of lime, with which the osseous part of the system is surcharged.

The phosphates found in human urine do not exist, according to *Fourcroy* and *Vauquelin*, in the urine of other mammife-

rous animals ; the hair, hoofs, horns, and skin, being in them the strainers and receivers of the superfluous quantity of these salts. These animals being subject to phosphoric earthy concretions in the intestines, to which man is not liable. It is also observable, that whilst the bones of other animals, the ox, horse, fowls, fish, &c. contain, besides the phosphate and carbonate of lime, a certain quantity of the phosphate of magnesia, none of this salt is discoverable in the bones of man.—*Ann. de Chimie.* 141.

In *inflammatory* diseases, the urine is *red* and *acid*, and yields a copious precipitate with oxymuriate of mercury ; but at their close a copious pink sediment is deposited, containing a little phosphate of lime with rosacic and uric acid. In *jaundice* it is of an *orange yellow*. Muriatic acid renders urine green when but little bile is present. In *hysteria*, it contains much salt, but little *urea* and *gelatine*. In *gouty* habits the urine contains much less phosphoric acid than is in healthy urine ; but it becomes increased during the paroxysm. In *general dropsy*, it is loaded with albumen : but in *dropsy from diseased liver* no albumen is present, but a copious pink sediment is deposited.—*Cruikshank, Philos. Magazine.*

In rachitis, *C. Bonhomme* is of opinion, that the softness of the bones is in consequence of an abstraction of the earthy matter by the action of oxalic acid, generated by faulty digestion in weakened stomachs.

In diabetes mellitus, *Dr. Rollo* has proved the urine to contain a very large proportion of saccharine matter, depending on an hyperoxygenized state of the system resulting from a morbid state of the stomach, and peculiar combinations formed in it.

The phosphorus contained in urine may be obtained by adding to urine nitrate or acetate of lead ; an insoluble phosphate of lead, formed by the decomposition of the three phosphates contained in the urine, will be then precipitated. This precipitate, carefully washed, is then to be distilled with a quarter

of its weight of charcoal, when the phosphorus will be liberated from the phosphoric acid by the attraction of the charcoal for its oxygen, and the saline matters which are volatilised will be dissolved in the water which receives the phosphorus. The urée and uric acids form carbonate of ammonia, and soil the phosphorus by a small portion of oil yielded by the decomposition of urée, from which it may be cleared by redistillation, or by melting it, and passing it through chamois leather in water.

From stale urine, by distillation, carbonate of ammonia is obtained. By the addition of concentrated muriatic acid to the urine of granivorous animals, the benzoic acid may be precipitated. It is also serviceable in promoting the formation of nitrate of pot-ash in saltpetre beds, and is employed for cleansing woollen cloths, &c. from grease.

URINARY CALCULI were supposed by *Scheele*, before whom nothing was known respecting their composition, to be chiefly formed of a peculiar acid, which he termed the *lithic acid*, but which, on further examination, Dr. *Pearson* concluded to be an animal oxide endued with peculiar properties. This substance, which he termed the *uric oxide*, and the phosphate of lime, were the only matters known to exist in calculi, until the inquiries of *Fourcroy*, who discovered in them five other substances. The principles discoverable in different calculi, he considers to be—

1. *Uric acid*, which has been just described. The concretions it forms are known by their reddish brown colour, like wood, being never white, black, or grey; by their rounded form, being hardly ever sharp or spiny; and by their being generally formed in smooth layers. They dissolve in alkaline solutions without smell. Red gravel is commonly formed by this substance.

2. *Urate of ammonia*, which, like the uric acid, is soluble by the alkalies, but at the same time yields the smell of ammonia. This circumstance characterises its concretions, which are ge-

generally small and smooth, of a light coffee colour, their layers being thin and close. It is generally combined with ammoniated magnesian phosphate.

3. *Ammoniaco-magnesian phosphate* has its ammonia separated by alkalis, without suffering dissolution, the phosphoric acid being taken away and the magnesia left. It forms spatulose, semi-transparent layers, but is never found alone in calculi. It frequently covers a kernel of the uric acid, or of phosphate of lime.

4. *Phosphate of lime* is generally combined with gelatinous animal matter, and with the last-mentioned phosphate. These calculi are known by their lightness, whiteness, friability, and solubility in acids, whilst the alkalis have no action on them. Such are the incrustations which form on foreign bodies in the bladder.

5. *Oxalate of lime* forms the light brown heavy calculi, known by the term *mulberry-form*. These are very little affected by acids, nor by pure alkalis, but are completely decomposed by the alkaline carbonates. They are susceptible of a good polish, break with a conchoidal fracture, and when cut give the peculiar faint spermalic smell of bone or ivory.

6. *Silex* is but a rare ingredient in calculi; out of more than six hundred, *Fourcroy* found but two in which it existed: and in these it was combined with phosphate of lime. The concretions were of the mulberry form, but their colour more pale and clear than that of the calculi in general.

7. *Animal matter*, which forms the substratum of every calculus, and varying both the texture and composition, in all the different species. With the uric species it is albuminous; with the phosphates it is a mixture of albumen and gelatin, in a laminated form; with oxalate of lime and silex, it is albumen in a reticulated form.

Mr. *Crompton* gives the analysis of a urinary concretion, composed almost wholly of *carbonate of lime*. It contained *carbonic acid*, 37. *Lime*, 45. *Animal matter and water*, 18.—*Phil. Mag.* XIII. 287.

Dr. *Pearson* has found the uric acid in *arthritic* concretions. Dr. *Wollaston* discovered that they were composed of that acid and soda. *Fourcroy* and *Vauquelin* confirm this analysis, finding them to consist of urate of soda, with a considerable quantity of animal gelatinous matter.

CONCRETIONS, such as are found in the pineal gland, the salivary glands, and as are discharged from the lungs, are in general formed of phosphate of lime.

Intestinal calculi are, generally, in man, oily concretions, formed of the fat waxy matter of the bile; in brutes, they are commonly formed of ammonia, magnesia, phosphoric acid, water, and animal matter.

PRUSSIC ACID is the colouring matter of the pigment termed prussian blue, the mode of forming which was first discovered in 1709, by *Diesbach* and *Dippel*: they finding, by accident, that this beautiful pigment was precipitated from a solution of sulphate of iron, on the addition of a lixivium of fixed alkali, which had been exposed with animal matter to a high degree of heat. This property, it was afterwards found, was not only yielded to the alkali by horns, hoofs, blood, and various other animal substances, but also by bitumens and certain vegetables.

The prussic acid may be obtained from animal substances, not only by alkalies aided by a strong heat; but by the action of concentrated nitric acid, which forms, at the same time, carbonic acid, oxalic acid, and adipocerous mater, and lastly by putrefaction. It may also be formed by passing ammoniacal gas through charcoal. It also is obtained in a pure state, by supersaturating the prussiate of alkali with sulphuric acid, and by subsequent distillation.

Prussic acid is acrid to the taste, and yields a flavour like that of peach leaves. It has a strong tendency to the gaseous form, and is decomposed by light and heat into carbonic acid, carburetted hydrogen, and ammonia. It unites, difficultly, with alkalies, and so feebly as not to destroy their alkaline properties; yielding them even to the carbonic acid. It acts not

on the metals themselves, but has a strong affinity for metallic oxides. It is by uniting with the red oxide of iron, that this acid forms prussian blue. Gold it precipitates yellow; lead, white; and copper red. It readily forms triple salts, with alkaline and metallic bases, more fixed than those with alkalies only, but these are not so permanent as its combination with the metallic oxides, which are not separable by the other acids; although, from the specific heat it possesses, and its tendency to assume a gaseous form, it cannot alone take these oxides from the other acids.

In 1775, *Bergman* ascertained the colouring matter of prussian blue to be a peculiar acid. In 1782, *Scheele* discovered that this acid might be obtained in a separate and a gaseous form.

10 parts of prussian blue, 5 of red oxide of mercury, and 30 of water, being boiled for some minutes, the mixture became yellowish green. The oxide of mercury decomposing the prussian blue, separated its colouring matter, and formed with it a salt which was held in solution. This solution being poured on $2\frac{1}{2}$ parts of clean iron filings with 1 part of sulphuric acid, the iron was dissolved and the mercury reduced: sulphate of iron and the colouring matter therefore only remaining in the solution; the colouring matter being volatile and the sulphate of iron not, the former was obtained by distillation.

He then succeeded in forming the colouring matter; by heating together in a crucible equal parts of pot-ash and charcoal for half an hour, and then plunging into it small pieces of sal ammoniac. The mixture being dissolved in water was found to possess all the properties of the prussian alkali, agreeable to his opinion that the colouring matter is a compound of charcoal and ammonia.

Berthollet has ascertained that the *phlogisticated alkali*, as the alkali saturated with this colouring matter was called, is a triple salt composed of prussic acid, alkali, and oxide of iron, and that it may be obtained in octahedral crystals. He likewise found that on oxymuriatic being added to it, it derived an additional dose of oxygen, and the oxymuriatic was reduced

to muriatic acid. This OXY-PRUSSIC ACID is found to be more volatile and odorous than the prussic, less capable of union with alkalies, and precipitates iron, not blue, but green. If a greater quantity of oxymuriatic acid be added to the prussic acid, the latter falls to the bottom in the form of an aromatic oil, which is convertible by heat into vapour, and will not combine with iron.

Berthollet also ascertained that this acid contained the three simple combustible bodies, hydrogen, nitrogen, and carbon; and not discovering in it oxygen, he concluded it did not contain this acidifying principle. He was able to oxygenize it, however, by exposing it to the oxymuriatic gas. Notwithstanding it remarkably differs from other acids, yet, he concludes that it approaches the nearest to this class of bodies; at the same time possessing a close analogy to ammonia, as well as a strong tendency to change into that substance.

Fourcroy thinks the analysis of *Berthollet* not sufficiently nice to determine the presence of oxygen, which he supposes is to be inferred from the constant production of carbonic acid in every decomposition of prussic acid.

PRUSSIAN BLUE, which is a mixture of the prussiate of iron with alumine, is best formed by calcining in a crucible 3 parts of blood evaporated to dryness or the core of sheep's horns, with one part of the common pot-ash. The crucible should be lightly covered, and the calcination continued as long as a blue flame is seen to issue from the crucible. The mass, when cold, is to be thrown into 10 or 12 parts of water, and after soaking a few hours is to be boiled in an iron kettle. The residuum is to be washed and the whole of the liquid filtered, and to it is then to be added a solution of 2 parts alum, and 1 of sulphate of iron, in 8 or 10 of boiling water, as long as any precipitation ensues. The precipitate, which must be repeatedly washed, will be of a green colour, but on adding to it twice as much muriatic acid as there was sulphate of iron used, it will become of a beautiful blue, which must be repeatedly washed and then dried with a gentle heat.

• Sulphate of alumine is profitably employed in the precipita-

tion of prussian blue, its earth increasing the quantity: it may be deprived of this by digesting it with muriatic acid.

But the combinations of iron with prussic acid produce a considerable number of varieties, depending, as is shewn by *Thenard*, on the degree of oxidizement which has taken place in the iron, on the greater or smaller quantity of acid, and on the presence of the prussiate of pot-ash, which, agreeable to the observations of *Berthollet*, adheres very powerfully to the prussiate of iron.—*Ann. de Chim.* tom. LVI.

Prussiate of iron takes fire more readily than sulphur, and detonates violently with the oxymuriate of pot-ash, merely by percussion.

Lime water saturated with this colouring principle by digestion on prussian blue, is the most accurate test of the presence of iron; precipitating it of a fine blue.

The PRUSSIATE OF COPPER is recommended by Mr. Hatchett as a beautiful pigment. It had also been recommended by Mr. Hume for the same purpose.

PRUSSIATE OF POT-ASH is obtained pure by the following process proposed by Mr. Henry.—*Epitome of Chemistry*, 4th edition.

To a solution of alkali deprived of carbonic acid by lime, and heated nearly to the boiling point, prussian blue is to be added until its colour ceases to be discharged. The liquor and the washings of the sediment being filtered, are to be heated in an earthen vessel, and diluted sulphuric to be repeatedly applied as long as the liquor, on being assayed by this acid, deposits prussian blue in any considerable quantity. To this liquid a solution of sulphate of copper is added, as long as a reddish brown sediment falls, which being washed until the water comes off colourless, is to be dried on a chalkstone, powdered and added by degrees to a solution of pure alkali, with which it will form a prussiate of pot-ash, as free from iron as can be obtained, and which may be freed from any sulphate of pot-ash by gentle evaporation, the sulphate crystallizing first, and by a solution of barytes added as long, but no longer

than a white precipitate falls. The solution will yield the most beautiful crystals of prussiate of pot-ash.

Ammonia may be produced from the hyperoxygenised prussiates by the mere contact of fixed alkalies: the oxygen, uniting with the carbon, leaves the nitrogen to join the hydrogen, and form ammonia, whilst the excess of carbon and hydrogen forms carburetted hydrogen.

Proust describes prussian blue to be an oxide, whose basis contains 48-100 of oxygen.

The BOMBIC ACID is found to exist in all the states of the silk worm, in all its stages of existence, even in the eggs; but in the egg and in the worm, it is combined with a gummy glutinous substance.—*Chaussier*.

HARTSHORN gives name to several products used in medicine, which, though the preference is given to this horn, may be yielded by any other. By distillation an alkaline phlegm is first procured, which is called the *volatile spirit of hartshorn*; a reddish oil next comes over, more or less empyreumatic, this rectified, is the *animal oil of Dippel*; then rises a considerable quantity of the *carbonate of ammonia*, coloured by the oil, but from which it may be purified to a beautiful degree of whiteness. The coaly residuum contains soda, with sulphate and phosphate of lime, from the latter of which phosphorus may be obtained. Burnt entirely to an ash, it is the *calcined hartshorn* of the shops.

Dr. *Woodhouse*, of Pennsylvania, has discovered that five times the quantity of ammonia was obtained in a given time by distilling without, than with a lute, he supposing that the nitrogen of the atmosphere entered into the apparatus and joined with the hydrogen of the bones, and so forms the ammonia. 1800.

BONES consist chiefly of jelly, fat, and an earthy neutral salt. By distillation they yield hydrogen and carbonic acid gas, a volatile alkaline liquid, an empyreumatic oil and dry carbonate of ammonia, the residuum is a coal, which, when obtained with certain precautions, is used in the arts, and is called

ivory black. By open combustion this coal is reduced to ashes, which, unlike the ashes of vegetables, manifests no marks of fixed alkali.

The bones of the ox contain solid gelatin 51, phosphate of lime 37.7, carbonate of lime 10, and phosphate of magnesia 1.3. The above-mentioned salts being supposed to proceed from the farinaceous part of the food of animals: the phosphate of magnesia passing by the kidneys in man but not in other animals, hence the urine, and frequently the urinary concretions of man contain the ammoniaco-magnesian phosphate, which exists not in his bones; whilst in these other animals their urinary concretions are formed of carbonate of lime, and concretions are formed in their intestines of ammoniaco-magnesian phosphate, which, in them, is not carried off by the kidneys.—*Ann. de Chim.* No. 141.

As is justly observed, by Mr. Parkes, in his most useful and pleasing work. It is a curious fact that wheat *straw*, which was not intended for the food of man; and rather for the fodder, than the provender of beasts, contains *carbonate* and not phosphate of lime.—*Chemical Catechism*, p. 281.

The earth of calcined bones was discovered in 1769, to consist of lime united with the acid of urine. (*Gahn.*) It was then discovered, that by decomposing this salt of bones by the nitric and sulphuric acids, evaporating the residue, which contains the phosphoric acid in a disengaged state, and distilling the extract with powder of charcoal, phosphorus was obtained.—*Scheele*.

Pulverized burnt bones are to be mixed with half their weight of sulphuric acid, and after digesting two or three days, water must be added, and the mixture digested still further on the fire. The water of the lixivium, as well as the water with which the residuum is washed, to deprive it of its salts, is then to be evaporated in vessels of stone ware, until it affords an extract, which must then be dissolved in the least possible quantity of water, and filtered, that the sulphate of lime may be separated. This extract may be then put in a large crucible,

and the fire urged; when it swells up, but at last settles, and at that instant a *white glass*, of a milky hue, is formed*, which mixed with an equal quantity of charcoal, and distilled in a porcelain well coated retort, yields the phosphorus by distillation.

