

The chemical pocket-book, or Memoranda chemica : arranged in a compendium of chemistry : with tables of attractions, &c.; Calculated as well for the occasional reference of the professional student, as to supply others with a general knowledge of chemistry / by James Parkinson ; with the latest discoveries ; from the London second edition of 1801 ; to which is added an appendix, containing the principal objections to the antiphlogistic system of chemistry / by James Woodhouse, M.D. ... ; embellished with copperplates.

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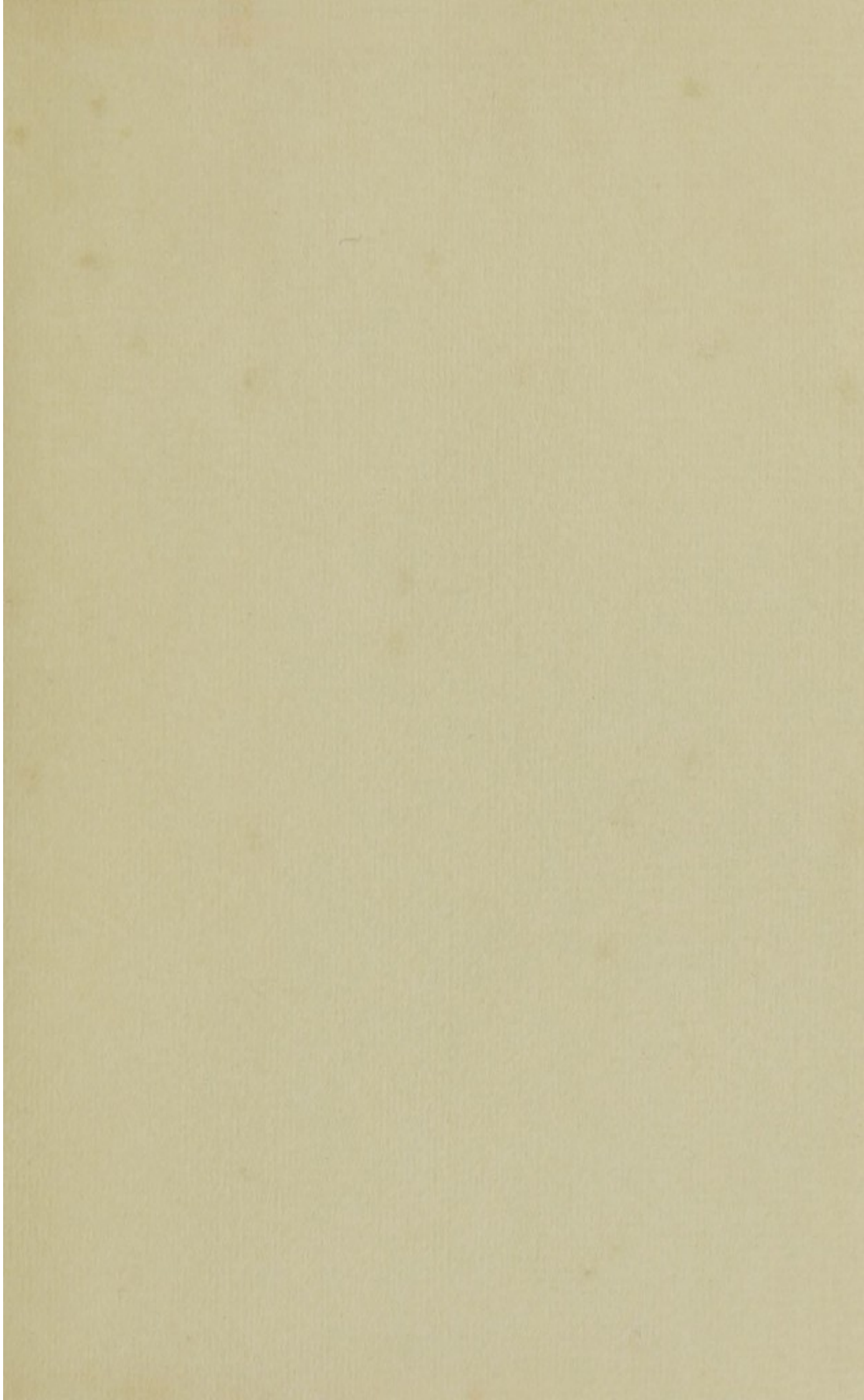
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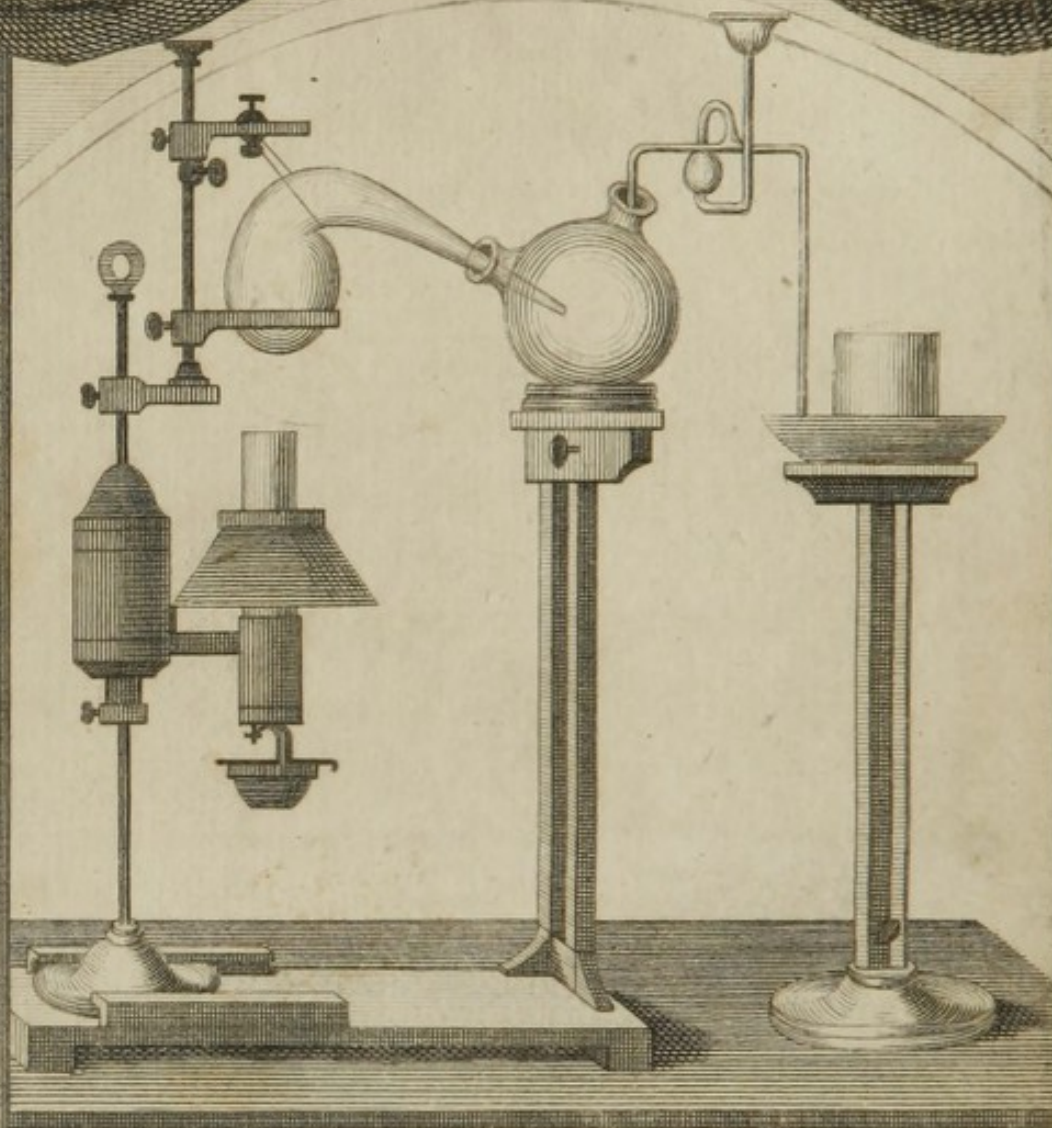
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A. A.

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The Chemical Characters of Hassenfratz & Adet.

THE
CHEMICAL POCKET-BOOK;

OR

MEMORANDA CHEMICA:

ARRANGED IN A

COMPENDIUM OF CHEMISTRY:

WITH TABLES OF ATTRACTIONS, &c.

CALCULATED AS WELL FOR THE OCCASIONAL REFERENCE
OF THE PROFESSIONAL STUDENT,

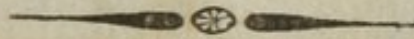
AS TO SUPPLY OTHERS

WITH A GENERAL KNOWLEDGE OF CHEMISTRY.

BY JAMES PARKINSON.

WITH THE LATEST DISCOVERIES.

FROM THE LONDON SECOND EDITION OF 1801.



To which is now added

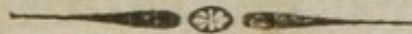
An Appendix,

Containing

THE PRINCIPAL OBJECTIONS TO THE
ANTIPHLOGISTIC SYSTEM OF CHEMISTRY.

BY JAMES WOODHOUSE, M. D.

Professor of Chemistry in the University of Pennsylvania, &c.



EMBELLISHED WITH COPPERPLATES.

Philadelphia:

PRINTED AND SOLD BY JAMES HUMPHREYS,
At the N.W. Corner of Walnut and Dock-street.

1802.

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Faint, illegible text, possibly bleed-through from the reverse side of the page.

DESCRIPTION
OF
THE FRONTISPIECE.

IN the upper part of the plate is represented **THE** **ECONOMICAL 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.

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Thus is formed the PNEUMATO-CHEMICAL APPARATUS. By reversing the frame-work, 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.

A fuller description of this apparatus is to be found in Mr. Nicholson's excellent Journal.

The Tablet in the lower compartment of the plate exhibits the CHARACTERS employed by *Haffenfratz 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 either *pot-ash* or *soda*. 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, SULPHUR, HYDROGEN, CARBON, 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. To denote the *addition of caloric*, in such a portion, to any substance as gives it the state of FLUIDITY, the character for that substance is affixed to the *bottom* of the perpendicular line which stands for caloric; and its GASEOUS state is implied by its being affixed to the *upper* part of the perpendicular line. 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 OXY-NITRIC 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 OF 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, MURI-ATES, OXY-MURIATES, 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 TARTAROUS, MOLYBDIC, TUNGSTIC, CHROMIC, SUBERIC, ZOO-NIC, PYROTARTARIC, PYROMUCIC, PYROLIGNIC, SACCHOLACTIC, and SEBACIC ACIDS, 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 the Author hoped it might be more particularly beneficial: furnishing, like a bird's eye view to a traveller, a general view of the relation and connection of the several parts of that region, which is soon to become the object of a nearer and closer investigation.

It is hardly necessary to acknowledge the Author's obligations to the various labours of BERGMAN, FOURCROY, LAVOISIER, CHAPTAL, KIRWAN, HATCHETT, PEARSON, BABINGTON, &c. as they must appear on the face of the work. Like the bee, he has roved freely, in search of

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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 most other sciences; and the vast advantages a knowledge of its principles may yield to those who are engaged in the most 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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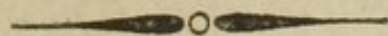
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Commenced January 22. 1800

Edwin P.

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 affected.

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, OR AFFINITY OF COMPOSITION, is that by which the heterogeneous particles of bodies are united. The general principles, or laws by which this power acts, are—

1. *It takes place between the constituent parts of bodies of different natures.* Thus acids combine with alkalies, alkalies with sulphur, metals with acids, &c.

2. *It acts in the inverse ratio of the affinity of aggregation.* For as it appears to act on the infinitely small particles of bodies, its operation must be impeded by that force of aggregation which allows but few of these ultimate molecules to be exposed to its influence. Thus metals are not acted on by sulphur or saline substances, whilst each retains a solid form ; but when by a state of fluidity, a more extended application of the particles of one of the bodies takes place, the capacity of action is thereby increased, and a combination ensues, which, in the case of a solid and a fluid body, is termed *solution* ; and the fluid body has been termed a *solvent*, and has been supposed to act with a superior degree of force than the solid aggregate. This, however, is not the case, since the action is equal on both sides ; and the new combination is the consequence of the affinity of composition between the two substances exceeding the affinity of aggregation.

3. *Bodies, immediately on being united by it, suffer a change of temperature.* This depends on the change which takes place with respect to the degree of attraction for the matter of heat.

4. *The Compound possesses properties differing from those which were before possessed by the bodies of which it is composed.* This difference may exist not only in the taste, but also in the consistence, form, smell, colour, fusibility, &c.

5. *All bodies have their own peculiar affinities with other bodies.* Thus some bodies refuse to unite, whilst others form an almost inseparable union.

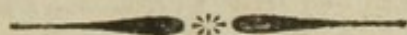
By obtaining a knowledge of the powers of these respective affinities, the result of different combinations may be previously ascertained. This knowledge is obtained by measuring the difficulty with which combinations are destroyed, on the application of other substances. Thus an acid may be preserved 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 effected 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.

Considering the degrees of affinity to be precisely as the points of saturation, he therefore marks the degree of affinity of any body with an acid, by the quantity of that body which may be dissolved in 100 parts of the acid. Thus supposing 96 grains of lime to be required to saturate 100 grains of nitric acid, he takes 96 for the numerical expression of its degree of affinity with that acid. The affinity of pot-ash with the same acid he thus finds to be 215, and therefore says, the affinities of lime and of pot-ash to nitric acid is as 96:215; and that, therefore it may be inferred that a combination of nitric acid and lime must be decomposed by pot-ash.