The theory of this operation may be thus explained. During the combustion of the bones, oxygen combining with the proper radical, forms PHOSPHORIC ACID, which with the lime generates PHOSPHATE OF LIME. Carbonate as well as prussiate of lime being also formed in the same manner, and at the same time. The phosphoric acid here is considered by *Gren* as a *product* of combustion, and not really an *educt*. But to return to the explanation of the process—the phosphoric acid is then displaced from the phosphate, by the sulphuric acid, which forms with the lime, sulphate of lime. By the succeeding operations, the sulphate is separated, and the acid is concentrated. By the distillation with charcoal, the phosphoric acid is decomposed; its oxygen unites with the coal, and affords carbonic acid, while the PHOSPHORUS itself is disengaged.

Fourcroy observes, that the acids decompose the phosphate of lime, only in part; that they take away only a portion of the base, and leave an acidulous phosphate, their action there ceasing. Two-fifths only in weight of the sulphuric acid is necessary for this, instead of two-thirds, which used to be employed.

After having dissolved the earthy base in any acid, its quantity may be known by separating it from its solution, by the addition of the oxalic acid; the precipitated oxalate shewing the quantity of earth, 100 parts of the precipitate containing 0,48 of lime. The free phosphoric acid being contained in the fluid. But to obtain the phosphorus, he recommends, instead of evaporating the lixivium, that acetate or nitrate of lead be added

* *Becher*, who was acquainted with this glass of bones, says, "*homo vitrum est, et in vitrum redigi potest.*" A skeleton of nineteen pounds, yields five pounds of phosphoric glass.

to the ley of the phosphate, when the acetic or nitric acid will unite with the lime, and the phosphoric acid will join the lead and be precipitated. This precipitate must then be well washed, and on being distilled with charcoal, double the quantity of phosphorus, in proportion, will be obtained, of what the usual process yields.

The phosphorus may be purified, by being immersed in a vessel of boiling water; since the phosphorus melts, and may be passed through a piece of chamois leather like mercury. The lower orifice of a funnel being stopped, phosphorus with water is to be put in it, and the funnel plunged in boiling water; as the heat is communicated the phosphorus melts, runs into the neck of the funnel, and takes that form; when cold it is to be thrust out of its mould, and kept under water: it leaves, according to *Proust*, a reddish phosphuret of carbon on the leather.—*Ann. de Chim.* c. 103.

C. Cabarris is of opinion, that the brain, with the nervous system, is the reservoir of phosphorus; phosphorescent lights accompanying its decomposition: the vividity of which, he thinks, bears some proportion to the activity of the nervous system during life.—*Institut. National.* 1801.

Scales of fish, and the *spicula of the shark's skin*, are, according to Mr. *Hatchett*, true bony substances, containing much phosphate of lime, with a greater proportion of the membranaceous part than in common bone.

Mr. *Hume* recommends as the most frugal process for obtaining phosphorus, to decompose phosphate of soda by *nitrate of lead*, to wash and separate the metallic phosphate; and to distil off the phosphorus in the usual manner by means of charcoal.—*Philos. Mag.* vol. xx.

From the quickness with which the bones acquire a red colour from feeding animals with madder, and from the speedy loss of that colour on ceasing to supply them with that substance, it has been supposed, that a correspondent speedy absorption and supply of osseous substance took place. But Mr. *Gibson* having exposed phosphate of lime thus coloured to the

action of water, and to that of serum of the blood, found that the phosphate in the water suffered no change, whilst that in the serum lost its colour, which was imparted to the serum. He hence concluded that the serum, when highly charged with this coloured matter, imparts it to the phosphate of lime in the bones; but when the supply of madder ceases, the serum of the blood, freed from the colouring matter by the secretions, exerts its superior attractions, and entirely abstracts it from the phosphate of lime in the bones.—*Manchester Memoirs*, 1805.

The ENAMEL OF TEETH, according to the very interesting experiments of Mr. *Hatchett*, dissolved without heat in muriatic acid, deposits selenite by the addition of sulphuric acid; after which the remaining fluid is rendered thick and viscid by evaporation. This, when diluted with water, precipitates lime from lime-water, in the state of phosphate. Acetite of lead also precipitates a white matter, which produces a light and smell, on burning charcoal, like phosphorus, and is soluble in nitrous acid; whereby it is distinguished from muriate or sulphate of lead. Enamel being also dissolved in nitric acid, and the solution saturated with carbonate of ammonia, a precipitate is formed, composed of lime combined with a portion of phosphoric acid: phosphoric acid is also precipitated from the remaining fluid, by solution of acetite of lead. The enamel is therefore not a carbonate, but a phosphate of lime. Lime and phosphoric acid appear to be the essentially constituent principles of *enamel*; the enamel appearing to differ from tooth or bone, by being destitute of cartilage, and by being principally formed of phosphate of lime, cemented by gluten.

Mr. *Pepys* has accurately analysed the enamel of teeth; and found it composed of 78 phosphate of lime, 6 carbonate of lime, 16 loss and water. The bone or the roots of teeth he found to be composed of 58 phosphate of lime, 4 carbonate of lime, 28 cartilage, 10 loss.—*For on the Teeth*, p. 69.

SHELLS, according to the same celebrated chemist, as to the substance of which they are composed, are either *porcellaneous*, with an enamelled surface, and when broken, often of a fibrous

texture; or are composed of *nacre*, or *mother of pearl*. It appears that the porcellaneous shells are composed of carbonate of lime, cemented by a very small portion of gluten; and that mother of pearl and pearl do not differ from these, except by a smaller portion of carbonate of lime; which, instead of being simply cemented by animal gluten, is intermixed with, and serves to harden, a membranaceous or cartilaginous substance; and this substance, even when deprived of the carbonate of lime, still retains the figure of the shell. These shells appear to be formed of various membranes applied *stratum super stratum*, each membrane having a corresponding coat, or crust, or carbonate of lime. The inhabitants of these stratified shells increase their habitation by new strata, each stratum exceeding in extent those which were previously formed, the shell becoming stronger in proportion as it is enlarged, and its number of strata denoting its age.

Mother of pearl, according to *Merat-Guillot*, contains 66 carbonate of lime, 34 membrane.—*Ann. de Chim.* xxxiv. 71.

TOOTH and BONE being steeped in acids, the ossifying substances are dissolved: the enamel of the tooth is completely taken up by the acid, while the cartilage of the bony part of the tooth is left, as is the case with other bones, retaining the shape of the tooth, and a cartilage or membrane of the figure of the bone remains. These effects, as well as those from exposure to fire, show a similarity between enamel and the porcellaneous shells, as well as between the substance of tooth and bone, and shells composed of mother of pearl. Thus porcellaneous shells resemble enamel, in suffering a complete dissolution in acids, and not leaving any pulpy or cartilaginous matter; whilst shells of *nacre*, like bone, and the substance of tooth, part with their ossifying substances in certain acids, and their bases remain in the state of membrane or cartilage. The basis varying in different shells, and in different bones, in its degrees of inspissation, from a very attenuated gluten to a tough jelly, and from this to a perfectly organized membrane composed of

fibres, arranged according to the configuration of the shell or bone.

The CUTTLE BONE of the shops, appears in composition exactly to resemble shell, it consisting of various membranes, hardened by carbonate of lime, without the smallest mixture of phosphate.

The CRUST OF THE ECHINUS approaches most nearly to the shells of the eggs of birds, consisting of carbonate, with a small proportion of phosphate of lime, cemented by gluten.

Merat-Guillot obtained from lobster crust 60 carbonate of lime, 14 phosphate of lime, 26 cartilage; and from cray-fish crust 60 carbonate of lime, 12 phosphate of lime, and 28 cartilage.—*Ann. de Chim.* xxxiv. 71.

The ASTERIAS RUBENS manifests a portion of carbonate of lime, without any mixture of phosphate, but in the ASTERIAS PAPPOSA a small quantity of phosphate of lime is discovered. In the *crustaceous covering of marine animals*, such as the *crab, lobster, prawn, and cray-fish*, carbonate and phosphate of lime, but the former in the largest proportion, are found. Phosphate of lime mingled with the carbonate, appearing to be the chemical characteristic which distinguishes the crustaceous from the testaceous substances. The presence of phosphate of lime evinces an approximation to the nature of bone, which consists principally, as far as the ossifying substance is concerned, of phosphate of lime. By these ingenious investigations of Mr. *Hatchett*, carbonate of lime was also discovered to enter into the composition of bones; but as the carbonate exceeds in quantity the phosphate of lime, in eggshells and crustaceous animals; so in bones it is the reverse. It is possible that shells, containing only carbonate of lime, and bones containing only phosphate of lime, will form the two extremities of the chain. Bones of fish appear to contain more of the cartilaginous substance, and less of the phosphate of lime, than is commonly found in the bones of quadrupeds.

CARTILAGE, and such HORNS as are distinctly separate

from bone, as are those of the *ox*, the *ram*, and *chamois*, also *tortoiseshell*, contain phosphate of lime, but in too small a quantity to be considered as one of their constituent principles. Five hundred grains of the horns of an ox yielding only 1,50 grains of residuum, less than half of which is phosphate of lime. *Buck's* or *stag's horn*, has every chemical character of bone, with some excess of cartilage. By experiment on dry hog's BLADDER, it appears that phosphate of lime is not an essential ingredient of membrane.

The *bones of the Gibraltar rock* consist principally of phosphate of lime; and the cavities have been partly filled by the carbonate of lime, which cements them together. Fossil bones resemble bones which, by combustion, have been deprived of their cartilaginous part, retaining the figure of the original bone, without being bone in reality, as one of the most essential parts have been taken away.

The destruction or decomposition of the cartilaginous parts of teeth and bones in a fossil state, must have been the work of a very long period of time, unless accelerated by the action of some mineral principle; for after steeping in muriatic acid, the os humeri of a man, brought from Hythe, in Kent, and said to be taken from a Saxon tomb, the remaining cartilage was found nearly as complete as that of a recent bone. Mr. *H.* questions, if bodies consisting of phosphate of lime, like bones, have concurred materially to form strata of limestones or chalk; for it appears to be improbable that phosphate is converted into carbonate of lime, after these bodies have become extraneous fossils. *Glossopetræ* also yielded phosphate and carbonate of lime, the latter appearing to be derived from the calcareous strata which had inclosed them, and which had taken the place of the decomposed cartilage.—Mr. *Hatchett*, *Phil. Trans.* 1799.

Morichini discovered the fluoric acid in the enamel of the fossil tooth of an elephant, and in the enamel of human teeth, 100 parts of which latter he supposes to contain 30 of animal substance, a little *magnesia*, *alumine*, and *carbonic acid*, and

22 of the *fluoric*, and *phosphoric acids*, in combination with lime.

Gay Lausac obtained also *fluoric acid* from *ivory*, both recent and fossil, and from the *tusk of the boar*.—*Ann. de Chim.* cah. 165.

Fourcroy and *Vauquelin* repeated these experiments, first of all calcining the substances on which the experiment was made. They were hereby enabled to conclude that *fluoric acid* does not exist in new ivory nor in enamel of the teeth; but that such fossil ivories as have lost their animal matter, contain some hundredths of *fluoric acid*: the origin of which they are unable to ascertain.—*Ann. de Chim.* tom. LVI. p. 37.

MADREPORES and MILLEPORES, like the various shells, appear from the experiments of the same gentleman, to be formed of a gelatinous, or membranaceous substance, hardened by carbonate of lime; the only difference being in the mode according to which these materials have been employed. So completely the same is the nature of these bodies, that all the changes or gradations observable in shells are discoverable in these. *Tubipora musica* resembles the foregoing. *Flustra foliacea*, and *Corallina opuntia*, contain also a small portion of phosphate of lime; their membranaceous part resembling that of certain madrepores and millepores. *Isis ochracea*, and *Isis Hippuris*, are formed of regularly organised membranaceous, cartilaginous, and horny substances, hardened in the latter, merely by carbonate of lime, and in the former, by the addition of a very small portion of phosphate of lime. *Gorgonia nobilis* holds also a small portion of phosphate, but its membranaceous part is in two states, the interior being gelatinous, and the external a membrane completely formed. *Gorgonia ceratophyta*, *flabellum*, *suberosa*, *pectinata*, and *setosa*, consist of two parts, the horny stems and the cortical substance. The horny substance of the stems is found to contain a quantity of phosphate of lime, but scarcely any trace of carbonate, and by maceration in diluted nitric acid, this substance becomes soft and transparent, resembling a cartilaginous body; the cor-

tical part, on the contrary, consists principally of carbonate of lime, with little or none of the phosphate, and is deposited on a soft, flexible membranaceous substance, which seems much to approach to the nature of cuticle. *Gorgonia antipathes* was found to be entirely formed of a fibrous membrane; and the *black, shining gorgonia*, afforded by maceration a beautiful specimen of membranes, concentrically arranged. A *gorgonia* resembling the *antipathes*, and similar to it in the membranaceous part, held so large a portion of phosphate of lime, as to approach to the nature of stag's or buck's horn. SPONGES appear to be completely formed, by a membranaceous substance, resembling that of the horny stems of the gorgoniæ, varying in construction rather than in composition. *Alecyonium asbestinum*, *ficus*, and *arboreum* are found to be composed of a membranaceous part, similar to the cortical part of some of the *gorgoniæ*, and, in like manner, slightly hardened by carbonate, with a small portion of phosphate of lime.

It appears, therefore, that the varieties of bone, shell, coral, and the numerous tribe of zoophytes, only differ in composition, by the nature and quantity of the hardening, or ossifying principle, and by the state of the substance with which it is mixed or connected. For the gluten or jelly which cements the particles of carbonate or phosphate of lime, and the membrane, cartilage, or horny substance, which serves as a basis, in and upon which the ossifying matter is secreted and deposited, seem to be only modifications of the same substance, which progressively graduates from a viscid liquid or gluten, into that gelatinous substance which has so often been noticed; and which again, by increased inspissation, and by the various and more or less perfect degrees of organic arrangement, forms the varieties of membrane, cartilage, and horn.

The membranaceous part of all these substances, shells, madrepores, *flustra*, &c. was dissolved in lixivium of caustic pot-ash, and formed animal soap.—*Phil. Trans.* 1800.

SYNOVIA appears to contain water, albumen, muriate of soda, carbonate of soda, and phosphate of lime; the latter,

Mr. *Hatchett* found, but in a small quantity, 480 grains not yielding more than one grain. It can therefore be hardly considered as one of its constituent principles.

Margueron believes part of the albumen to exist in the synovia in a peculiar state. *Fourcroy* is of opinion, that what he thus describes is an *animal substance of a peculiar nature*, not yet described.

TEARS are secreted by the lachrymal glands, and are chiefly composed of a peculiar kind of mucilage, muriate of soda, phosphate of lime, phosphate of soda, and soda in a free and apparently caustic state.—*Jacquin*.

HUMOURS OF THE EYE. Mr. *Chevenix* has ascertained that the *aqueous* and *vitreous* humours are formed of water slightly impregnated with *albumen*, *gelatine*, and *muriate of soda*: and that the *crystalline lens* is composed of *albumen* and *gelatine* only, combined with water.—*Philos. Trans.*

SALIVA is secreted by its appropriate glands in the neighbourhood of the mouth; it does not appear to differ in its constituent parts from mucus, except in containing a greater quantity of water; and some phosphate from which concretions are sometimes formed in the ducts or glands, and perhaps the tartar on the teeth, both being of a bony nature.—*Fourcroy*.

CERUMEN, according to *Vauquelin*, is composed of an albuminous mucilage, with a fat oil and colouring matter, both much resembling what is contained in bile.

PUS is secreted from vessels which are under the influence of some morbid change. It appears by its analysis to differ very little in its constituent parts from mucus: it is, however, said to undergo the acid fermentation, while the former becomes putrid. (*Salmuth*.) Mixed with an equal quantity of a saturated solution of carbonated pot-ash, pus, it is said, will disengage a transparent tenacious jelly, but that mucus will not.