These numbers however are not to be considered as expressive of the *exact* forces of attractions, but sufficiently so to enable us to foretel decompositions and compositions.

The real nature of what are termed *reciprocal attractions*, cannot be understood, unless the agency of certain interposing attractions be also considered, such as those of caloric, light, and the surrounding air; with the difference of cohesion, and of gravitation in the particles of the compounds, as well as in the particles of the menstrua and bases, &c. These apparent reciprocal affinities being generally the result of certain combinations not hitherto sufficiently examined.



OF EARTHS.

EARTH is an inodorous, dry, brittle, uninflamable, naturally white, and generally tasteless substance; of very sparing solubility in water, but soluble in one or other of the acids: from which solution no precipitate is produced by prussiate of pot-ash, or of lime. Sp. gr. to water not exceeding 5 to 1. There appear to be nine different earths, which may be considered as simple substances.

1. LIME, when perfectly pure, is termed *QUICK-LIME*, or *pure calcareous earth*. To obtain it in that state, after clearing it as much as possible from extraneous matters, 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 28,7 of water, and becoming *SLAKED LIME*, during which change a degree of phosphorescence may be discovered in the dark.

It requires nearly 700 times its weight of water to hold it in solution; this solution, which is called *LIME WATER*, has rather an arid taste; on exposure to the air the lime separates from it.

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

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. It has been supposed to be entirely of animal origin; but this is doubtful where it exists as primitive lime-stone, or in granite.

2. **MAGNESIA** has not been met with native in an uncombined state. When pure it is very light and white, and requires 7,900 times its weight of water to hold it in solution. Sp. gr. about 2,3. It combines with all the *acids*, the *sulphuric* taking it from the *nitric* or *muriatic* without forming a precipitate.

It is as infusible as lime, and like it is fused when mixed with the *phosphate*, or *borate of soda*, and without effervescence.

3. **ALUMINE**, or *EARTH OF ALUM*, is the true *argillaceous* part of common clay. It is never found pure, in a native state. When pure it is white, smooth, and of an unctuous feel, adherent to the tongue, diffusible in water, and not more soluble than magnesia. Sp. gr. 2,00. When heated it diminishes in bulk, and 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 alum, but with the *nitric* and *muriatic* it chrySTALLIZES difficultly.

It is fusible alone, only by the flame of oxygen gas; but with *phosphate* or *borate of soda*, it may be fused with nearly the same degree of facility as lime and magnesia.

4. **SILICA** is the earth which chiefly forms flint, rock crystal, and many of the gems. It is of a rough and harsh feel, and appears to be soluble in water itself. Fifty grains of colourless fluid, contained in the cavities in basalt, have been found to hold a grain of siliceous earth in solution.

It is acted on by no other known *acid*, but the *fluoric*, and yet an alkaline solution of this earth admits of supersaturation with an acid without any precipitation.

It is infusible alone, and is but little acted on by *phosphate of soda*, and but little more by *borate of soda*. *Fixed alkalies* are the effectual solvents of this earth, forming with it glass. Effervescence takes place in this case, but not with the borate of soda. The fixed alkalies act on it even in the moist way.

5. **BARYT**, also termed from its high specific gravity *PONDEROUS EARTH*, is not found pure; but when it is obtained pure, by the action of a strong heat on it in combination with nitric acid, it is more caustic than lime, and absorbs water eagerly, forming a very tenacious cement. When covered with water it is dissolved with a hissing noise, and crystallizes in transparent needles, forming a compages like beaten plaster. Cold water dissolves a 25th

part of its weight, and boiling one-half. It is also soluble in alcohol, and is dreadfully poisonous.—*Annals de Chimie*, xxi.

It is not fusible alone but is acted on by the same fluxes as lime.

It has the greatest affinity with *muriatic acid*, of all alkaline or earthy substances. The sulphate which precipitates on the addition of *sulphuric acid* to its solution in the nitric or muriatic acids, requires 40,000 times its weight of water for its solution.

6. STRONTIA has not been found pure; when obtained so by art it is more soluble, and specifically heavier than lime. It is visibly precipitated from its solution in 200 parts of water, yielding compressed rhomboidal crystals. It does not separate lime from acids.

It dissolves readily in the *nitric* and *muriatic* acids, 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.

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

7. JARGONIA, is found in the stone called *JARGON*, from Ceylon, and in the Hyacinth. It possesses roughness and hardness resembling silica, but in many respects resembles alumine. Sp. gr. exceeds 4,000. It appears to be insoluble in water.

It unites with the *carbonic*, *nitric*, and *sulphuric acids*, but is precipitated from the last by the alkalies, and the other earths. When precipitated by the caustic alkalies it retains a quantity of water, which imparts to it the semi-transparency of horn, which with its colour and fracture gives it the appearance of gum arabic.

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

8. GLUCINE was discovered by Vauquelin in the BERYL, or AQUA MARINA, and in the EMERALD. It is soluble in the *sulphuric acid* in excess, and in the *carbonate of ammoniac*. It decomposes aluminates, and is completely precipitated from its solutions by ammoniac. 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.

9. **AGUSTINE** is an earth which, as its name imports, forms, with acids, salts which are tasteless. It was found by Trommsdorff in a mineral resembling the beryl. This earth resembles alumine, in not being acted on either by the fixed alkalies or ammoniac. It is not soluble in water; and by fire it acquires hardness, but no taste, and suffers no change in its solubility in acids. Superfaturated with phosphoric acid it yields a salt of easy solubility; but its sulphate and acetite are very difficultly soluble.

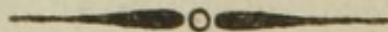
Guyton has obtained unequivocal proofs, not only that there exists among **THE EARTHS** a tendency to unite both in the dry and humid way; but also that with regard to some of the earths, the union is such as to be capable of resisting an addition of acid in excess.

Guyton also observes, that the action which **BARYT**, **STRONTIA**, and **LIME** exert on oils, soaps, and animal matters, with their union with the Prussian colouring principle, sulphur, and the acids, form so many points of resemblance with the alkaline substances. But he does not seem to think they are sufficient to warrant a common classical denomination.—*Annales de Chimie*, xxxi.

Ingenhousz, *Humboldt*, and *Van Mons*, observed that the earths, being moistened, possessed the property of absorbing oxygen from the atmosphere at the ordinary temperature.

M. Girtanner discovered, that by the application of heat this effect was considerably increased; and that with a temperature much exceeding that of the atmosphere they would separate oxygen from water. *Alumine* attracts it with the greatest avidity, at a temperature much below that of boiling water. *Lime* requires a higher temperature, and then does not absorb so much oxygen. *Silica* requires a red heat, and then it seizes it rapidly.

The avidity with which oxygen is absorbed by lime, accounts for the unhealthiness of rooms, the walls of which have been lately white-washed.—*Annales de Chimie*, xxxiii.



OF 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 gene-

rally supposed, that these effects depend on a certain matter called *Caloric*, or the *Matter of Heat*.

CALORIC appears to be an highly elastic imponderable fluid; and is so very subtle, that neither has its gravity been yet ascertained, nor its existence, in a simple and uncombined state been shewn. It combines chemically with all bodies, in a quantity proportioned to their affinity with it. By its elastic power 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.

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

Bodies, which thus transmit caloric, are termed CONDUCTORS OF CALORIC; and according to the power of doing this, they are termed *good* or *bad conductors*.

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 a less quantity of caloric than the other, to render it of the common temperature.

At the moment of the chemical union of two different substances, the new compound, not perhaps having the same affinity with 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.

The property by which bodies require different quantities of caloric to produce the same temperature has been termed the *capacity for heat*; and the quantity of caloric thus required, *specific heat*.

The caloric thus absorbed, is termed *combined caloric*, or in the language of the celebrated Dr. Black, *latent heat*. But when it is perceptible by the organs of feeling, it is termed *free caloric*, or according to Dr. Black, *sensible heat*.

The caloric which enters into the composition of bodies may be *chemically combined*, or only *adherent*. In the former case new combinations may extricate the combined caloric; but in the latter, mere mechanical pressure, or a change in the state of solidity or fluidity in the body, may suffice to set it free.

Thus bodies passing from a solid to a liquid state, or from either of these to a gaseous form, absorb from the surrounding bodies a portion of heat which becomes *latent*; entering into combination, as one of the necessary constituents of the body, in that state.

Every substance also passing from a state of vapour to that of a liquid, and from this state to the solid state, suffers its combined caloric to escape, which then becomes *sensible* or *free*.

If a body be not of a nature to undergo such separation of its parts, by the addition of caloric, as may occasion an alteration of its form, still an increase of its bulk or dimensions, proportionate to its increase of temperature, will take place.

On this principle 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.

Mr. Wedgwood constructed a PYROMETER on another principle. It is composed of pieces of nicely gauged 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.

Ice imbibes the caloric communicated to it by other bodies, until it has absorbed sufficient to render it fluid, the temperature of these bodies descending proportionally. From this circumstance we not only derive a proof of the difference of capacity for caloric, in different bodies, but are also enabled to ascertain the relative quantities of caloric they contain. For since equal quantities of caloric will liquify equal quantities of ice, the quantities of ice liquified by equal quantities of different bodies, will be proportioned to the quantity of caloric those bodies parted with; and will therefore point out the quantities of specific heat they contained, and their respective capacities for caloric.

Count Rumford, from the great quantity of heat produced by friction, is induced to ask, What is heat? Is there any such thing as an igneous fluid? Is there any thing that can with propriety be called caloric? He observes, the source of the heat generated by friction, appears evidently to be inexhaustible; and adds, that any thing which any insulated body, or system of bodies, can continue to furnish without limitation, cannot possibly be a *material substance*. He concludes it to be almost impossible to form any distinct idea of any thing capable of being excited and communicated in the manner that heat is excited and communicated, except it be *Motion*.—*Phil. Trans.* 1798.

Heat, Mr. Davy says, or that power which prevents the actual contact of the corpuscles of bodies, and which is the cause of our peculiar sensations of heat and cold, may be defined a *peculiar motion*, probably a *vibration of the corpuscles of bodies*, tending to separate them. It may with propriety be called **THE REPULSIVE MOTION**. The *non-existence* of caloric, or the fluid of heat, he thinks his experiments have proved.

Dr. Beddoes is also of opinion that most of the phenomena relative to heat, are more easily reconcileable to the *mechanical* than the *chemical* doctrine of heat.—*Contributions to Physical and Medical Knowledge*, 1799.

This portion of caloric, according to *Gren*, is only really *calorific*, or producing warmth, the expansive force of which is active; hence the temperature of a body, he thinks, depends principally on that portion of *free* caloric, which is streaming through and issuing from it.

OF LIGHT.

LIGHT is an elastic fluid, being *reflected* from bodies that it cannot penetrate, in an angle of reflection equal to its 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 refracting power.

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

Sugar, borax, siliceous stones, and many other substances, yield light merely by attrition; other bodies yield it upon being heated. This property has been termed *Phosphorism*.

Spallanzani supposes the splendor of natural phosphori to depend on a slow combustion. The Editors of the *Critical Review* object to this opinion, considering light as distinct from heat.

Humboldt thinks the presence of oxygen gas is necessary to the phosphoric appearance of putrid substances.

Mr. T. Wedgwood found that the phosphorism of almost all bodies might be made apparent, either by heat or by attrition. By placing them on a plate made nearly red hot, he obtained a phosphoric light, not only from different combinations of earths, and other substances which might be expected to possess this property; but also from pieces of white paper, linen and woollen, hair-powder, saw-dust, wax and oils. The light yielded by bodies upon attrition, he conjectures, may be attributed to a sudden heating (red hot) of particles in their surfaces.—*Phil. Trans.* 1792.

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 acted on by luminous bodies, 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.—Prevoft, and others have even endeavoured, but in vain, to estimate its gravity.

Some have doubted whether light is not merely a modification of caloric; and many connect them as cause and effect.

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. Transf.* 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.*

OF OXYGEN.

OXYGEN, or the *acidifying principle*, 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 exclusively the property, from which its name is derived, of forming acids by combination with certain substances, which are therefore termed *acidifiable bases*.

ACIDS, the result of this union, are characterised by a sour taste, and by changing vegetables 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.

Acids 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 the substance is said to be *oxygenated*.

When metals and various other substances are exposed to its action, the acidifying process sometimes takes place unaccompanied by the usual marks of combustion, and in such a degree as not to produce obvious acidity. The substances are then called **OXIDES**, to denote their being in a state approaching to acidity, and the process is termed **OXIDATION**.

OXYGEN GAS is the result of the combination of *oxygen* with *caloric*. It exists in atmospheric air, in the proportion

of 27 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.

COMBUSTION is a process in which this gas is decomposed, the oxygen is absorbed and fixed by the burning body, which has its weight thereby increased, and its nature changed, whilst the caloric, being disengaged, passes off in the 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; and *detonation*, when inflammation occurs with great rapidity and noise. So high a degree of temperature may be produced by the access of oxygen, that by a stream of inflamed oxygen gas, substances, otherwise 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 even 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.

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.

OF 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* with *Caloric*. It is about 12 times as light as common air, being the lightest of all the gases we know; and has a disagreeable odour, which it loses when deprived of the water which it holds in solution, in a quantity equal to half its weight.

It is absorbed by vegetation, and is then supposed to become one of the constituents of oil, resin, &c. It is not fitted for respiration, though not immediately injurious. When by itself, it extinguishes flame; but being mixed with *oxygen* it burns with brilliancy, when any body, already ignited, is brought into contact with it. It is produced by the resolution of animal and vegetable substances, in all which it exists as a constituent principle. It is also obtained from several mineral substances, by certain chemical processes; it containing various impurities, according to the substances from which it is obtained.