SEMEN, in 1000 parts, appears to contain water, 900; animal mucilage, 60; soda, 10; and phosphate of lime, 30 parts: the latter crystallizing during evaporation in the air, and the soda by attracting carbonic acid being rendered a carbonate of

soda. It has a peculiar smell and acrid taste, and changes violets green. When fresh, it is quite insoluble in water, but afterwards combines easily with it. After its discharge, it becomes more opaque and consistent, but in a few hours it becomes even more clear and fluid than before, and in a few days deposits rhomboidal and foliated crystals of phosphate of lime.

SWEAT. Its smell and taste varies much in different subjects; in general, it changes blue vegetable juices red; this property is said to be chiefly possessed by the sweat of gouty persons, and to be occasioned by the presence of phosphoric acid.

LIQUOR OF THE AMNIOS. This, by the analysis of *Buniva* and *Vauquelin*, appears to differ considerably in women and in cows. In the former, albuminous matter, soda, muriate of soda, and phosphate of lime, is contained in the proportion of 0,012 only, in water. It deposits on the body of the fœtus a cheese-like matter, which is not acted on by oils, or by alcohol; appearing to be a mixture of animal mucilage and fat, formed, in their opinion, by a degeneration of the albuminous matter, which assumes the character of fat, in the same manner as happens to fœtuses detained in the uterus beyond the natural period. This liquor in cows differs from that of women in its taste, colour, specific gravity, and greater degree of viscosity. It contains a peculiar animal matter, soluble in water, and insoluble in alcohol; not convertible into jelly like animal mucilage, nor combining with tannin, ammonia, prussic acid, or empyreumatic oil, like the vegetable mucilage. They also ascertained that it contained an acid of a particular nature, which they term the **AMNIOTIC ACID**. Unlike the *saccholactic* it yields ammonia by distillation, and unlike the *uric* it is soluble in boiling alcohol, and crystallizes in long, white, and shining needles.—*Ann. de Chim.* No. 99.

The **ZOONIC ACID** is a new acid, which *Berthollet* supposes he had obtained from bones, woollen rags, and various animal matters, also from the gluten of wheat, and the yeast of beer.

Its existence has, however, been rendered doubtful by the

observations of *Thenard*, who conceives it to be only a peculiar combination of acetic acid with animal matter.

The FORMIC ACID, or the *acid of ants*, exists in so disengaged a state, that the transpiration of these animals, and their simple contact proves its existence. The large red ant furnishes the greatest quantity, and seems to be most replete with it in the months of June and July, when its merely passing over blue paper, is sufficient to turn it red. The experiments of *Fourcroy* and *Vauquelin* have, however, shown that this acid is a mixture of the *malic* and *acetic*.

It had been discovered to be very analogous to the acetic acid by *Arvidson* and *Oeihn*. An acid may likewise be obtained from the *millepedes*. (*Lister*.) From the fluid rejected by the *great forked tail caterpillar of the willow*. (*Bonnet*.)—From *grasshoppers*, the *may-bug*, the *lampyris*, and *silk-worm*. The acid is extracted by digesting the subject of experiment in alcohol, which dissolves the acid, and precipitates the foreign animal matters.

The EGGS OF BIRDS consist of an osseous covering called the shell, a membrane, the albumen or the white, and the yolk. The shell, like bones, contains a gelatinous principle, with the carbonate and the phosphate of lime. The white, which is in two layers, is of the same nature as the serum of blood: heat coagulates it, so do acids and alcohol. By distillation it affords water, carbonate of ammonia, and empyreumatic oil, a coal remaining in the retort which yields soda and phosphate of lime. It is supposed eggs contain *sulphur* from the disengagement of sulphuretted hydrogen gas, manifested by its blackening silver, as soon as it comes in contact with the moisture of the mouth. Sulphur has also been said to have been obtained from it by sublimation. (*Déyena*.) The yolk of eggs also contains a lymphatic substance, mixed with a certain quantity of mild oil, which, on account of this mixture, is soluble in water.

Vauquelin ascertained that a hen, during ten days, ate 1111,843 grains of oats, containing 136,509 gr. phosphate of

lime, 219,548 silica: the excrements, during the same time, contained 175,529 gr. phosphate of lime, 58,494 gr. carbonate of lime, and 185,266 gr. silica. A surprising circumstance is here observable, 34,282 gr. of silica disappeared, and 137,796 grains of phosphate of lime, besides 511,911 grains of carbonate of lime, are discharged beyond the quantity taken in. Whence do these proceed—Of what materials have they been composed—What became of the deficient silica—Had the fowl any reservoir of redundant calcareous matter which yielded the surplus?

WOOL is but little acted on by water, even boiling; nor have the acids any particular action on it, except the nitric, which separates from it nitrogen gas, oxalic acid, and an oily matter. The caustic alkalies dissolve it entirely in a saponaceous form. It appears to be a semi-oily substance, highly hydrogenated, and is directly reduced to an oily state by the separation of its nitrogen.

SCALES OF FISHES are formed of gelatin, and contain a beautiful pearl colouring matter. This is employed to form artificial pearls: the scales are rubbed off from the bleak (*Cyprinus albus*) in which it is very brilliant; they are then dried and put into liquid ammonia, and diffused over the internal surface of small glass bubbles. This substance thus obtained is called *oriental essence of PEARLS*.

The HAIR and BRISTLES of animals differ both from the bones and white animal soft parts, containing less jelly, fat, and lymph; and appear most to resemble the structure and composition of horn.

Vauquelin has ascertained that in *black hair* there exist nine different substances. 1. An *animal matter*: mucus or something similar to it. 2. A *white concrete oil* in small quantity. 3. A *blackish green oil*, more abundant than the former. 4. *Iron*. 5. *Manganese*. 6. *Phosphate of lime*. 7. *Carbonate of lime*. 8. *Silex* in a conspicuous quantity. 9. *Sulphur*.

In *red hair* the oil is *reddish*, instead of being of a blackish

green; and in *white hair* the oil is nearly colourless, and contains *phosphate of magnesia*. The blackness of hair he supposes to depend on the combination of sulphur with the iron, as well as on the colour of the oil. In the carrot and flaxen as well as in the white, he supposes there to be an excess of sulphur.—*Annales de Chimie*. T. LVIII.

FEATHERS appear to differ chiefly, chemically considered, from hair and bristles, in containing a still smaller proportion of fat and jelly. The quills, however, approach more to the nature of horn.

SILK, and the web of other caterpillars, much resemble wool in their chemical properties. Silk in its natural state contains a substance possessing the properties of *resin*, and on which its yellow colour depends: it is also covered with a *varnish*, from which its elasticity proceeds, and which approaches in its nature to gelatine. *Welter* treated silk with the nitric acid, to obtain oxalic acid: when obtained he returned it, with some water and the contents of the receiver, into the retort, and by several distillations procured a *silky salt* of a golden yellow colour, which acted as gunpowder on the contact of an ignited body. Its crystals are octahedrous and of a bitter taste. This appears to be the same matter as that which has already been spoken of when treating of muscular flesh.—*Phil. Journal*, Sept. 1799.

CANTHARIDES are insects which, applied in fine powder to the epidermis, cause blisters and excite heat in the urine, with strangury. They produce the same effects on the urinary passage, taken internally in small doses. Water extracts from them a reddish bitter extract, and a yellowish oily matter; and ether takes up a green, very acrid oil, in which the virtues of the cantharides most eminently reside. To form a tincture, which unites all the properties of the cantharides, equal parts of alcohol and water must be employed: if spirit of wine alone be used, it takes up only the caustic part. According to *Beauvoil* a yellow, a black, and a green matter are obtained

from the cantharides : the first of these appearing to be most injurious to the urinary passages, whilst the green substance is in that respect innoxious.—*Annales de Chimie*. No. 142.

MILLEPEDES, *aselli*, *porcelli*, *woodlice*. These yield, by distillation, an insipid or alkaline phlegm, the residue affording an extractive matter, an oily waxy substance, soluble in spirit of wine only, and a muriate, with an earthy and an alkaline base.

COCHINEAL. These insects are more especially used in dyeing ; their colour takes readily upon wool : the most suitable mordant is the muriate of tin. Florence lake is formed by precipitation, by fixed alkalies, of the colouring matter, and of alumine from a decoction of cochineal in sulphate of alumine.

AMBERGRIS is a light ash-coloured body, chiefly found on the sea-shores in the East Indies. It yields a grateful smell, and softens with heat. 1. According to *Bouillon le Grange* its constituent parts are adipo-circ, 2,016 ; resin, 1,167 ; benzoic acid, 0,425 ; and carbonic matter, 0,212.—*Annales de Chimie*. No. 139.

Ambergris has been found in the intestines of a whale, and has been also expelled by the fundament. It is found most commonly in sickly fish, and is supposed to be the cause or effect of disease.—*Phil. Trans.* 1791.

LAC, or GUM LAC, is a kind of wax collected by red-winged ants from flowers in the East Indies, which they transport to the small branches of the tree where they make their nests. The Hindoos have six names for lac ; but they generally call it Lácshà, from the multitude of small insects, which, as they believe, discharge it from their stomachs on the tree, on which they form their colonies. The Lácshà, or Lac insect, is a genus in the class of Hemiptera. The *chermes lacca* is always found on the branches of the *mimosa glauca*, or *mimosa cinerea*, or on a new species called by the Gentoos *conda corinda*.—*Dr. W. Roxburgh, Phil. Trans.* 1790.

There are four kinds of lac : stick lac ; seed lac ; lump lac ;

and shell lac. Mr. Hatchett, who has carefully analysed all the varieties, finds lac to consist principally of resin, mixed with certain proportions of a peculiar kind of wax, of gluten, and of colouring extract. It may be considered as a *cero-resin*, mixed with gluten and colouring extract. The Indians use it as a japan or varnish; the colouring part is used as a lake; the resinous part is even employed to form grindstones, when mixed with fine sand or the powder of corundum. They also dissolve shell lac in water, with a little borax, and mix it with ivory or lamp black, and thereby form an ink not easily acted on by damp or water. Thus, as Mr. Hatchett observes, we are taught to prepare an aqueous solution of lac of extensive utility: particularly as a varnish and a vehicle for colours; which, though actually mixed with water, yet, when dry, forms a substance little if at all affected by it. The pure alkalies also, and some of the acids, have the power of dissolving lac, and thus rendering it an aqueous varnish. But in none of the solutions is the entire substance of the lac completely dissolved; since the wax is only partially combined with the alkali, forming an imperfectly soluble saponaceous compound, which disturbs the transparency of the solution. Alcohol dissolves a considerable portion of lac: if without heat, the resin and some of the colouring matter is dissolved; but if with heat the solution is fouled by the mixture of the other ingredients.—*Phil. Trans.* 1794.

Dr. Pearson obtained an acid of a peculiar nature, which he named LACCIC ACID, from a substance obtained from Madras, which was called *white lac*. It is a reddish liquor, of a bitter saltish taste, is volatile, and crystallises in acicular crystals. It acquires a green colour from lime water, and a purplish one from sulphate of iron.—*Phil. Trans.* 1794.

The HUMAN EXCREMENTS, *Vauquelin* is convinced, are constantly acid, and very susceptible of fermentation, by which their acidity is augmented: but that, nevertheless, the formation of ammonia succeeds to this acidity, and continues until their complete decomposition is effected.

In the excrements of fowls are found carbonate, phosphate of lime, and silex. In the oats, on which they feed, exist silex and phosphate of lime, but not in a quantity nearly equal to what is found in the eggs and excrements; and although they appear to pick up stones indiscriminately, they prefer flint; hence it becomes difficult to ascertain whence this excess of lime is obtained. *Fourcroy* discovering that the excrement, at the same time, contains a less proportion of silex than the oats did on which the fowl had been nourished, asks—‘*Ought we to conclude that the silex has served to furnish the excess of the lime?*’

The **INTESTINAL GASES** appear to vary with the state of the intestines; when digestion proceeds regularly, carbonic acid gas appears to be evolved; but when this, as well as the action of the intestines, is disturbed, sulphuretted hydrogen and carburetted hydrogen are separated. If a lighted taper be applied to the vapour which escapes from the punctured intestines of a cow, distended with flatus, it will directly inflame it.

The **SWIMMING BLADDERS OF FISHES** are filled by a very pure *nitrogen gas*.—*Berger. Journ. de Phys.* 1803.

OF ANIMAL PUTREFACTION.

Every animal body, when deprived of life, suffers a gradual decomposition or resolution, which is effected chiefly by the access of air, aided by a due degree of moisture and of heat. Its colour first becomes pale; its consistence diminishes, its texture is relaxed, and a faint and disagreeable smell is emitted. The colour at this time changes to blue and green, the parts become more and more softened, the smell becomes fetid, and the colour of an obscure brown. The fibres now yield, the texture is more resolved, the putrid and nauseous smell is mixed with a smell of a more penetrating kind, arising from the disengagement of ammoniacal gas; after this the mass becomes of still less and less consistence, the smell more faint and nauseous, and the effluvia exceedingly active and injurious; arising, it has been said, from the separation of phosphuretted

and carburetted hydrogen gas; a separation of phosphoric light taking place at the same time. When it has continued in this state some time, the mass again swells up, and carbonic acid gas is separated; this part of the process is protracted for some time, when it changes into a soft putrid mass.

A great part of the hydrogen, and the remaining carbon, with the other fixed radicals, now gradually form a dark, brown, soft, earthy matter. This result forms *soil*, which, mixed with *mould*, the remains of vegetable putrefaction, forms the common receptacle for the roots, and germinating seeds of vegetables.

When this resolution takes place at the same time with vegetable matter, as in marshes, some portion of the hydrogen and phosphorus produces the *ignes fatui*, and such luminous appearances. If this resolution is accomplished in a confined place a foul *musty* smell is discoverable.

Heat, moisture, and the access of air should be avoided, if it be intended to prevent this process from taking place. In one or other of these modes the various antiseptic processes act, such as covering with resins and balsams, drying, salting, and smoking, immersion in spirits, freezing water, &c.

For correcting infectious matters which may be contained in the air, Dr. *James Carmichael Smith* employs the vapour of nitric acid. But *Guyton* asserts the superiority of the oxygenated muriatic acid in this respect, since it is most efficacious and easy of diffusion. The burning of sulphur can only be used for walls and clothes. To disengage the muriatic acid, 15 parts of muriate of soda and about 15 of sulphuric acid should be used, adding the acid gradually: and if for an uninhabited room, heat may be employed, and all openings closed; but if inhabited, heat should be omitted, and the apparatus moved about the room. For the oxygenated muriatic acid, 2 parts of the oxide of manganese, 10 of muriate of soda, and 6 of sulphuric acid, first mixed with 4 parts of water, may be used without heat. For the nitric acid equal parts of nitrate of pot-ash and of sulphuric acid may be employed without

heat. *Guyton* also recommends a mixture of oxide of manganese and nitro-muriatic acid, to be kept in vessels corked for occasional diffusion by removing the cork.—*Annales de Chimie*. No. 144.

ELECTRICITY.

THE electric fluid, the active influence of which is such as to manifest itself in many of nature's grandest processes, and to be suspected in many others where positive proof of its agency is wanting, demands our particular notice.

The particles of this fluid are supposed to repel each other, and to attract and be attracted by the particles of other bodies, with a force diminishing as the distances increase. This fluid is supposed to pass through the pores of some bodies with ease and velocity; these bodies are, therefore, called *CONDUCTORS*: whilst it is incapable of passing through others, which are, therefore, called *NON-CONDUCTORS*. Metals, charcoal, fluid acids, water, and moist animal or vegetable substances, possess the property of conducting this fluid in a high degree. Glass, wax, resin, sulphur, phosphorus, oils, dry gases, and the solid compounds containing earths only, or alkaline substances, are among the non-conductors.

It is capable not only of being transferred from one body to another, but even of being accumulated in one, whilst the proportion of it in another body is thereby proportionally diminished. In the former of these cases, the body is said to be *positively*, and in the latter *negatively* electrified.

Its chemical powers are very considerable: by its aid, *oxygen* and *nitrogen* are made to unite and form *nitric acid*; *water* is decomposed by it into *oxygen* and *hydrogen*; and *ammonia* into *nitrogen* and *hydrogen*.

The electric fluid is excited into a state of activity by the friction of two non-conductors, or of a conductor and a non-conductor. It is also excited by a change of temperature, and most probably, every change of aggregation, if attended to, would manifest the marks of an alteration taking place in the quantity of this fluid.

Its presence, in different substances, is generally indicated by their attracting or repelling light bodies, on being subjected to friction. Lightning, thunder, aurora borealis, and various other meteorological phenomena, show the importance of this fluid in some of the grandest operations of nature.

GALVANISM.

GALVANISM embraces the phenomena which result from different conductors of electricity being placed under different circumstances of contact.

The conductors must be either perfect, or imperfect conductors of electricity; and the galvanic phenomena may be produced by two conductors of one of these classes placed in contact with each other, in one or more points, and in other distinct points with a conductor of the other class: thus gold and zinc may be made to touch each other in some points, and may be connected in other points, by a portion of common water. To produce the galvanic phenomena with any considerable effect, several series of conductors, thus disposed, should be employed. Then, not only may an acid taste, a flash of light, the contractions of muscles just detached from a living body, the oxidizement of metals, and the decomposition of acids and of water, be produced; but shocks on the human body analogous to the electric shock, and brilliant

sparks, with the deflagration of even silver and gold, may also be occasioned by this fluid, under certain circumstances.

Galvani discovered, in 1791, the contraction of detached muscles, by means of this fluid. He thought it to be the consequence of the forming of an equilibrium of the galvanic fluid, between the interior and exterior of the muscle, he supposing the former to be charged *plus*.

Volta, in 1793, denied this hypothesis, and supposed the effects to be caused merely by a small quantity of electricity being excited by the action of two different metals on each other, which stimulates the limb, which by its preparation is rendered exceedingly sensible of this species of irritation. He found it affected only such animals as had distinct limbs, and only such muscles as are subject to the will. By the application of a plate of silver on one side, and of zinc on the other side of the tongue, and then bringing them in contact at one point, he found an acid taste was produced.

Valli, in 1793, from these and other phenomena, formed a theory of animal electricity: conceiving that, in these cases, the metals effected an equilibrium in parts charged with different quantities of the fluid.

Dr. Fowler refuted this theory, and doubted the identity of the fluid by which galvanic and electric phenomena were produced. He first discovered a flash of light, perceived as in the eye, when it was subjected to this influence.

Dr. Robison discovered the increase of this power in a pile composed of alternate pieces of zinc and silver.

Dr. Darwin, in 1794, regarded the phenomena of galvanism as electrical, and accounted for the muscular contractions by the extreme sensibility of the nerves to this particular stimulus.

Mr. Bennet, in 1789, had discovered that a separate plate of zinc is in a *minus* state, and one of silver in a *plus* state; on being brought nearly together therefore, a small plate of air becomes charged like a Leyden phial.

Dr. Wells, in 1795, found that one metal and charcoal produced the effects as well as two metals, and that contractions

could be excited by one metal, when it had been rubbed upon another metal, or even upon the hand. He found that charcoal might, by the same means, be made to produce the same effects; and although he does not allow any electricity to be thus excited, either in the charcoal or the metal; he believes that the phenomena are electrical, since the influence is conducted by conductors of electricity only.

Fabroni, in *Nicholson's Journal* for 1800, noticing the oxidization of metals, whilst under this influence, concluded it to be a chemical phenomenon merely. In this year, *Volta* announced his discovery of the galvanic pile, formed by plates of two different metals, as zinc and silver, disposed alternately with moistened pasteboard between them. By connecting the ends of the pile by the hands, he obtained a strong shock, and produced many curious experiments.

Mr. Nicholson, in the same year, employed much of his ingenuity in examining these phenomena, and devoted a considerable portion of his excellent journal to their investigation. By making a tube of water form part of the line connecting the two ends of the pile, he found from the wire passing into the water from the silver end, hydrogen separated; whilst the other, if an oxidable metal, became oxidized, but, if platina, he found oxygen was evolved. Thus was ascertained its *chemical action, and its powers of decomposing water*.

Mr. Carlisle assisted *Mr. Nicholson* in these experiments, and these gentlemen discovered the electricity to be *minus* in the silver end, and *plus* in the zinc end of the pile; and distinctly saw the spark.

Mr. Cruickshank confirmed the observations derived from these experiments, by subjecting to the influence of the two wires, various chemical tests. *Mr. W. Henry* proceeded still further, by thus producing the decomposition of sulphuric, nitric, oxygenized muriatic acids and ammonia.

Col. Haldane, about this time, ascertained that the effects of the galvanic pile were suspended, if it was immersed in water, or placed in *vacuo*; and from its not acquiring an increase of

power by a connection with the electrical machine, he concluded that its effects are not referable to electricity. The Colonel also discovered that the effects were increased in oxygen, but suspended in nitrogen.

Mr. *Cruikshank* proposed the disposal of the plates in a trough, as more convenient and efficient.

Mr. *Davy* found the gases were produced when the wires were made to terminate in two portions of water, kept distinct from each other. By connecting the ends of the pile with two glasses of water, by pieces of muscular fibre, and connecting the glasses also by a single intermediate wire, the effects of the pile were reversed, at the zinc end hydrogen, and at the silver end oxygen being disengaged.

Mr. *Cruikshank* found that a small portion of oxygen and of ammonia was mixed with the hydrogen discharged from the wire of the silver end; and when the wire at the zinc end was not oxidizable with the oxygen gas, a little nitrogen and nitrous acid were evolved. He discovered that the influence of the pile was capable of being transmitted through charcoal, from an apparatus formed of this substance and silver, from the silver end carbon being disengaged with the hydrogen, and from the other end little gas of any kind; he supposing carbonic acid to be formed, which became directly absorbed. He found that pure water is ineffectual in the pile, and supposed the effects to be produced in proportion to the degree of oxidizement of the zinc. Thus sulphuric acid he found less powerful than when it was diluted, its oxidizing effects being thereby increased; and nitric acid still more powerful than either. He found, by the aid of a little acid, the pile would act in *vacuo*; and that a pile of zinc and charcoal was found to possess great energy.

Mr. *Cruikshank*, about this time, charged the Leyden phial by means of the galvanic pile.

Mr. *Davy* constructed a pile with one metal only, employing fluids of different conducting powers.

Tromsdorff and Mr. *Pepys* consumed pieces of gold leaf by

the spark, and Mr. *Cruikshank* discovered the silver end emitted a brush-like emanation, indicating a *plus* state, and the zinc end a dense spark, shewing a *minus* state.

Guyton and *Biot* have found that the absorption of the oxygen of the air, by the pile, is very considerable. *Garth-net* has made effective galvanic piles, without any metallic substance whatever.

Fourcroy discovered that combustion took place in proportion to the quantity of surface, and that the shock was in proportion to the number of the plates.

Dr. *Wollaston*, agreeable to Mr. *Davy's* remark, found the galvanic effects proportioned to the degrees of oxidizement. A piece of silver and of zinc being placed in diluted sulphuric acid, but not in contact, the zinc only was acted on, and yielded hydrogen: but on being brought into contact, the silver was also acted on in the same manner. During the action of acids on metals, he concludes that electricity is disengaged, and observes that the amalgam employed in electrical machines becomes oxidized, as electricity is generated. The Doctor concludes with Mr. *Nicholson*, that it differs from electricity, only by existing in a state of low intensity. The Doctor first discovered that, by taking a spark between two silver wires, connected with the two conductors of an electrical machine, through a solution of copper, the copper became reduced at the end of the negative wire.

Mr. *Davy's* next important discovery was, that the pile might be formed by pieces of charcoal only, their different sides being exposed to the action of different fluids.

Dr. *Van Marum* charged even batteries from the pile, and found many points of resemblance between the galvanic and electric influence; and observed, with *Fourcroy*, that the facility of combustion agreed with the size of the plates.

Dr. *Priestly*, with his accustomed assiduity and well-known intelligence, has furnished some interesting experiments. The *Philosophical Magazine* of Mr. *Tilloch* contains some useful observations on this curious subject.

Dr. *Bostock*, of whose compendious history of galvanism, contained in Mr. *Nicholson's Journal*, the above is a slight sketch, ingeniously endeavours thus to account for the phenomena. He conceives that the electric fluid is separated during oxidizement, and that it has a strong attraction for hydrogen, with which it combines, when passing through water from an oxidizable substance, and from which it is again separated when it returns to the oxidizable conductor. At the zinc or plus end, he supposes the water to be decomposed, the oxygen either escaping or combining with the wire, if oxidizable, in consequence of the hydrogen being attracted by the electric fluid, which is thereby enabled to pass through the water; but on the arrival of this compound at the other wire, the electricity is received by it, and the hydrogen, if it be in water, is separated in a gaseous form, and, if it be in a metallic solution, it unites with, and reduces the metal. In the pile he supposes repetitions of this process to take place, by which the electric matter becomes accumulated in increasing degrees of quantity and power, in each successive pair of plates.

Mr. *Simon*, of Berlin, first published, in the *Journal of Gilbert*, in 1801, that employing two tubes filled with distilled water, communicating by means of a muscular fibre, and connected by two gold wires with the two positive and negative poles of a voltaic pile, he found the water on the zinc side to contain muriatic acid, which had become oxygenized, by the oxygen generated during the process.

Cruikshank, as we have already seen, about the same time discovered that an acid was formed at one end of the pile, and an alkali at the other; the former he conjectured was the nitrous acid, and the latter ammonia. On plunging a gold wire from the positive pole into a solution of muriate of lime, the gold was corroded, and the smell of nitro-muriatic acid produced: and with a solution of muriate of soda he obtained muriatic acid, without the decomposition of the water, so that this acid appeared to be of new formation.

Mr. *Peel*, of Cambridge, led by observing that when water

was decomposed by means of galvanism, the water near one of the wires had alkaline, while that near the other had acid properties, decomposed half of a pint of distilled water, and on examining the remaining half pint he found it contained a small portion of *muriate of soda*.—*Philos. Mag.* vol. XXII.

On repeating the experiment with water formed from the combustion of hydrogen and oxygen, *saturated with lime*, he obtained *muriate of pot-ash*; as also when water was used, *distilled from lime* and water. But when the water was obtained by distillation from water containing magnesia, or barytes, or from snow water.—*Philos. Mag.* vol. XXIII.

Mr. *Cuthbertson* found that the *oxygenated muriatic acid* was formed by the galvanic agency.—*Philos. Mag.* vol. XXIII.

Nearly at the same time that Mr. *Peele* published the above curious facts, Professor *Pacchiani*, of Pisa, announced his discovery of the constituent elements of the muriatic acid by the galvanic pile, and the establishment of the following truths:—
I. Muriatic acid is an oxide of hydrogen, and consequently composed of hydrogen and oxygen. II. In the oxygenized muriatic acid, and therefore, *a fortiori*, in muriatic acid, there is a much less proportion of oxygen than in water. III. Hydrogen is susceptible of very many and different degrees of oxidation. One of these constitutes water, another below it, oxygenized muriatic acid, and, below this, there is another which constitutes muriatic acid.

The Galvanic Society of Paris pursuing this inquiry was induced to believe that M. *Pacchiani* was deceived respecting the acid he had obtained, and that the decomposition of a greater or less proportion of water was only produced.—*Annales de Chimie*, tom. LVI.

Dr. *Wilkinson* having repeated the experiment of *Pacchiani*, with particular care that no contamination should be occasioned by the acid mixture employed by the apparatus, and adopting the caution of having the galvanic apparatus in one room, and the wires passing through two small holes in the door to the

distilled water, in an adjoining room, he found not the slightest trace of muriatic acid, though the influence of 800 plates was employed for thirty hours.—*Nicholson's Journal, August, 1806.*

The above failure of Dr. Wilkinson's is attributed by Mr. *Sylvester* to the two wires being brought into one vessel, by which mode, Mr. *Sylvester* says, he never could produce the smallest quantity of muriatic acid. Mr. *Sylvester* goes so far as to say, that as Mr. *Peel* and Prof. *Pacchiani* made their experiments in the same way, he is of opinion that neither of them produced the muriatic acid or an alkali. He brings the wires into separate vessels, and is thereby enabled to produce both the muriatic acid and soda, and that sometimes in ten minutes. Sometimes, he remarks, the nitric acid is formed, and little or none of the muriatic: from these results he is disposed to conclude that the nitric and muriatic acids, as well as the three alkalies are oxides of hydrogen.—*Nicholson's Journal, Sept. 1806.*

It having been suspected, that the acid thus obtained was derived from the animal fibre or the muriate, *Brugnatelli*, without employing either of these substances, galvanized distilled water, and obtained true muriatic acid.

Employing different metals instead of the gold wire, he found the results to vary considerably. With oxide of manganese, the water at the positive end contained muriatic acid, and at the other end was strongly alkaline. With two thick wires in two separate tubes filled with distilled water, closed at bottom with parchment, and supported together against the side of a drinking glass, at the bottom of which water completed the circuit, he was surprised to find the positive tube, not acidulated, as when gold or platina wires were employed, but decidedly alkaline. Alkaline water was also obtained when both wires were plunged in the same tube. Antimony, as well as copper, produced a good deal of hydrogen on the negative side, and in the other side the water was alkalized. Tin and zinc were most energetic in rendering the water alkaline at the negative pole,

when a good deal of hydrogen was liberated: the signs of alkalinity not appearing for a long time on the side of the positive pole.

Having carefully examined water which had been rendered alkaline by being negatively galvanized, Brugnatelli was able to determine that the alkali thus produced was soda.

As muriatic acid is formed by galvanizing water by the positive pole, and soda by the negative pole, he expected by plunging both the wires from the two contrary poles into water, contained in one vessel, he should at once obtain muriate of soda, but not the least change was observed.

Pure gold wires, employed in galvanizing pure water in the same vessel, become covered with a black coating, and most freely on the negative side. This substance was found by *Brugnatelli* to be a hydruret of hydrogenized gold. This hydrogenized part of the wire being applied to the crural nerve of a frog, and the other end, finely polished, resting upon the moistened paper, on which the spine lay, the frog became convulsed. Brugnatelli hence explains the supposed polarity of such pieces of gold wire as was noticed by Ritter: the hydrogenization of one part of the wire having rendered it positive, compared to gold which had not undergone this change.

Silver wires were also blackened by the galvanizing process: that proceeding from the negative pole, being covered with a true hydruret of silver, whilst the substance deposited on the wire, from the positive pole, was hydrogenized silver. Copper wire, on the negative side, became covered with hydrogenized copper, and, on the positive side, with an hydrogenized green oxide.

Iron wire galvanized positively produced an oxygenized muriate of iron, *i. e.* with excess of oxide: the negative wire producing no change but that of rendering the water strongly alkaline.

Charcoal being half immersed in water in separate tubes, and connected with the two ends of the galvanic apparatus, car-

bonate of soda was found in the water of the negative side: from the positive side much gas was liberated, but only a few atoms of the carbonate was yielded. The charcoal on the negative side was singularly whitened by combining with the hydrogen as it was forming, and even at the commencement of its hydrogenizement changes its electrometer character, and from negative becomes positive, compared with other charcoal. Hence he concludes that charcoal does not contain hydrogen, but that the inflammable air, obtained from calcined charcoal, proceeds from a little humidity, or is the gaseous oxide of carbon. Zinc being agitated with water, a grey powder separated, and the water became evidently alkaline. Filings of iron, and of copper, and mercury were thus oxidized, and communicated an alkaline quality to the water. On adding a little muriatic acid a salt was formed, which appeared to be muriate of ammonia.—*Osservazioni Chimico Galvaniche, &c.* 1805.

Guyton described an ore of antimony, in which the metal was in a state of oxide, having passed from sulphuret to oxide without change of form. This he supposed to have been accomplished by the decomposition of water, by which the oxygen would be furnished, whilst the sulphur would be removed by the hydrogen. This change he supposes to have been the result of affinities put into action by the *galvanic* fluid.—1801.

TABLE OF SOME GALVANIC CIRCLES,

Composed of two perfect Conductors and one imperfect Conductor.