WATER is formed by the union of *hydrogen* and *oxygen*. 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 oxidated, 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 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 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 is an unflammable fluid, and when pure, is transparent, colourless, and void both of taste and smell.

It enters into the composition of most bodies in the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms, either in a state of combination, or of simple mixture; contributing to the hardness and transparency of some bodies, as saline or stony crystals, and giving fixity to others, as the acids.

At the temperature marked by 32° F. water parts with caloric, has its volume increased by a confused crystallization, and assumes a *solid* form, when it is termed *ICE*. The temperature being increased, it re-assumes 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 so that the intensity of caloric be raised to a degree marked by 212° F. it then boils, and is converted into an *elastic* fluid, or *AQUEOUS VAPOUR*.

By certain natural processes the atmosphere is constantly impregnated with this vapour. When in consequence of cooling or compression, the caloric separates from the finely divided particles of water, which formed the basis 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 generally contains foreign substances, and when these belong to the mineral kingdom, the waters so impregnated are termed *MINERAL WATERS*. The following table points out, in a general way the contents of those which have excited most notice by their medicinal properties.

Simple cold waters	}	Malvern.
		Holywell.
Simple thermal	}	Bristol.
		Matlock.
		Buxton.
Simple saline, containing chiefly neutral purging salts	}	Sedlitz.
		Epsom.
		Sea.

Highly carbonate alkaline	Seltzer.
Simple carbonate chalybeate	Tunbridge.
Hot carbonate chalybeate	Bath.
Highly carbonated chalybeate	{ Spa. Pyrmont.
Saline, carbonated chalybeate	{ Cheltenham. Scarborough.
Hot, saline, highly carbonated chalybeate	{ Vichy. Carlsbad.
Vitriolated chalybeate	Hartfell.
Cold sulphureous	{ Harrogate. Moffatt.
Hot, alkaline, sulphureous	{ Aix. Borset. Barege.

Dr. Saunders's Treatise on Mineral Waters, 1800.

NITROGEN.

NITROGEN, or *Azot*, 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 mephitis*, is formed by the combination of *nitrogen* with *caloric*. It forms more than two-thirds of the air of the atmosphere; but alone, destroys animal life, and stops combustion. 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 the air, the oxygen gas, has been absorbed. It is obtained from most bodies in the vegetable and animal kingdom, nitrogen existing in these as a radical principle. It is lighter than common air, in the proportion of 985 to 1000, and is not in the least acid, or soluble in water.

NITROGEN, as its name imports, is the chief constituent, the base, of the *NITRIC ACID*; an attention to the following processes will render this sufficiently manifest.

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 first green, then blue, and lastly white.

NITRIC ACID, or *Aqua Fortis*, is the colourless liquid just described, in which the acid exists in a state of complete oxygenation. In proof of which, nitric acid being passed through a red-hot glass tube, is resolved into oxygen gas, and nitrous acid.

Mr. Cavendish has manifested the composition of nitric acid, he having formed it by taking reiterated electrical sparks through a mixture of oxygen, and of nitrogen gas.

NITROS ACID, or *Glauber's fuming Spirit of Nitre*, is the yellow smoking liquor just mentioned. In this a portion of the nitric radical exists not combined with a full proportion of oxygen, and this suboxidated portion 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, **NITROS ACID GAS**, and on being absorbed by water it changes to nitric acid. The acid from which it has escaped also becoming perfect, or nitric acid.

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, iron, brass, 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 is colourless, and will support neither animal life nor combustion. On meeting with 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.

Its composition is proved by burning pyrophori in it, the oxygen being absorbed during combustion, leaving unmixed nitrogen gas.

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 iron filings, or moist sulphuret of alkali; or any other substance which abstracts a portion of the oxygen.

Mr. Davy obtained this **NITROUS OXIDE** by decomposing nitrate of ammoniac at temperatures below 440° . It is heavier than air, and 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 combustible bodies at very high temperatures, is combinable with alkalies, 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 extraordinary effects on the nervous system.

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 Mr. 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.

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.

The nitric acid unites with oils, and forms with them a sub-refinous substance, somewhat resembling musk, sometimes producing inflammation. It rapidly corrodes organic bodies, staining skin, hair, and other animal matters, of a permanent yellow: and oxidates iron, zinc, copper, &c. very speedily, nitrous gas, as already observed, being at the same time formed.

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 subtracted from it by the acidifiable basis, now rendered a peculiar acid. Thus are acids obtained from sugar, arsenic, &c. as will be hereafter shown.

Mr. Mayer first conjectured that nitrogen was composed of oxygen and hydrogen—a water changed into gas.—*Gren's Journal*, vol. v.

Mr. Girtanner finding nitrogen gas produced by passing water through tubes of heated earth, concluded that the oxygen of the water partly united itself with the earth, forming an earthly oxide, and that the remainder, still united to

hydrogen, combining with caloric, formed the nitrogen gas. He therefore described nitrogen as *water deprived of a part of its oxygen*, and considered it, with Mayer, as a *compound of oxygen and hydrogen*, terming it an *oxide of hydrogen*.—*Ann. de Chim.* No. 100.

Berthollet agrees, with Dieman, Van Troostwyk, and Lauwrenberg, in denying this formation of nitrogen gas from water; and in asserting, that it proceeds from the exterior air, deprived of its oxygen gas, by the fire in which the tubes are placed.—*Ann. de Chim.* No. 103.

Dr. Mitchell, of New-York, supposes the matter of pestilence to be Septon (azote,) chemically united with oxygen, base with base, before they had attracted caloric enough to convert them to gases, and give them the repellency incidental to that condition, as is the case when the two distinct gases are merely mixed, as in atmospheric air.

The doctor employs the term *septon*, for nitrogen.

Septous gas, for nitrogen gas.

Septic gas, for nitrous gas, &c.

The Doctor contends that the nitric acid is, in fact, a mixture of the muriatic and sulphuric with the septic, (nitric,) and that nitrous air, nitrous oxide, &c. are similar farragoes.

The Critical Reviewer observes, that nitre obtained from the air has, indeed, always a proportion of muriatic acid, and that sulphuric acid gains admission during refining, but that these are accidental impurities, not component parts.—*Crit. Rev.* Aug. 1800.

ATMOSPHERIC AIR, that transparent, colourless fluid, which every where invests this globe, possessing permanent elasticity and gravity, is composed of *nitrogen* and *oxygen gas*, in the proportion of 73 of the former, and 27 of the latter, in a state of mixture, not of intimate combination; and is soluble in about 30 times its bulk of water.

The constituent principles of atmospheric air are rendered evident by the following experiment. Quicksilver being inclosed in a proper vessel of atmospheric air, on heat being applied, the air will be diminished, and the quicksilver lose its splendour, 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. Atmospheric air contains in every 100 parts, 27 of oxygen, and 73 of nitrogen gas.

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

F. Von Humboldt supposes that our not being able to form an æriform 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.

From the avidity with which nitrous gas absorbs oxygen to form nitric acid, it has been employed by Priestly, Ingenhoufz, and Fontana, as an **EUDROMETER** 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. Guyton 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.

The gravity or pressure of the atmospheric air varies at different times. To mark this variation an instrument called the BAROMETER is employed. This instrument is a tube containing a column of mercury 28 inches in height, which is known to be the exact counterpoise of a column of air of the height of the atmosphere. 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 atmosphere also varies as to the quantity of water it contains. To estimate this variation HYGROMETERS are employed, which are formed of substances which readily shrink by dryness, or swell by the application of the smallest quantity of moisture.

ALKALIES,* whose general characteristics are, 1, an acrid, urinous taste; 2, changing the vegetable blues green; 3, combining with acids, and forming neutral salts; 4, facility of solution in water; appear to be derived from *nitrogen*, which has therefore been esteemed the *alkaligen* principle. They are divided into *volatile* and *fixed*.

AMMONIA, or the *Volatile Alkali*. This has been proved 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 alkalies by its pungent smell,

* By treating of alkalies in this place, they are not only considered in connection with one of their supposed principles, but a knowledge of their respective natures is acquired, previous to an examination of neutral salts, and other combinations of which they form a part.

Dr. Pearson recommends to employ the ancient name *alkali* for the genus, and the ancient names of these salts for the species, abbreviated thus into one word, viz. *Veg-alkali*, *Fos-alkali*, and *Vol-alkali*.—*Chemical Nomenclature*.

and great degree of volatility. 1000 parts contain 807 of nitrogen, and 193 of hydrogen.

ALKALINE GAS is formed by the combination of *ammoniac* with *caloric*. It is lighter than common air, is unfit for combustion, the flame enlarging before it is extinguished. It destroys animal and vegetable life; its other properties resemble those which have already been attributed to ammoniac.

FIXED ALKALIES have for their peculiar characteristics, 1st, Their not being volatilized by the most intense heat. 2dly, The rendering oils miscible with water. 3dly, The forming glass when fused with flinty substances.

Analogy, and even experiment, lead to the conclusion that fixed alkalies are formed by the combination of nitrogen, with some unknown basis, probably earth.

POT-ASH, or the *Vegetable fixed Alkali*, 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, it has improperly been termed *Oil of Tartar, per deliquium*. It is conjectured by Fourcroy, that pot-ash is the result of the combination of nitrogen with lime.

SODA, or the *Mineral fixed Alkali*, is sometimes found in a native state, but is in general obtained by the combustion of maritime plants, particularly of the *kelp*, and of the *sea-grasses*, and *sea-tang*. It differs from pot-ash, in not being deliquescent, and in crystallizing in rhomboidal octahedrons; but the chief differences between them are observable in their respective combinations.

Like the former, this alkali is supposed to be formed by a combination of nitrogen with some other principle, which has also been supposed to be an earth: this earth has been supposed to be magnesia by Fourcroy and Lorgna.

Guyton concludes that LIME is composed of *carbon*, *nitrogen*, and *hydrogen*; and MAGNESIA, of *lime* and *nitrogen*; and that POT-ASH is composed of *lime* and *hydrogen*; and SODA, of *magnesia* and *hydrogen*.

GLASS is a combination of silica with fixed alkali. The mixture is first well calcined, when it is called *frit*; then after complete fusion it becomes *glass-metal*; 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 proportion 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 one 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 Seigling having left a bottle of this liquor undisturbed eight years, found transparent rock crystals formed in it, which gave fire with steel. From this solution, pure silica may be precipitated by the addition of any acid.

Girtanner observes, that in making glass, a complete analysis of the alkali is made, the hydrogen escapes in the form of gas, and the oxygen combines with the flint, the glass being nothing else but an *oxide of silica*.

Professor Klaproth has discovered the *vegetable alkali* in the fossil called *leucite*. It has also been found in *lepidolite*, *lava*, *pumice*, and *zeolite*. Professor Abilgaard found that the *pot-ash* formed a constituent part of animal blood; and La Metherie and Gren have discovered the *fossil alkali* in the *salsula soda*.

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.

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 ammoniac; 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 ni-

tric acid. This on its formation meeting with some earthy or alkaline base, instead of escaping, becomes fixed in a neutral salt. Nitrate of pot-ash crystallizes in hollow striated hexahedral prisms, terminating in hexahedral pyramids. It yields a pungent taste, and impresses the sensation of coldness on the tongue. It is soluble in 7 parts of cold and 1 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 what is 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* 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 1 part of charcoal and 3 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 alkabest*: the acidifiable base or the nitrogen forming a nitrogen gas.

The above process being performed in close vessels, a liquor distils, which is sometimes impregnated with nitrous acid and ammoniac, and has been called *clyffus of nitre*; carbonate of pot-ash remaining in the retort, in consequence of the oxygen combining with the inflammable body, by which an acid is formed, which uniting with the pot-ash of the nitrate, forms a new neutral salt. 100 grains of nitrate of pot-ash is found to contain 30 of acids, 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 generation of carbonic, hydrogen, and nitrogen gases, aided by the vast expansive power of the immense quantity of caloric they in a moment set free.

NITRATE of SODA, *Cubic or Rhomboidal Nitre*, so called from the form of its crystals, 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 3 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 28,80 of acid, 30,09 of alkali, and 21,11 of water.

The strongest nitrous acid is to be found in nitrated soda.
—*Kirwan*.

NITRATE of AMMONIAC, 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 ammoniac, 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 in beautiful flexile needle-like crystals, of a cooling but acrid taste. Exposed to the fire, it fuses, dries, and then detonates. 100 parts contain 46 of acid, 40 of ammoniac, and 14 of water.

NITRATES with *earthy bases*.

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 lixivation of old plaster, and by the mother waters of saltpetre, as they are termed by the manufacturers. It forms 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.

This salt being dissolved in alcohol, gives to it the property of burning with a red flame. The fixed alkalies and baryt precipitate the lime. Sulphuric acid unites with the lime, and disengages the nitric acid. 100 parts contain 43 of acid, 22 of lime, 35 water of crystallization.

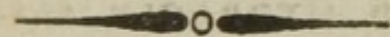
NITRATE of BARYT, has not yet been found native. It crystallizes difficultly in octahedral crystals, and though deliquescent, requires a considerable quantity of water for its solution. Neither alkalies, nor the other earths, decompose it. But the sulphuric acid is detected in any mixture by this salt, since by uniting with the baryt, sulphate of baryt, or ponderous spar, 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.

NITRATE of MAGNESIA, is found in decayed walls, &c. It forms tetrahedral columnar crystals, which taste acrid and bitter, are deliquescent and readily soluble, either in water or spirit of wine. It is decomposed by lime, baryt, 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 ALUMINE forms in small prisms, which are deliquescent, and give an astringent taste. In the fire they swell, and are decomposed, losing their oxygen. Alkalies, magnesia, and lime, decompose this salt.