More oxidizable substances.	Zinc.	Less oxidizable substances.	Oxidizing fluids.	Solutions of nitric acid in water, of muriatic acid, sulphuric acid, &c. Water holding in solution, oxygen, atmospheric air, &c.	
	Iron.				With gold, charcoal, silver, copper, tin, iron, mercury.
	Tin.			 gold, charcoal, silver, copper, tin.
	Lead.			 gold, silver, charcoal.
	Copper.			 gold, silver.
	Silver.			 gold.

TABLE OF SOME GALVANIC CIRCLES,

Composed of two imperfect Conductors and one perfect Conductor.

Perfect Conductors.	Charcoal.	Imperfect Conductors.	Imperfect Conductors.	Solutions of nitrous acid, oxygenized muriatic acid, &c. capable of acting on all the metals.	
	Copper.				Solutions of hydrogenretted alkaline sulphurets, capable of acting on the first three metals, but not on the last three.
	Silver.				
	Lead.				
	Tin.				
	Iron.				
Zinc.					

Mr. Davy's Syllabus of a Course of Lectures,

TABLE OF EXPANSION OF GASES.

From Du Vernois and Prony.

Temperature.	Hydrogen gas.	Nitrous gas.	Carbonic acid gas.	Air.	Oxygen gas.	Ammoniacal gas.	Nitrogen gas.
32°	1.00000	1.00000	1.00000	1.00000	1.00000	1.00000	1.00000
41	1.01746	1.01042	1.01734	1.01109	1.00492	1.03633	1.00326
50	1.03552	1.02202	1.03079	1.02415	1.01146	1.07944	1.00779
59	1.05420	1.03492	1.05861	1.03952	1.02017	1.13059	1.01408
68	1.07352	1.04927	1.08307	1.05760	1.03177	1.19128	1.02284
77	1.09350	1.06523	1.11051	1.07890	1.04720	1.26330	1.03500
86	1.11417	1.08299	1.14129	1.10397	1.06775	1.34876	1.05192
95	1.13554	1.10695	1.17580	1.13347	1.09510	1.45017	1.07010
104	1.15764	1.12471	1.21452	1.17385	1.13151	1.57050	1.10814
113	1.18050	1.14915	1.25793	1.20908	1.17998	1.71328	1.15360
122	1.20414	1.17634	1.30663	1.25720	1.24450	1.82270	1.21680
131	1.22860	1.20659	1.36125	1.31385	1.33039	2.08384	1.30468
140	1.25389	1.24023	1.42250	1.38052	1.44473	2.32230	1.42685
149	1.28004	1.27766	1.49121	1.45901	1.59692	2.60536	1.59669
158	1.30709	1.31929	1.56826	1.55139	1.79953	2.94125	1.83283
167	1.33507	1.36560	1.65468	1.66014	2.06923	3.33982	2.16113
176	1.36401	1.41712	1.75161	1.78814	2.42825	3.81275	2.61656
185	1.39793	1.47443	1.86032	1.93882	2.90619	4.37393	3.25214
194	1.42488	1.53818	1.98224	2.11618	3.54238	5.03983	4.13438
203	1.45689	1.60909	2.11899	2.32495	4.38928	5.82999	5.36095
212	1.49000	1.68798	2.27236	2.57069	5.51666	6.76759	7.06623

TABLE OF COMPONENT PARTS OF
NITRIC ACID AND OF NITROUS ACID,*Of different Colours and Densities.*

100 Parts.	Sp. Gra.	Component Parts.		
		Nitric Acid	Water.	Nitrous Gas.
Solid nitric acid	1.504	91.55	8.45	—
Yellow nitrous	1.502	90.5	8.3	2
Bright yellow	1.500	88.94	8.10	2.96
Dark orange	1.480	86.84	7.6	5.56
Light olive	1.479	86.00	7.55	6.45
Dark olive	1.478	85.4	7.5	7.1
Bright green	1.476	84.8	7.44	7.76
Blue green	1.475	84.6	7.4	8.00

Davy's Researches, p. 37.

TABLE OF THE COMPOSITION OF SALTS. (By Mr. KIRWAN.)
COMPONENT PARTS.

Salts.	Basis.	Acid.	Water.	State.
Carbonate of pot-ash.....	41.	43.	16.....	Crystallized.
Pearl-ash	60.	30.	6.....	Dry.
Carbonate of soda	21.58	14.42	64.....	Fully crystallized.
ditto	59.86	40.05	Desiccated.
barytes	78.	22.	Natural or ignited.
strontian	69.5	30.	Natural or ignited.
lime.....	55.	45.	Natural if pure, or artificial ignited.
magnesia	25.	50.	25.....	Crystallized.
common do.	45.	34.	21.....	Dried at 80°.
Sulphate of pot-ash	54.8	45.2	Dry.
soda	18.48	23.52	58.....	Fully crystallized.
ditto	44.	56.	Desiccated at 700°.
ammonia	14.24	54.66	31.1
barytes	66.66	33.33	Natural and pure, artificial ignited.
strontian.....	58.	42.	Natural and pure, artificial ignited.
lime	32.	46.	22.....	Dried at 66°.
ditto	35.23	50.39	14.38.....	Dried at 170°.
ditto	38.81	55.84	5.35.....	Ignited.
ditto	41.	59.	Incandescent.
magnesia	17.	29.35	53.65.....	Fully crystallized.
ditto	36.68	63.32	Desiccated.
Alum	12. ignited	17.66	51. of crystals. + 19.24 in the earth.	Crystallized.
Ditto	63.75	36.25	Desiccated at 700°.

TABLE OF THE COMPOSITION OF SALTS, *continued*.
COMPONENT PARTS.

Salts.	Basis.	Acid.	Water.	State.
Nitrate of pot-ash	51.8	44.	4.2 of Composition	Dried at 70°.
soda	40.58	53.21	6.21 of Composition	Dried at 400°.
ditto	42.34	57.55	Ignited.
ammonia	23.	57.	20.	
barytes	57.	32.	11.	Crystallized.
strontian	36.21	31.07	32.72	Crystallized.
lime	32.	57.44	10.56	Well dried, that is, in Air.
magnesia	22.	46.	22.	Crystallized.
Muriate of pot-ash	64.	36.	Dried at 80°.
soda	53.	47. aqueous, 38.88 real	Dried at 80°.
ammonia	Crystallized.
ditto	25.	42.75	32.25	Sublimed.
barytes	64.	20.	16.	Crystallized.
ditto	76.2	23.8	Desiccated.
strontian	40.	18.	42.	Crystallized.
ditto	69.	31.	Desiccated.
lime	50.	42.	8.	Red hot.
magnesia	31.97	34.59	34.34.	Sensibly dry.

TABLE OF SALTS,

Which are incompatible with each other, in water, except in very minute proportions.

Extracted from *Kirwan on Mineral Waters, passim*, by Dr. Thomson, in his excellent System of Chemistry.

SALTS.	INCOMPATIBLE WITH
1. Fixed alkaline sulphates.....	{ Nitrates of lime and magnesia, Muriates of lime and magnesia.
2. Sulphate of lime.....	{ Alkalies, Carbonate of magnesia, Muriate of barytes.
3. Alum.....	{ Alkalies, Muriate of barytes, Nitrate, muriate, carbonate of lime, Carbonate of magnesia.
4. Sulphate of magnesia...	{ Alkalies, Muriate of barytes, Nitrate and muriate of lime.
5. Sulphate of iron.....	{ Alkalies, Muriate of barytes, Earthy carbonates.
6. Muriate of barytes	{ Sulphates, Alkaline carbonates, Earthy carbonates.
7. Muriate of lime	{ Sulphates, except of lime, Alkaline carbonates, Carbonate of magnesia.
8. Muriate of magnesia ...	{ Alkaline carbonates, Alkaline sulphates, Alkaline carbonates,
9. Nitrate of lime.....	{ Carbonates of magnesia and alumine, Sulphates, except of lime.

TABLE OF THE RELATIVE PROPORTIONS OF
THE GALLIC ACID IN DIFFERENT PLANTS.

By Mr. Biggin.

Elm	7	Sallow	8
Oak cut in winter	8	Mountain ash	8
Horse chesnut	6	Poplar	8
Beech	7	Hazel ..	9
Willow (boughs).....	8	Ash	10
Elder	4	Spanish chesnut	10
Plumb tree.....	8	Smooth oak	10
Willow (trunk)	9	Oak cut in spring	10
Sycamore.....	6	Huntingdon or Leicester } Willow	10
Birch	4	Sumach	14
Cherry tree.....	8		

TABLE, *Shewing some of the Qualities of Metals; the Proportion of Oxygen with which they combine; and the Colours of their Oxides (Compiled from two of the Tables in Thomson's Chemistry, by Mr. William Henry) and introduced in his Epitome of Chemistry.*

Metals.	Colour.	Specific Grav.	Fusing Point	No. of Oxides.	Colours of Oxides.	Proper. of Oxygen
Gold	Yellow	19.361	32 W.	1 2	Purple Yellow	10.
Platina	White	23.000	+ 170 W.	1 2	Green Brown	.71 0.15
Palladium	White	11.871	+ 160 W.	1 2	Blue Yellow?	
Rhodium	White	11.	+ 160 W.	1 2	Yellow	
Iridium	White		+ 160 W.	1 2	Blue? Red?	
Osmium	Blue			1	Transparent	
Silver	White	10.510	22 W.	1 2	Olive	12.8
Mercury	White	13.568	-39 F.	1 2 3	Black Red	5. 11.
Copper	Red	8.895	27 W.	1 2	Red Black	13. 25.
Iron	Blue-grey	7.788	158 W.	1 2	Black Red	37. 92.3

TABLE, *Shewing some of the Qualities of Metals, &c.—*
Continued.

Metals.	Colour.	Specific Grav.	Fusing Point.	No. of Oxides.	Colours of Oxides.	Propor. of Oxygen
Tin	White	7.299	442 F.	1	Grey White	25.
				2		38.8
Lead	Bluish-white	11.352	612 F.	1	Yellow Red Brown	10.6
				2		13.6
				3		25.
				4		
Nickel	White	8.666	+ 160 W.	1	Green Black	28.
				2		
Zinc	White	6.861	680 F.	1	Yellow White	13.6
				2		25.
Bismuth	White	9.822	476 F.	1	Yellow	12.
				2		
Antimony	Grey	6.712	809 F.	1	White Ditto	22.7
				2		30.
Arsenic	White	8.310	+ 400 F.?	1	White White (acid)	33.
				2		53.
Cobalt	White	7.700	130 W.	1	Blue Green Black	
				2		
				3		
Manganese	White	6.850	+ 160 W.	1	White Red Black	25.
				2		35.
				3		66.6
Molybdena	Grey	8.600	+ 170 W.	1	Light-brown Violet Blue White	34. 50.
				2		
				3		
				4		
Tellurium	White	6.115	+ 612 F.		White	

TABLE, *Shewing some of the Qualities of Metals, &c.—Continued.*

Metals.	Colour.	Specific Grav.	Fusing Point.	No. of Oxides.	Colours of Oxides.	Propor. of Oxygen.
Tungsten	Greyish-white	17.6	+ 170 W.	1 2	Black Yellow	25.
Uranium	Grey	9.000	+ 170 W.	1 2	Black Yellow	5.17 28.
Titanium	Red		+ 170 W.	1 2 3	Blue Red White	
Chromium	White		+ 170 W.	1 2 3	Green Brown Red	200.
Columbium					White	
Tantalum					White	
Cerium	White			1 2	White Red	

N. B.—The numbers, in the last column of the foregoing Table, denote the quantity of oxygen with which 100 parts of each metal combine. Thus, to form the black oxide of iron, 100 parts of the metal absorb 37 oxygen, and afford 137 of an oxide, which, in 100 parts, contain 27 of oxygen.—In the column shewing the fusing point, W. added to the numerals, denote the degrees of Wedgwood's pyrometer, and F. those of Fahrenheit's thermometer.

TABLE OF SIMPLE AFFINITY *.

OXYGEN.		SULPHUR. PHOSPHORUS?	BARYTES.
Carbon, Charcoal, Manganese, Zinc, Iron, Tin, Antimony, Hydrogen, Phosphorus, Sulphur, Arsenic, Nitrogen, Nickel, Cobalt, Copper, Bismuth, Calcic? Mercury, Silver, Arsenous acid, Nitric oxide, Gold, Platina, Carbonic oxide, Muriatic acid, White oxide of Manganese, White oxide of Lead.	Cobalt, Antimony, Nickel, Arsenic, Chromic, Bismuth, Lead, Copper, Tellurium, Platina, Mercury, Silver, Gold.	Pot-ash, Soda, Iron, Copper, Tin, Lead, Silver, Bismuth, Antimony, Mercury, Arsenic, Molybdena.	<i>Acids.</i> Sulphuric, Oxalic, Succinic, Fluoric, Phosphoric, Mucic, Nitric, Muriatic, Suberic, Citric, Tartaric, Arsenic, Lactic, Benzoic, Acetic, Boracic, Sulphurous, Nitrous, Carbonic, Prussic,
	CARBON.		
	Oxygen, Iron, Hydrogen.	POT-ASH, SODA, AND AMMONIA.	Sulphur, Phosphorus, Water, Fixed Oils.
	NITROGEN.	<i>Acids.</i> Sulphuric, Nitric, Muriatic, Phosphoric, Fluoric, Oxalic, Tartaric, Arsenic, Succinic, Citric, Lactic, Benzoic, Sulphurous, Acetic, Mucic, Boracic, Nitrous, Carbonic, Prussic,	
	Oxygen, Sulphur? Phosphorus, Hydrogen.		STRONTIA.
	HYDROGEN.		<i>Acids.</i> Sulphuric, Phosphoric, Oxalic, Tartaric, Fluoric, Nitric, Muriatic, Succinic, Acetic, Arsenic, Boracic, Carbonic, Water.
OXYGEN †.		Oil, Water, Sulphur.	
Titanium, Manganese, Zinc, Iron, Tin, Uranium, Molybdena, Tungsten,	Oxygen, Sulphur, Carbon, Phosphorus, Nitrogen.		

* The original table compiled from the latest observations is in Mr. Henry's Epitome of Chemistry: it is here given in its extended form, as being better calculated for reference.

† Shews the affinity of the metals for oxygen, according to the difficulty with which their oxides are decomposed by heat.--*Vauquelin.*

Table of Simple Affinity,—Continued.

<p>LIME.</p> <p><i>Acids.</i> Oxalic, Sulphuric, Tartaric, Succinic, Phosphoric, Mucic, Nitric, Muriatic, Suberic, Fluoric, Arsenic, Lactic, Citric, Malic, Benzoic, Acetic, Boracic, Sulphurous, Nitrous, Carbonic, Prussic,</p> <p>Sulphur, Phosphorus, Water, Fixed oil.</p>	<p><i>Acids.</i> Sulphurous, Nitrous, Carbonic, Prussic, Sulphur.</p> <hr/> <p>ALUMINE.</p> <p><i>Acids.</i> Sulphuric, Nitric, Muriatic, Oxalic, Arsenic, Fluoric, Tartaric, Succinic, Mucic, Citric, Phosphoric, Lactic, Benzoic, Acetic, Boracic, Sulphurous, Nitrous, Carbonic, Prussic.</p>	<p>Phosphoric, Oxalic, Citric, Acetic, Succinic, Prussic, Carbonic, Ammonia.</p> <hr/> <p>OXIDE OF GOLD.</p> <p>Gallie acid, Muriatic, Nitric, Sulphuric, Arsenic, Fluoric, Tartaric, Phosphoric, Acetic, Prussic, Ammonia, Sulphuretted hydrogen.</p>	<p>OXIDE OF MERCURY.</p> <p>Gallie acid, Muriatic, Oxalic, Succinic, Arsenic, Phosphoric, Sulphuric, Mucic, Tartaric, Citric, Malic, Sulphurous, Nitric, Fluoric, Acetic, Benzoic, Boracic, Prussic, Carbonic.</p>
<p>MAGNESIA.</p> <p><i>Acids.</i> Oxalic, Phosphoric, Sulphuric, Fluoric, Arsenic, Mucic, Succinic, Nitric, Muriatic, Tartaric, Citric, Malic? Lactic, Benzoic, Acetic, Boracic,</p>	<p>SILEX.</p> <p>Fluoric acid, Pot-ash.</p> <hr/> <p>OXIDE OF PLATINA.</p> <p>Gallie acid, Muriatic, Nitric, Sulphuric, Arsenic, Fluoric, Tartaric,</p>	<p>OXIDE OF SILVER.</p> <p>Gallie acid, Muriatic, Oxalic, Sulphuric, Mucic, Phosphoric, Sulphurous, Nitric, Arsenic, Fluoric, Tartaric, Citric, Lactic, Succinic, Acetic, Prussic, Carbonic, Ammonia.</p>	<p>OXIDE OF LEAD.</p> <p>Gallie, Sulphuric, Mucic, Oxalic, Arsenic, Tartaric, Phosphoric, Muriatic, Sulphurous, Suberic, Nitric, Fluoric, Citric, Malic, Succinic, Lactic, Acetic, Benzoic, Boracic, Prussic, Carbonic.</p>

Table of Simple Affinity,—Continued.