NITRATE of STRONTIAN forms octahedral crystals, and gives to the flame of alcohol a bright carmine red.

NITRITES, or neutral salts formed with *nitrous acid* have been very little attended to.



OF SULPHUR.

SULPHUR is a simple, inflammable, acidifiable, brittle substance, yielding a peculiar odour when heated, and manifesting electric powers on being rubbed.

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, excluding the external air to prevent its inflammation, when it is termed *sublimed sulphur*, or formerly *flowers of sulphur*. By a moderate heat it may be fused, when it will crystallize in thin needles, mostly of an octahedral form; and in this state it may be poured into moulds, and formed into rolls or sticks.

Neither *nitrogen*, nor *carbon*, have any apparent attraction to sulphur; 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.

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. This compound is a hard substance, of a brown liver-colour, which soon imbibes moisture from the atmosphere; when it emits 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 sulphurated hydrogen the basis of this gas, but which being retained by a separated portion of the alkali requires the addition of an acid, and the aid of heat, to produce the separation of the gas. The sulphur itself is precipitated in the form of a white powder, which has been called *milk of sulphur*; its oxygen gas uniting with one part of the sulphur, whilst its hydrogen gas, dissolving also a portion, forms

SULPHURATED HYDROGEN GAS, or *Hepatic Gas*, which is distinguished by a peculiar disagreeable smell. It blackens most of the metals, and their oxides, destroys life, renders violets green, and 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. If mixed with oxygen gas it unites with it, forming water and depositing sulphur. The *mineral sulphurous waters* are formed by saturation with this gas.

SULPHURET of AMMONIAC, 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 ammoniac and sulphur uniting, whilst in a state of gas, during distillation, from one part of sulphur, two of ammoniac, and six of quick-lime. Like the other sulphurets, it is decomposed by acids: and if the concentrated sulphuric acid is employed, a dangerous degree of heat, and explosive effervescence will be produced.

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 pulverised 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, sulphurated hydrogen gas being disengaged.

SULPHURET of BARYT. This combination also absorbs light, and shines in the dark; this is the BONONIAN PHOSPHORUS. Ponderous Spar, or *Sulphate of Baryt*, 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 baryt.

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 of 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.

Sulphur being ignited burns with a blue flame, but if the combustion is carried on more rapidly the flame becomes more vivid and white, oxygen combining with the acidifiable base, and forming 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; but it is produced with more facility by the addition of nitre, 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 from 69 to 72 of sulphur, and from 28 to 31 of oxygen.

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 acts rapidly on all inflammable substances, 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 its oxygen, which uniting with the carbon, forms carbonic acid gas.

SULPHUREOUS ACID is formed by this addition of inflammable matter, in consequence of a decomposition of the acid, the inflammable body having thus deprived it of a considerable portion of its oxygen. This change is effected by digesting almost any animal or vegetable substance, or even sulphur in the sulphuric acid, but it gradually absorbs oxygen from the atmosphere, and returns to the state of sulphuric acid.

SULPHUREOUS ACID GAS may be obtained in all those processes in which the sulphuric acid is deprived of a part 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.

SULPHATES are neutral Salts, formed by the sulphuric acid with certain bases.

SULPHATE of POT-ASH, formerly called *Arcanum Duplicatum*, *Sal de duobus*, *Vitriolated Tartar*, and *Vitriol of Pot-ash*. It forms in crystals of hexahedral prisms, terminating in hexahedral pyramids, with triangular faces. It gives rather a penetrating bitter taste, and is soluble in 16 parts of cold water. 100 grains containing 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.

The strongest sulphuric acid, Mr. Kirwan remarks, exists in this salt.

Sulphureous acid is, in fact, produced by a partial decomposition of the sulphuric; but a total decomposition of this acid, an entire separation of its oxygen, and the re-production of its base, sulphur, may even be obtained. For this purpose equal parts of this salt, and fixed alkali, with a fourth of the whole of charcoal being melted together,

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 its own acid. This salt effloresces in the air.

SULPHATE of SODA, formerly called *Glauber's Salt*, *Sal Mirabile*, *Vitriol of Soda*, &c. It 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, crystallizes in striated, flattened hexangular prisms, with hexangular summits, swells and boils upon heated coals, effloresces in the air, and is soluble in its own weight of boiling water, and in 3 parts of cold. 100 parts contain 27 of acid, 15 of alkali, 58 of water. It is decomposed by pot-ash and baryt.

ACIDULOUS SULPHATE of SODA, is formed when the sulphate of soda is supersaturated by its own acid.

SULPHATE of AMMONIAC, called formerly *Glauber's Secret Ammoniacal Salt*. It is very bitter and forms into thin hexahedral prisms, terminating in hexahedral pyramids. It contains acid 42, alkali 40, water 18. It is dissolved in its own weight of boiling water, and twice its weight of cold water. It yields its acid to fixed alkali, baryt 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.

SULPHATES with *earthy bases*.

SULPHATE of LIME, or *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 rhomboidal octahedron. Exposed to fire, 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 infusible *per se*, but melts at 130° on clay. It may be decomposed by the carbonated alkalies and baryt, which unite with the sulphuric acid, and leave the lime disengaged. 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 water. 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.

SULPHATE of MAGNESIA, also called *Epsom Salts*, or *Sal Amarus*, is found in various mineral waters, and even in a solid form in the fissures of rocks. Its crystals are tetrahedral smooth prisms, with obliquely truncated ends, but in general they are acicular: 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 baryt, which unite with the acid, and deposit the magnesia.

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 24 of acid, 19 of magnesia, and 57 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 ALUMINE, or *Alum*, is formed by the sulphuric acid and alumine, the acid existing in excess. The alum of commerce also contains pot-ash, and from the experiments of Prof. Hildebrandt it appears that pot ash is a constituent of alum, since the acid and the earth alone will not form it, neither is it formed by the addition of soda, but it is produced by the addition of carbonate of ammoniac.—*Scherer's Journal*.

It forms octahedral crystals, which generally group so as to represent an indented column. These dissolve in 17 times their weight of cold water, and in rather less than their own weight of boiling water.

In a moderate heat it swells, loses its water of crystallization, and becomes a light white substance called *burnt-alum*. In a more violent degree of heat, it loses part of its acid, and becomes tasteless; is no longer susceptible of crystallization, but precipitates from its solution, in a very fine adhesive powder. Magnesia, baryt, and the alkalies, precipitate it from this solution; but the alkalies added in excess, re-dissolve it. 100 parts contain 38 of standard acid, 18 of earth dried in a high red heat, and 44 of water in crystallization.

By the addition of more alumine the *glass selenite* of *Baumé* is formed, which is almost tasteless and insoluble, and exhibits cubic crystals.

Five parts of burnt alum 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, as long as a blue flame is perceived at the mouth of the bottle, the PYROPHORUS of HOMBERG is obtained, which burns on being exposed to moisture. 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, well calcined sulphate of pot-ash, or of soda; and from pot-ash and vegetable or animal coal.—*Priestley on Air*, vol. III.

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. *Sauvigny* attributed it to the sulphuric acid heating by the moist air, and inflaming the disengaged sulphur. *Proust* denied the presence of sulphuric acid; and *Mr. Bewley* 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 STRONTIAN is earthy, has no taste, and is scarcely soluble in 1000 times its weight of water.

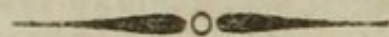
SULPHATE of ZIRCONIA becomes soluble by excess of acid, and gives tetrahedral prisms, in clusters of an astringent taste.

SULPHATE of BARYT, or *Ponderous Spar* or *Barosele-nite*, is generally found in rhomboidal plates, and in other crystals derived from the regular octaëdron. It is less soluble than sulphate of lime; when heated it becomes luminous, and by violent heat, vitrifies. Neither alkalies nor the other acids have any action on this sulphate. 100 parts contain 30 of acid, 67 of baryt, and 3 of water. That which comes from *Mount Paterno*, in *Bologna*, in *Italy*, has

been called the *Bolognian stone*, which, when heated, becomes the BOLOGNIAN PHOSPHORUS.

Of the other Sulphates but little has been noticed.

SULPHITES are neutral salts, formed by the union of *sulphureous acid* with certain bases. Fourcroy and Vauquelin, examining the properties of sulphureous 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 by any substance capable of affording oxygen, and their weight is increased by this conversion. 4. They are decomposed by most acids, which expel the sulphureous acid with effervescence, and the production of a strong penetrating odour. 5. They burn rapidly and with flame, when heated with super-oxygenated muriate of potash, or with salt-petre, and become sulphates. 6. Lastly, the sulphite of lime is not decomposed by the alkalies, like the sulphate.



OF 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.

THE DIAMOND which exceeds all other gems in hardness, density, and refraction of the rays of light, crystallizes in two tetrahedral or trihedral pyramids, united base to base, or in hexahedral prisms terminating in trihedral summits, or in irregular polyhedral grains.

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. Tenant*, who performed the combustion in a crucible of gold. *Bertholet* 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 mat-*

ter 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 oxidation 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 oxidated 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 repeatededulcorations, 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 Chim. No. 93.

CHARCOAL is a black, sonorous and brittle *Oxide of Carbon*, obtained from various substances in the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms, 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 a 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 several gases, which thus condensed retain their properties and even exert them in some instances more powerfully.—*Roupppe. Ann. de Chim.* No. 93.

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

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

CARBONIC ACID GAS, formerly termed *fixed air*, or *aërial acid*, was discovered by Dr. Black, it is formed by the combination just mentioned, of carbon, oxygen, and caloric. Its composition appears to be 28 parts of carbon, and 72 of oxygen, with a certain portion of caloric. 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 heavier than the air of the atmosphere, of which, according to Von Humboldt, it forms a 66th part, in the proportion of $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 1; 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, and is found in the air of the atmosphere in a very small proportion. It readily combines with cold water, to which it gives a peculiar pungent taste, rendering it manifestly acid, heat or congelation again separating it from the water. It exists in a concrete state, in combination with alkalies; and with the earths, particularly with the calcareous; 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. The superior degree of attraction of carbon for oxygen, renders this gas very difficult of decomposition.

Mr. Smithson Tennant, however, by exposing carbonic acid gas to phosphorous, and calcareous earth, in a red heat, obtained, as he supposed, a decomposition of the gas. The oxygen united with the phosphorus, and composed the phosphoric acid, which united with the calcareous earth, the carbon being deposited resembling the charcoal yielded by vegetable matter.—*Phil. Transf.* 1791.

Dr. Pearson made several experiments, by which the carbonic acid was decomposed, and resolved into respirable air and charcoal.—*Phil. Transf.* 1793.

Professor Götting 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.—*Götting's Almanack.*

CARBONATED HYDROGEN GAS, or *Hydro-carbonate Gas*, is formed by the union of *hydrogen* with a portion of *carbon* and *caloric*. It may be obtained by distillation from moistened charcoal.

In illustration of the different states of composition in which the constituent principles of azote enter into the formation of bodies, Girtanner observed, that charcoal, or the oxide of the diamond, is found in many bodies, and the diamond itself in none. We obtain, by our chemical decompositions charcoal and not diamond. We know no diamantic acid, although well acquainted with carbonic acid. No Chemist speaks of our exhaling diamond by respiration, but many of charcoal or carbon. The diamond itself is, perhaps, not a simple body, it still probably contains oxygen, for if I do not deceive myself, all transparent bodies contain it more or less.—*Ann. de Chim.* 100.

When it is considered that the diamond and not charcoal is the real base of this acid, surely the language of Dr. Pearson is to be preferred, and DIAMOND being the *base*, PLUMBAGO should be considered as an *oxidule of diamond*, CHARCOAL as an *oxide of diamond*, and that which has been hitherto termed *carbonic acid*, should be termed the ACID of DIAMOND.

CARBONATES are neutral salts composed of this *carbonic acid*, and certain *bases*.

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 yield oblique tetrahedral prisms, terminating in dihedral truncated summits. It has now less of the urinous taste, but still changes the infusion of violets green. It does not attract moisture from the air, but rather parts with

its water of crystallization. By exposure to heat, it loses its acid, is rendered pure alkali, and capable of uniting with siliceous earth 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 alkalies, the former being added to a solution of the latter, it seizes the carbonic acid, and the *PURE, CAUSTIC ALKALI*, is left.

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 rhomboidal octahedra, of a urinary taste. It is decomposed by quick-lime, by the acids, and by fire, in the same manner as the former carbonate; but it is more easily decomposable by phosphorus, than the other carbonates. 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 AMMONIAC, 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 ammoniac; by exposing the ammoniac in a vessel of the carbonic acid gas; or by distilling it from a mixture of ammoniac 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. It may be decomposed by most of the acids, their affinity with ammoniac exceeding that of the carbonic. Its crystals are tetrahedral; or octahedral prisms, 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, charcoal, nitrogen, and hydro-carbonate.

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, but is found variously crystallized in its native state, in different modifications of the obtuse rhomboid, in its primitive form. 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.

ACIDULOUS CARBONATE of LIME is formed by the solution of this carbonate in water impregnated with carbonic acid.

CARBONATE of BARYT, *Barolite*, *Kirw. Witherite*, *Werner*. This combination has no taste, is not altered in the air, is almost insoluble in water, but is decomposed by heat, and by all the acids. 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 baryt, 0,20 acid. Dissolved in water impregnated with carbonic acid, it is the most effectual test of the presence of sulphuric acid.—*Guyton*.

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.—*Butini*.

When fully saturated with carbonic acid, it becomes more soluble, and by slow evaporation will crystallize in hexagonal prisms with hexagonal summits.—*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.—*