Fixed oils, Ammonia.	OXIDE OF IRON.	Sulphuric, Muriatic, Mucic, Nitric, Tartaric, Phosphoric, Citric, Succinic, Fluoric, Arsenic, Lactic, Acetic, Boracic, Prussic, Carbonic, Fixed alkalies, Ammonia.	Soda, Lime, Magnesia, Ammonia, Glucine, Ytria, Alumine, Zircon, Metallic oxides.
OXIDE OF COPPER.	Galic, Oxalic, Tartaric, Camphoric, Sulphuric, Mucic, Muriatic, Nitric, Phosphoric, Arsenic, Fluoric, Succinic, Citric, Lactic, Acetic, Boracic, Prussic, Carbonic.	OXIDE OF ANTIMONY.	SULPHUROUS ACID.
Galic, Oxalic, Tartaric, Muriatic, Sulphuric, Mucic, Nitric, Arsenic, Phosphoric, Succinic, Fluoric, Citric, Lactic, Acetic, Boracic, Prussic, Carbonic, Fixed alkalies, Ammonia, Fixed oils.	OXIDE OF TIN.	Galic, Muriatic, Benzoic, Oxalic, Sulphuric, Nitric, Tartaric, Mucic, Phosphoric, Citric, Succinic, Fluoric, Arsenic, Lactic, Acetic, Boracic, Prussic, Fixed alkalies, Ammonia.	Barytes, Lime, Pot-ash, Soda, Strontia, Magnesia, Ammonia, Glucine, Alumine, Zircon, Metallic oxides.
OXIDE OF ARSENIC.	Galic, Muriatic, Sulphuric, Oxalic, Tartaric, Arsenic, Phosphoric, Nitric, Succinic, Fluoric, Mucic, Citric, Lactic, Acetic, Boracic, Prussic, Ammonia.	SULPHURIC ACID.	PRUSSIC ACID.
Galic, Muriatic, Oxalic, Sulphuric, Nitric, Tartaric, Phosphoric, Fluoric, Succinic, Citric, Acetic, Prussic, Fixed alkalies, Ammonia, Fixed oils, Water.	OXIDE OF ZINC.	Barytes, Strontia, Pot-ash,	Barytes, Strontia, Pot-ash, Soda, Lime, Magnesia, Ammonia.
	Galic, Oxalic,		SUCCINIC ACID.
			Barytes, Lime, Pot-ash, Soda, Ammonia, Magnesia,

Table of Simple Affinity,—Continued.

Alumine, Metallic oxides.	Glucine, Alumine, Zircon, Metallic oxides.	Pot-ash, Soda, Ammonia, Glucine, Alumine, Zircon, Silix.	Soda, Lime, Ammonia, Magnesia, Alumine.
PHOSPHORIC ACID.	NITRIC ACID.	BORACIC ACID.	OXALIC ACID. TARTARIC ———.
Barytes, Strontites, Lime, Pot-ash, Soda, Ammonia, Magnesia, Glucine, Alumine, Zircon, Metallic oxides, Silix.	Barytes, Pot-ash, Soda, Strontites, Lime, Magnesia, Ammonia, Glucine, Alumine, Zircon, Metallic oxides.	Lime, Barytes, Strontia, Magnesia, Pot-ash, Soda, Ammonia, Glucine, Zircon, Water, Alcohol.	Lime, Barytes, Strontites, Magnesia, Pot-ash, Soda, Ammonia, Alumine, Metallic oxides, Water, Alcohol.
CARBONIC ACID.	MURIATIC ACID.	ACETIC ACID. LACTIC ———.	CITRIC ACID.
Barytes, Strontia, Lime, Pot-ash, Soda, Magnesia, Ammonia, Glucine, Zircon, Metallic oxides.	Barytes, Pot-ash, Soda, Strontia, Lime, Ammonia, Magnesia, Glucine, Alumine, Zircon, Metallic oxides.	Barytes, Pot-ash, Soda, Strontites, Lime, Ammonia, Magnesia, Metallic oxides, Glucine, Alumine, Zircon.	Lime, Barytes, Strontia, Magnesia, Pot-ash, Soda, Ammonia, Alumine, Zircon, Metallic oxides, Water, Alcohol.
PHOSPHOROUS ACID.	FLUORIC ACID. TUNGSTIC ———. ARSENIC ———*.	SUBERIC ACID.	BENZOIC ACID.
Lime, Barytes, Strontia, Pot-ash, Soda, Ammonia,	Lime, Barytes, Strontites, Magnesia,	Barytes, Pot-ash,	White oxide of Arsenic, Pot-ash,

* Except silix.

Table of Simple Affinity,—Continued.

Soda, Ammonia, Barytes, Lime, Magnesia, Alumine.	Soda, Barytes, Ammonia, Alumine, Magnesia.	Magnesia, Oxide of Mer- cury. Other metallic oxides, Mamine.	Alkaline Sulphu- rets.
			SULPHURETTED HYDROGEN.
CAMPHORIC ACID.	FIXED OIL.	ALCOHOL.	Barytes, Pot-ash, Soda, Lime, Ammonia, Magnesia, Zircon.
Lime, Pot-ash,	Lime, Barytes, Pot-ash, Soda,	Water, Ether, Volatile Oil,	

A TABLE OF THE PROPORTION OF
THE CONSTITUENT PARTS OF THE BONES,
And other Hard Parts, of various Animals.

	Gelatinous Matter.	Phosphate of Lime.	Carbonate of Lime.
Dry Human bones	23	67	2
Bones of the Ox.....	3	93	2
———— Calf	25	54	traces of it
———— Horse	9	67,5	1,25
———— Sheep	16	70	0,5
———— Elk	1,5	90	1
———— Hog	17	52	1
———— Hare	9	85	1
———— Hen	6	72	1,5
———— Pike	12	64	1
———— Carp	6	45	0,5
———— Viper.....	21,5	60,5	0,5
———— Cuttle Fish	8	0	68
Teeth of the Horse	12	85,5	0,25
———— Elephant, or Ivory	24	64	0,1
Horns of the Stag	27	57,5	1
Egg Shells	3	2	72
Lobster Shells.....	18	14	40
Mother of Pearl	2,5	0	66
Crabs' Eyes.....	2	12	60
White Coral	1,5	0	50
Red ditto	0,5	0	53,5
Articulated Coralline	7,5	0	49

The difference to make up 100 parts is to be reckoned as loss in water, &c.—*Ann. de Chim. Merat. Guillot.* 1800.

TABLE

Of the Quantity of real ACID taken up by mere Alkalies and Earths.

MR. KIRWAN.

100 parts.	Sulphuric.	Nitrous.	Muriatic.	Carbonate Acid.
Pot-ash.	82,48	84,96	56,3	105, almost.
Soda.	127,68	135,71	73,41	66, 8.
Ammonia.	383,8	247,82	171,	Variable.
Baryt.	50,	56,	31,8	282.
Strontia.	72,41	85,56	46,	43,2
Lime.	143,	179,5	84,488	81,81.
Magnesia.	172,64	210,	111,35	200, <i>Fourcroy.</i>
Alumine.	150,9			335, nearly, <i>Bergman.</i>

TABLE

Of the Quantity of ALKALIES and EARTHS taken up by 100 Parts of real Sulphuric, Nitrous, Muriatic, and Carbonic ACIDS, saturated.

MR. KIRWAN.

100 Parts.	Pot-ash.	Soda.	Ammonia.	Baryt.	Strontia.	Lime.	Mag.
Sulphuric.	121,48	78,32	26,05	200,	138,	70,	57,92
Nitrous.	117,7	73, 3	40,35	178,12	116,86	55,7	47,64
Muriatic.	177,6	136,2	58,48	314,46	216,21	118,3	898,
Carbonic.	95,1	149,6		354,5	231,+	122,	50,

A TABLE, SHOWING THE

POWERS OF DIFFERENT FREEZING MIXTURES.

MIXTURES.	SINK THE THERMOMETER.
Snow, or pounded Ice, 1 part, and Common Salt 1 part	From 32° to 0°
Snow 2, Salt 1	From 0° to — 5°
Snow 1, Salt 5, Nitre and Muriate of Ammonia 5	From 5° to — 18°
Snow 12, Salt 5, and Nitrate of Am. 5	From — 18° to — 25°
Snow and diluted Nitric Acid	From 0° to — 46°
Snow 2, dil. Nitric 1, and Sulp. Acid 1	From — 10 to — 56°
Snow 1, diluted Sulphuric Acid 1	From 20° to — 60°
Snow 2, Muriate of Lime 3	From 32° to — 50°
Snow 1, Muriate of Lime 2	From 0° to — 66°
Snow 1, Muriate of Lime 3	From — 40° to — 73°
Snow 8, diluted Sulphuric Acid 10	From — 68° to — 91°
Snow 3, Pot-ash 4	From 32° to — 51°

The materials employed ought first to be separately cooled, in a freezing mixture, and then mixed together in a similar mixture. The vessels in which the several mixtures are made should be also cooled, as thin as possible, and no larger than necessary. Thus snow and nitric acid being put separately into the first mixture, are cooled to 0°, and mixed together in a vessel plunged in a similar mixture, when the thermometer will sink to — 46°. *Walker, Phil. Trans. 1795.*

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FINIS.

A
SKETCH

OF

MR. DAVY'S RECENT DISCOVERIES OF THE CHEMICAL AGENCIES OF ELECTRICITY, AND OF THE DECOMPOSITION AND COMPOSITION OF THE FIXED ALKALIES, OF AMMONIA, THE ALKALINE EARTHS, &c.

THE preceding historical sketch of the discoveries in galvanism (Page 338) shews us that in the first chemical experiments, made with the column of *Volta*, the appearance of acid and alkaline matter was observed at the opposite electrified metallic surfaces, in water acted on by a current of electricity. These were supposed by Mr. *Cruikshank* to be the *nitrous acid* and *ammonia*, and by M. *Desormes*, *muriatic acid* and *ammonia*: whilst *Brugnatelli* imagined the formation of a new and peculiar substance, *the electric acid*. Mr. *Davy*, as early as 1800, found that nitro-muriatic acid was produced in a tube containing the positive or transmitting wire, and a solution of soda in the opposite tube; and also ascertained that their appearance proceeded from animal or vegetable matters which were employed to connect the tubes. The traces of fixed alkali found by Mr. *Sylvester*, as mentioned in the preceding sketch, Mr. *Davy* suspected to have been derived from some of the materials employed in the manufacture of tobacco pipes, the clay used for which was employed by Mr. *Sylvester* in his experiment.

By a series of excellently devised experiments, Mr. *Davy* ascertained that distilled water in agate cups, being connected by amianthus, and exposed to a current of electricity, acid matter appeared to be separated by the transmitting or positive wire, and alkaline by the opposite wire; and that the acid was derived from some saline matter existing in the agate; whilst the alkali was yielded by the impurities contained in the distilled water, and carried over in vivid ebullition. In further proof of the fixed alkali not being generated but evolved, some fixed alkali appeared, in almost every instance, where water, even slowly distilled, in vessels of different substances, was the subject of experiment. When tubes of wax were used, a mixture of soda and potash, and a mixture of sulphuric, muriatic, and nitric acids were obtained; and with resin, the alkaline matter seemed to be principally potash. From Carrara marble, the water became impregnated with fixed alkali and lime; and from argillaceous schist, serpentine, grauwacké, and glass, soda was obtained. Having in every experiment with purified water found, that the properties of nitrous acid were produced; that the longer the operation, the greater the quantity that was obtained; that volatile alkali was also produced, but in very minute portions; and that the limit to its quantity was soon determined, he thought it was natural to account for these results from the combination of nascent oxygen and hydrogen respectively, with the nitrogen of the common air, dissolved in the water; and thought it also evident, that water, chemically pure, is decomposed by electricity into gaseous matter alone, into oxygen and hydrogen.

The acid matter collecting on the positive, and the alkaline on the negative side, in all changes in which acid and alkaline matter were present, manifesting a principle of action apparently related to one of the first phænomena observed in the voltaic pile—the decomposition of the muriate of soda attached to the paste-board, and to many other instances of separation since observed, Mr. *Davy* instituted a series of experiments with respect to this subject.

Two cups of compact sulphate of lime, containing about 14 grains of pure water each, were connected by fibrous sulphate of lime moistened with pure water, and placed in the circuit of electricity of the voltaic battery; after an hour, a pure and saturated solution of lime was found in the cup containing the negative wire; and a moderately strong solution of sulphuric acid, in the cup containing the positive wire. Similar satisfactory experiments were made with sulphate of strontites, fluuate of lime, and sulphate of barytes. To prove the fact that even very minute portions of acid and alkaline matter might be disengaged by this agency from solid combinations, principally consisting of the pure earths, fine grained basalt, which in 100 parts contained only $3\frac{1}{2}$ parts of soda, and nearly $\frac{1}{2}$ a part of muriatic acid, with 15 parts of lime, was made the subject of experiment; and yielded, on the positive side, a fluid smelling strongly of oxymuriatic acid; and, on the other, a substance which seemed to be a mixture of lime and soda. Compact zeolyte yielded soda and lime; lepidolite, potash; and vitreous lava, an alkaline matter which seemed to be a mixture of soda, potash, and lime. With a view of developing a quantity of alkaline matter capable of being weighed, glass was subjected to the electric influence, when soda mixed with a white powder insoluble in acids, the whole weighing $\frac{3.6}{1.28}$ of a grain, was obtained, and a nearly corresponding loss of weight was discovered in the glass. Similar results occurred, with greater rapidity of decomposition, and greater distinctness in the phenomena, when compounds soluble in water were acted upon: lixivium of potash, and a solution of sulphuric acid, being soon extricated from a solution of sulphate of potash. The phenomena were analagous when sulphate of soda, nitrate of potash, nitrate of barytes, sulphate of ammonia, phosphate of soda, succinate, oxalate, and benzoate of ammonia, and alum were used. The acids in a certain time collected in the tube which contained the positive wire, and the alkalis and earths in that containing the negative wire. Muriatic salts uniformly gave oxymuriatic acid; compatible mixtures of neutrosaline solutions

containing the common mineral acids, yielded their different bases and different acids separated together in a mixed state, without any respect to the orders of affinity; and when metallic solutions were employed, metallic crystals with oxide were found on the negative, and a great excess of acid on the positive side. Although saturated solutions suffered more rapid decomposition than weak ones, yet the smallest proportion of neutrosaline matter seemed to be acted on with energy; and in every case where the results were distinct, the separation of the constituent parts was complete from the last portions of the compound.

The experiments of Messrs. *Gautherot*, *Hisinger*, and *Berzelius*, having rendered it probable, that the saline elements evolved in decompositions by electricity were capable of being transferred from one electrified surface to another, according to their usual order of arrangement, Mr. *Davy* formed a suite of experiments with the hope of demonstrating this fact. He connected a cup of sulphate of lime with a cup of agate by asbestos, and filling them with pure water, made the platina wire in the cup of sulphate of lime transmit the electricity, which was received by a wire in the agate cup. A strong solution of lime was thus obtained in the agate cup, and sulphuric acid in the other cup. Reversing the order the sulphuric acid was found in the agate, and the lime in the other cup. Many other trials were made with other saline substances, with analagous results. When compounds of the strong mineral acids with alkaline, or alkaline earthy bases, were introduced into one tube of glass, distilled water connected by amianthus being in the other tube, and both connected by wires of platina in the voltaic arrangement, the base always passed into the water, when it was negative, and the acid, when it was positive. The metals and the metallic oxides, like the alkalies, passed towards the negative surface and collected round it. Nitrate of silver being on the positive side, and distilled water on the negative; silver appeared on the transmitting amianthus, so as to cover it with a thin metallic film. The time required for these transmissions seemed to be, in some proportion, as the length of the intermediate volume of

water. To ascertain whether the contact of the saline solution with a metallic surface was necessary for the decomposition and transfer, Mr. *Davy* so connected, by amianthus, the purified water in two glass tubes, with a vessel containing muriate of potash, that the level of the water was higher than that of the solution, and the saline matter was at least two thirds of an inch distant from each of the wires, yet the alkali soon appeared in one tube, and the acid in the other. Endeavouring to mark the progress of the transfer, and the course of the acid or alkaline matter in these decompositions, by the means of litmus and turmeric, some very singular and unexpected circumstances were discovered. Distilled water, and solution of sulphate of potash, were each connected, by amianthus, with water tinged by litmus, the solution being negatively electrified; and to detect the acid in its passage, slips of turmeric paper were placed above and below the amianthus, directly in the circuit. The first manifestation of the acid was observed, where it was least expected, immediately above the opposite, the positive, surface, where a redness took place, which slowly diffused itself from the positive side to the middle of the vessel; but no redness appeared above the amianthus, nor about it on the negative side; and though it had been constantly transmitting sulphuric acid, it remained unaffected to the last. The order of the experiment being then changed, the effect was precisely analagous, turmeric was rendered brown, first near the negative wire, and no change took place in the intermediate vessel near the positive wire. A beautiful experiment, with corresponding results, was made, in a similar way, with muriate of soda, the intermediate fluid being solution of sulphate of silver, with turmeric paper on the positive, and litmus paper on the negative side. As soon as the electric circuit was complete, soda appeared in the negative, and oxymuriatic acid in the positive tube; the alternate products being exhibited in the metallic solution by their peculiar precipitates, whilst neither the turmeric transmitting the alkali, nor the litmus transmitting the acid, had their tints in the slightest degree altered.

Acids and alkaline substances having been thus found to be

transferred through vegetable colours without affecting them, led to the inquiry whether they would not pass through chemical menstrua having stronger attractions for them; and, for this purpose, the menstrua of stronger attraction was made the middle link of the conducting chain. Solution of sulphate of potash was placed in contact with the negative point, and pure water in contact with the positive point, a solution of ammonia being made the intermediate link; when the sulphuric acid was found to pass through the ammonia, and manifest itself about the opposite, positive point. Similar results ensued when potash and soda solutions were the intermediate fluids; and the acid was exhibited in a certain period, even when transmitted through the most saturated alkaline lixivium: through which muriatic acid from muriate of soda, and nitric acid from nitrate of potash, were, in the same manner, also transmitted. By an appropriate arrangement, the alkaline matter was also transmitted from neutral salts with base of lime, soda, potash, ammonia, or magnesia, through solutions of sulphuric, muriatic, or nitric acid, to the negative surface. Strontites and barytes passed readily through muriatic and nitric acids; and, *vice versa*, these acids passed with facility through aqueous solutions of barytes and strontites: but when sulphuric acid was employed, the results were very different. With sulphate of potash in the negative, distilled water in the positive, and saturated solution of barytes in the middle part of the circuit, only a minute portion of sulphuric acid appeared even after four days, but much sulphate of barytes had formed in the intermediate vessel; the solution of barytes having become so weak as barely to tinge litmus, and having acquired a thick film of carbonate of barytes on its surface. With the muriate of barytes made positive, the acid intermediate, and distilled water negative, no barytes appeared in the water in four days, but much oxymuriatic acid was formed in the positive, and much sulphate of barytes deposited in the sulphuric acid. Such of the metallic oxides as were tried passed through acid solutions from the positive to the negative side, but the effect was much

longer in taking place than in the transition of alkaline matter. Green oxide of iron was thus separated from a solution of green sulphate of iron, in about ten hours, having passed through a solution of muriatic acid. These experiments were repeated with numerous variations. Several experiments of transition were also made upon vegetable and animal substances with perfect success; the saline matter exposed in contact with the metal, and that existing in the vegetable or animal substances, both undergoing decomposition and transfer. The leaf stalk of the polyanthus thus yielded potash and lime; and a piece of muscular flesh of beef was found to yield soda, ammonia, and lime. From experiments by the means of common electricity, Mr. *Davy* also determined that there can be no doubt that, *the principle of action is the same in common and in voltaic electricity.*

A general expression of the facts relating to these changes and transitions by electricity, Mr. *Davy* thinks may be made in common philosophical language, by saying that, *hydrogen, the alkaline substances, the metals, and certain metallic oxides, are attracted by negatively electrified metallic surfaces, and repelled by positively electrified metallic surfaces; and contrariwise, that oxygen and acid substances are attracted by positively electrified metallic surfaces; and that these attractive and repulsive forces are sufficiently energetic to destroy or suspend the usual operation of elective affinity.* Mr. *Davy* supposes, that the repellent and attractive energies are communicated from one particle to another particle of the same kind, so as to establish a conducting chain in the fluid, and that the locomotion takes place in consequence. In agreement with this beautiful theory, it was found that acid existed in all the alkaline solutions through which the acids had been transmitted, whenever any matter remained at the original source: in time, the decomposition and transfer would undoubtedly have become complete. In the cases of the separation of the constituents of water, and of solutions of neutral salts forming the whole of the chain, there may, Mr. *Davy* thinks, be a succession of decompositions and recompositions through-

out the fluid. This idea is strengthened by the failure of the attempt to pass barytes through sulphuric acid, and muriatic acid through solution of sulphate of silver; in which, as insoluble compounds are formed, and carried out of the sphere of electrical action, the power of transfer is destroyed. Thus also magnesia, and the metallic oxides, will pass along moist amianthus from the positive to the negative surface; but if a vessel of pure water be interposed, they do not reach the negative vessel, but sink to the bottom. In the experiment, in which a small portion of sulphuric acid seemed to pass through weak solutions of strontites and barytes, it is most ingeniously suggested, that it was carried through by a thin stratum of pure water, where the solution had been decomposed at the surface by carbonic acid; since when the film of carbonate was often removed, and the fluid agitated, no particle of sulphuric acid appeared in the positive part of the chain. It is easy, Mr. *Davy* says, to explain, from the general phenomena of decomposition and transfer, the mode in which oxygen and hydrogen are separately evolved from water. The oxygen of a portion of water is attracted by the positive surface, at the same time that the other constituent part, the hydrogen, is repelled by it; and the opposite process takes place at the negative surface. In the middle, or neutral point, of the circuit, whether there be a series of decompositions and recompositions, or whether the particles from the extreme points only are active, there must be a new combination of the repelled matter; and the case is analagous to that of two portions of muriate of soda separated by distilled water; muriatic acid is repelled from the negative side, and soda from the positive side, and muriate of soda is composed in the middle vessel.

Mr. *Bennet* had shown that many bodies brought into contact, and then separated, exhibited opposite states of electricity. *Volta* has since distinctly shown it in metallic combinations, and supposed that it also took place with regard to metals and fluids. Mr. *Davy* discovered, in 1801, that in electrical combinations by means of alternations of single metallic plates and of different strata of fluids, alkaline solutions

always received the electricity from the metal, and the acid always transmitted it to the metal. These principles, he thus applies, to the explanation of the general phænomena of decomposition, and transference above described. *In the simplest case of electrical action, the alkali which receives electricity from the metal would necessarily, on being separated from it, appear positive, whilst the acid, under similar circumstances, would be negative; and these bodies having respectively with regard to the metals, that which may be called a positive and negative electrical energy, in their repellent and attractive functions, seem to be governed by laws the same as the common laws of electrical attraction and repulsion;—*THE BODY POSSESSING THE POSITIVE ENERGY BEING REPELLED BY POSITIVELY ELECTRIFIED SURFACES, AND ATTRACTED BY NEGATIVELY ELECTRIFIED SURFACES; AND THE BODY POSSESSING THE NEGATIVE ENERGY FOLLOWING THE CONTRARY ORDER. A number of experiments were made with a view of elucidating this idea, and of extending its application, and were found to tend, in all cases, to confirm the analogy. Thus charcoal with water and nitric acid; the same substance, water and soda, being arranged in different electrical combinations, a positive energy was manifested on the side of the alkali, and a negative on that of the acid, when twenty alternations were put together. Similar phænomena appeared on the employment of a pile of zinc, moistened pasteboard, and quicklime. The alkaline and acid substances, capable of existing in the dry and solid form, gave by contact exceedingly sensible electricities. Thus oxalic, succinic, benzoic, or boracic acid, perfectly dry, being touched upon an extended surface with a plate of copper insulated by a glass handle, the copper was found positive, the acid negative; and when metallic plates were made to touch dry lime, strontites, or magnesia, the metal became negative; soda affected the metal in the same way; but potash was prevented from yielding a satisfactory result by its powerful attraction for moisture. Sulphuric acid being decomposed by voltaic electricity, the

sulphur separated on the negative side; and the phosphorus, from the phosphoric acid, combined in the form of a phosphuret with the negatively electrified metal. That oxygen and hydrogen, agreeable to the general principle, possess, with regard to the metals respectively, the negative and positive energy, was satisfactorily shewn by numerous observations on the agency of their compounds.

As the chemical attraction between two bodies seems to be destroyed by giving one of them an electrical state, different from that which it naturally possesses; that is, by bringing it artificially into a state similar to the other; so it may be increased by exalting its natural energy. Although it may be useless, in the present state of our knowledge, to speculate on the remote cause of the electrical energy; or on the reason why different bodies after being brought into contact, should be differently electrified, its relation to chemical affinity is, however, sufficiently evident. May it not, this justly celebrated philosopher asks, be identical with it, and an essential property of matter? The coated glass-plates of *Beccaria* strongly adhere to each other, when oppositely charged, and retain their charges on being separated. This fact, Mr. *Davy* observes, affords a distinct analogy to the subject; *different particles, in combining, must still be supposed to preserve their peculiar states of energy.* This hypothesis, indeed, seems naturally to arise from the facts, and to coincide with the laws of affinity. The general idea affords an easy explanation of the influence of affinity by the masses of the acting substances, as elucidated by the experiments of M. *Berthollet*. Allowing combination to depend upon the balance of the natural electrical energies of bodies, a MEASURE might even be found of the artificial energies, as to the intensity and quantity, capable of destroying this equilibrium; and such a measure would enable us to make A SCALE OF ELECTRICAL POWERS *corresponding to degrees of affinity.*

As heat and light result from all intense chemical action, so when bodies artificially brought into a high state of

opposite electricity are made to restore the equilibrium, heat and light are the common consequences. The effect of heat, in producing combination, is also hereby illustrated, since in a number of cases the electric energies of bodies are exalted by heat, as in glass, tourmalin, and sulphur.

The great tendency of the attraction of the different chemical agents, by the positive and negative surfaces in the voltaic apparatus, seems to be to restore the electrical equilibrium: thus in a voltaic apparatus with copper, zinc, and solution of muriate of soda, copper being brought into contact with the zinc on both sides, the equilibrium is directly restored, and the circulation of electricity ceases; and oxygen and acids, attracted by the positively electrified zinc, exert similar agencies to the copper, but, probably, in a slighter degree; and being capable of combination with the metal, they produce a momentary equilibrium only. The electrical energies of the metals with regard to each other, or the substances dissolved in the water, in the voltaic and other analagous instruments, seem to be the causes that disturb the equilibrium, and the chemical changes the causes that tend to restore the equilibrium; the phenomena most probably depending on their joint agency. When a pile of zinc, copper, and solution of muriate of soda, is in its condition of electric tension, the communicating plates of copper and zinc are in opposite electrical states; and water being, as to electricities of such very low intensities, an insulating body, every copper-plate produces, by induction, an increase of positive electricity upon the opposite zinc plate, and every zinc plate an increase of negative electricity on the opposite copper-plate: the intensity increasing with the number, and the quantity with the extent of the series. When a communication is made between the two extreme points, the opposite electricities tend to annihilate each other; and if the fluid medium could be a substance incapable of decomposition, the equilibrium, there is every reason to believe, would be restored, and the motion of the electricity cease. But solution of muriate of soda being composed of two series of elements possessing

opposite electrical energies, the oxygen and acid are attracted by the zinc, and the hydrogen and the alkali by the copper: the balance of power is however only momentary, for solution of zinc is formed, and the hydrogen disengaged. The negative energy of the copper, and the positive energy of the zinc, are consequently again exerted, enfeebled only by the opposing energy of the soda in contact with the copper, and the process of electromotion continues, as long as the chemical changes are capable of being carried on.

In confirmation of this theory it may be observed, that the voltaic pile, when the connecting fluid is water free from air, or concentrated sulphuric acid, exhibits no permanent electromotive power, little or no chemical action going on. But water containing air, and still more if holding loosely combined oxygen, produces continued electromotion; and diluted acids, from increase of decomposition, are above all other substances powerful. Neutrosaline solutions are found to lose their energy as their acid arranges itself on the sides of the zinc, and their alkali on the copper: their powers becoming much revived by mixing the fluid well together. As when an electrical discharge is produced, by means of small metallic surfaces, of the voltaic battery, sensible heat is the consequence, it occurred to Mr. *Davy*, that if the decomposition of the chemical agents was essential to the balance of the opposed electricities, the effect, in a saline solution, of this decomposition, and the accompanying transfers, ought to be connected with an increase of temperature. A beautiful experiment confirmed the conjecture, and proved, with the other facts just mentioned, *that the decomposition of the chemical menstrea was essential to the continued electromotion in the pile.* The same principles will apply to all the varieties of the electrical apparatus, whether containing single or double plates, proving that, *one property, operating under different modifications, is the universal cause of their activity.* That chemical changes are not the primary causes of the phenomena of galvanism may be fairly inferred: electricity is never ex-

hibited in cases of mere chemical decomposition, nor can the electricity exhibited by the apposition of metallic surfaces be referable to chemical alteration.

These general facts and principles will be found to apply to many of the processes of chemistry, both in art and nature. They offer easy methods of separating acid and alkaline matter, in combination, in minerals, and of analysing animal and vegetable matters. Muscular fibre had thus potash, soda, ammonia, lime, and oxide of iron, evolved from it on the negative side, and the three common mineral acids, and the phosphoric acid on the positive side. From a laurel leaf, green-colouring matter with resin, alkali, and lime, appeared in the negative vessel, and a clear fluid with the smell of peach blossoms, and containing vegetable prussic acid, was found in the positive vessel. Phænomena also evince, that these powers of decomposition act on living vegetable and living animal matter: and as acids and alkalis may be thus separated from, so there is every reason for believing, that by converse methods they may be likewise introduced into the animal economy, or made to pass through the animal organs; and the same thing may be supposed of metallic oxides. These ideas, as Mr. *Davy* justly observes, ought to lead to some new and important investigations in medicine and physiology.

By pursuing these inquiries, electrical decomposition of neutral salts may be found applicable to the economical separations of acids and alkalis; the true elements of bodies may be discovered; alterations of electrical equilibrium in nature, and electric and meteoric appearances, may be easily explained, and tranquil and constant alterations, in which electricity is concerned, may be detected in the interior strata of our globe. Mr. *Davy* has indeed ascertained, that many mineral formations have been materially influenced, or even occasioned by these agencies of electricity, and conceives that the association of insoluble metallic and earthy compounds, containing acids, may be accounted for; and from successful experiments expects, that the electrical power of transference may serve to explain some of

the principal and most mysterious facts in geology. The slow and silent operations of natural electricity, in every part of the surface of the earth, he thinks, will probably be found more immediately and more importantly connected with the order and economy of nature, than in the case of its evident and powerful concentration in the atmosphere: investigations on this subject, he observes, can hardly fail to enlighten our philosophical systems of the earth; and may possibly place new powers within our reach.

To Mr. *Davy* we are indebted for the establishing of the following principles—that all bodies that chemically combined are naturally in opposite states; that if brought into the same state, they no longer enter into union; and that if the difference be exalted, they combine with more energy: that oxygen is, in its properties, opposed to all the other bodies in nature; that wherever it exists in large proportions in compounds, it is always associated with one species of electrical power; and that it is naturally highly *negative*, and therefore combines with all bodies that are highly *positive*, but if made positive by artificial means, it separates from its compounds, and appears in its pure form.

The truly philosophic genius of Mr. *Davy* is manifested in the happy and appropriate application of the means of investigation, in his correct and comprehensive view of the phænomena presented to him, in the acuteness of discernment, and accuracy of reasoning, which enable him, not only to explain these phænomena, but also to mark those data, and to establish those principles which supply the power of farther extending his discoveries. By the most sedulous and energetic employment of these faculties he has succeeded in the analysis of bodies which had never been yet decomposed, and in the discovery of the most important and interesting philosophical facts.

Potash, damp at the surface, was placed on an insulated surface, which was connected with the negative wire of the voltaic battery, and the wire from the positive side was placed

on the upper surface of the alkali. The potash fused and effervesced, and small globules of a high metallic lustre, like those of quicksilver, appeared; some of which burnt with explosion and bright flame as soon as formed; whilst others were at first merely tarnished, but became finally covered with a white film. In this experiment, as in other decompositions, the combustible base was developed at the negative surface, and oxygen evolved at the positive surface. The white crust formed on the globules was found to be potash, and to have been produced by the oxygen of the atmosphere. The potash thus formed speedily absorbed water, which was again decomposed, the oxygen combining with the globule, and the hydrogen escaping; the process going on until the globule had assumed the form of a saturated solution of potash. When the globules were strongly heated in oxygen, a rapid combustion with a brilliant white flame was produced, and oxygen was absorbed, by which the globules were converted into a white and solid mass, which was found to be potash, and which exceeded in weight the combustible matter consumed. The separation of these principles seems to be the consequence of the combustible base of the fixed alkali being repelled, as other combustible substances, by positively electrified surfaces, and attracted by negatively electrified surfaces, the oxygen following the contrary order; or, the oxygen being naturally possessed of the negative energy and the bases of the positive, do not remain in contact when either of them is brought into an electrical state opposite to its natural one. In the synthesis, on the contrary, the natural energies or attractions come in equilibrium with each other; and when these are in a low state at common temperatures, a slow combination is effected; but when they are exalted by heat, a rapid union is the result; and, as in other like cases, with the production of fire.

The inflammable base of potash acting almost on every body to which it was exposed, a difficulty arose as to confining it, until it was found, that it was defended, in a considerable degree, by being invested by a thin film of naphtha recently distilled.

At 100° Fahr. the base was perfectly fluid, at 50° soft and malleable, and at about the freezing point it became harder and brittle, and of a crystallized texture. Its specific gravity at 62° Fahr. is to that of mercury as 10 to 223, and to that of water nearly as 6 to 10. It is a perfect conductor of electricity and of heat. It is the lightest fluid body known, and even in a solid state, at 40° Fahr. it swims in double distilled naphtha. To be converted into vapour it requires a temperature approaching that of red heat, when it is raised without alteration. Introduced into oxymuriatic acid gas it burns with a bright red light, and forms muriate of potash. Heated in hydrogen it seems to dissolve in it, the gas, on passing into the air, exploding with alkaline fumes and bright light; but, by cooling, the base is either wholly or principally deposited. Brought into contact with water at common temperatures, it decomposes it with great violence, instantaneous explosion, and brilliant flame; a solution of pure potash being the result, and a white gradually extending ring of smoke arising, like that from the combustion of phosphuretted hydrogen. Placed upon ice it instantly burns with a bright flame, a hole being made in the ice containing solution of potash. In these experiments heat arises both from decomposition and combination, sufficiently intense to produce the inflammation, and a part of the globule being, in all probability, dissolved by the heated nascent hydrogen, this substance explodes spontaneously, and communicates the effect of combustion to any of the base which may be yet uncombined. So strong is the attraction of this metal for oxygen, that it decomposes even the small quantities of water contained in alcohol and ether; forming with the oxygen potash, which not being soluble in these fluids, is precipitated, and hydrogen is disengaged. It inflames and burns on the surface when thrown into solutions of mineral acids. It readily combines with the simple inflammable solids, and with the metals; with phosphorus and sulphur, it forms compounds similar to the metallic phosphurets and sulphurets. It amalgamates with mercury; but the mercury is freed from

it as it unites with the oxygen of the air or of water. The fluid amalgam of this substance and mercury dissolved all the metals which were exposed to it; and in this state of union, mercury acts on iron and platina. It unites with gold, silver, or copper, when heated in close vessels; but when the compounds are thrown into water, the water is decomposed, potash is formed, and the metals are separated unaltered. Its action on oils and resins also shows its strong attraction for oxygen. It reduces metallic oxides, and decomposes glass. A globule placed on moistened paper tinged with turmeric, burns and moves rapidly on the paper, leaving behind it a deep reddish brown trace.

Soda, when treated in the same manner as potash, yielded nearly analogous results: the inflammable base thus separated, became solid on cooling, and appeared to have the colour and lustre of silver. It was exceedingly malleable, much softer than any of the common metallic substances, and was so easily extensible as to be capable of being welded at common temperatures. Its specific gravity is to that of water nearly as 9 to 10, or more accurately as 9348. to 1. It has a much higher point of fusion than the basis of potash; becoming a perfect fluid at about 180° , and fuses readily under boiling naphtha. The degree of heat at which it is volatile is not ascertained, it remaining fixed at the point of fusion of plate glass. The chemical phenomena produced by the basis of soda, are analogous to those produced by the basis of potash; but with such characteristic differences as might be well expected. From accurate experiments made to determine the proportions of the peculiar bases and oxygen in potash and soda, it appeared that, potash consisted of about 6 parts basis and 1 of oxygen; and that soda consisted of 7 basis and 2 oxygen. The opacity, lustre, malleability, conducting powers as to heat and electricity, and their qualities of chemical combination, determining that these newly obtained substances should be called metals, Mr. *Davy* has named them POTASSIUM and SODIUM.

During the preceding course of inquiry, Mr. *Davy* suspected that oxygen might exist in the *volatile alkali*, as well as in the

fixed alkalis; and that this was the case, he soon became satisfied by a series of most ingenious and well-adapted experiments; it proving to be a triple compound of nitrogen, hydrogen, and oxygen, in which the oxygen could not be estimated at less than 7 or 8 parts in 100. Oxygen then exists in and forms an element of all true alkalis; so that *the principle of acidity* in the French nomenclature, may be likewise called *the principle of alkalescence*. From analogy alone, Mr. *Davy* also thought it reasonable to expect that the *alkaline earths* were compounds of a similar nature to the fixed alkalis; and some experiments which he made at this period, went far, he thought, to prove that this must be the case, and that even lime, magnesia, glucina, alumina, and silex, might yield their elements to the methods of analysis by electrical attraction and repulsion.

Although potash and soda had never been considered as metallic in their nature, ideas had been entertained from the earliest periods of chemistry, that the earths might be metallic substances. Whilst engaged in a series of experiments, which had detected a metallic substance in *barytes*, *lime*, *strontites*, and *magnesia*, Mr. *Davy* was informed by Prof. *Benzelius*, that, in conjunction with Dr. *Pontin*, he had succeeded in decomposing barytes and lime, by negatively electrifying mercury in contact with them; and that in this way he had obtained amalgams of the metals of these earths. These experiments were repeated by Mr. *Davy* with perfect success, and extending them to strontites and magnesia, he had analagous results. By combining the methods he had before employed with those of MM. *Benzelius* and *Pontin*, larger quantities of amalgams were obtained, and these, by a well-adapted apparatus and ingenious manipulations, had their mercury raised from them by distillation. The residuum of the amalgam of *barytes* appeared as a white metal of the colour of silver. It was fixed at all common temperatures, but became fluid at a heat below redness, and did not rise in vapour when heated to redness in a tube of plate glass, but acted violently upon the glass, producing a black

mass, which seemed to contain barytes, and a fixed alkaline basis in the first degree of oxygenation. The metal from *strontites* sunk in sulphuric acid, and exhibited the same characters as that from barytes, except in producing strontites by oxygenation. The metal from *lime* could not be examined exposed to air, nor under naphtha. In one experiment in which the quick-silver was distilled to the greatest extent, the tube broke, and on the air entering, the metal, which had the colour and lustre of silver, instantly took fire, and burnt with an intense white light into quick-lime. The metal from *magnesia* appeared as a solid, having the same whiteness and lustre as the other metals of the earths, and quickly changed to a white powder, which was magnesia. Although the proportions of oxygen to the bases could not be ascertained, it was found, that whilst burning they absorbed oxygen, gained weight in the process, and were in their highly caustic or unslaked state. The metallic nature of the alkaline earths being thus established, the new substances were named by Mr. *Davy*, BARIUM, STRONTIUM, CALCIUM, and MAGNIUM.

Anxious to discover the real nature of the other earths, Mr. *Davy* made an immense number of experiments, with the hope of accomplishing the decomposition of *alumine*, *silex*, *zircon*, and *glucine*; and from the general tenor of their results, he found great reason to conclude, that these earths, like the alkaline earths, are metallic oxydes; the evidences of their decomposition and composition are not, however, of the same strict nature as those which belong to the fixed alkalis and alkaline earths.

Professor *Benzelius* and Dr. *Pontin* found that mercury, negatively electrified in the voltaic circuit, in contact with solution of *ammonia*, expanded to four or five times its former dimensions, and became a soft solid—AN AMALGAM OF THE BASIS OF AMMONIA AND MERCURY. An operation, in which hydrogen and nitrogen exhibited metallic properties; or in which a metallic substance was apparently composed from its

elements, induced Mr. *Davy* to examine the circumstances connected with it minutely and extensively.

This amalgam at 70° or 80° is a soft solid, of the consistence of butter; at the freezing temperature it becomes firmer, and a crystallized mass. Its specific gravity is below 3, water being 1. In the air it acquires a crust of ammonia. In water it produces a quantity of hydrogen, equal to about half its bulk, the water becoming a weak solution of ammonia. In muriatic acid gas, muriate of ammonia is formed, and a small quantity of hydrogen is disengaged. The quantity of basis of ammonia combined in 60 grains of quicksilver does not exceed $\frac{1}{200}$ part of a grain, and to supply oxygen to this, scarcely $\frac{1}{1000}$ part of a grain of water is required. Professor *Benzelius* and Dr. *Pontin* regarded their experiment on ammonia as a strict proof of the idea Mr. *Davy* had formed of its being an oxyde with a binary basis: and in further proof of it, Mr. *Davy* found, that when the amalgam was confined in a given portion of air, the air enlarged in volume, and the pure quicksilver reappeared: ammoniacal gas, equal to about one and a half of the volume of the amalgam being produced, and a quantity of oxygen, equal to one-seventh or one-eighth of the ammonia, disappearing. The more the properties of the amalgam obtained from ammonia, as Mr. *Davy* observes, are considered, the more extraordinary do they appear. Mercury, by combination with about $\frac{1}{12000}$ part of its weight of new matter, is rendered a solid, yet has its specific gravity diminished from 13.5 to less than 3, all its metallic characters, its colour, lustre, opacity, and conducting powers remaining unimpaired. But on what, Mr. *Davy* asks, do the metallic properties of AMMONIUM depend? Are hydrogen and nitrogen both metals in the aëriform state, at the usual temperatures of the atmosphere, bodies of the same character, as zinc and quicksilver would be in the heat of ignition? Or are these gases, in their common form, oxides, which become metallized by deoxidation? Or are the simple bodies not metallic in their own nature, but capable of

composing a metal in their deoxygenated, and an alkali in their oxygenated state.

OXYGEN, he observes, is the only body which can be supposed to be elementary, attracted by the *positive surface* in the electric circuit: and all compound bodies, the nature of which is known, that are attracted by this surface, contain a considerable portion of it. HYDROGEN is the only matter attracted by the *negative surface*, which can be considered as acting the opposite part to oxygen. May not then the different inflammable bodies, supposed to be simple, contain this as a common element? Should this be proved, still the alkalis, the earths, and the metallic oxides, will belong to the same class of bodies; since from platina to potassium, and perhaps to ammonium, there is a regular order of gradation as to their physical and chemical properties.

So rapidly have the valuable discoveries of this gentleman succeeded to each other, that whilst this account was preparing for the press, his opening lecture at the Royal Institution announced that experiments which he had lately made, had given him reason to conclude that sulphur and phosphorus were triple compounds, containing oxygen, hydrogen, and peculiar bases;—that plumbago was an alloy of the pure carbonaceous element and iron;—that charcoal and the diamond were the same element; the former of these substances containing also a small portion of hydrogen, and the latter a very minute quantity of oxygen.

Employing the new metals, potassium and sodium, as instruments of analytic research, he has, by their agency, already decomposed the boracic and fluoric acids. He has also by the same powerful agents produced some extraordinary phenomena with sulphuretted hydrogen, carbonic acid, and carburetted hydrogen gases, these phenomena leading to the most unexpected and important conclusions. When heated in contact with the gases just enumerated, these metals burn with the greatest brilliancy, although common combustible substances, when introduced into the same gases, in a state of inflammation,

are instantly extinguished. During the experiment with the carbonic acid gas, the carbonaceous matter is represented as being precipitated in a most pleasing and beautiful manner.

Mr. *Davy* had, in the former part of the Bakerian lecture, referred the origin of volcanoes and subterraneous fires to the exposure of combustible metallic bases below the surface, to the oxygen of air and water: "From such an operation," he says, "intense heat must be generated, igneous explosions produced, the surrounding country convulsed, and the lava as a product of combustion poured forth upon the surface."

From recently discovered facts, Mr. *Davy* is also led to believe, that the renovation of the atmosphere, depends rather upon electrical changes, than upon the agency of the vegetable kingdom.

It had been conceived from the experiments of the Swedish chemists, that the metals are probably compounds, this opinion is, however, not adopted by Mr. *Davy*, he concludes, indeed, from his experiments, that whenever hydrogen or nitrogen is condensed in a compound, free from oxygen, it forms a metallic alloy. He also conceives that the continual addition which is making to the number of the metals favours the idea, that ultimately there may be found only two species of matter on the globe—oxygenous and metallic, gifted with opposite energies, and capable of entering into an infinite variety of combinations.

Even whilst correcting this sheet, the editor learnt, that Mr. *Davy* had read another paper before the Royal Society, in which experiments are related shewing, that he had succeeded in the decomposition of nitrogen, which appears to be an oxide of hydrogen, containing a greater proportion of oxygen than even exists in water.

Thus are almost daily discoveries presented to us, every one of which are sufficient to give immortality to their author, and to set aside the most generally received opinions. Neither the phlogistic nor antiphlogistic theories of combustion can now explain several phenomena, which appear, however, to

admit of easy explanation, on the principle of negative and positive energy. Chemical qualities are seen to coincide always with certain electrical states of bodies. Acids are uniformly negative, alkalis positive, and inflammable substances highly positive: and all are found to lose the peculiar properties and powers of combination, by a change of their electrical states. Chemical qualities are now shown to depend on electrical powers; and it is not impossible that matter of the same kind, possessed of different electrical powers, may exhibit different chemical forms.

Common muriatic acid, Mr. *Davy* has found to contain at least a third of its weight of water; and has not been able to procure it free from water in an uncombined state. He has however obtained combinations of muriatic acid with phosphorus, phosphoric, sulphuric acid and with phosphorus, free from moisture; and these compounds, even when fluid, though constituted by matters supposed to be intensely acid, do not act on litmus paper, nor dissolve alkalis, and are non-conductors of electricity; but a very small quantity of water develops their energies, renders them conductors, and enables them to act violently on litmus and alkaline bodies. With these compounds of muriatic acid, potassium detonates violently even at common temperatures; the muriatic acid being supposed to be decomposed in the experiment.

FINIS.



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July 21st No 45 (1877)

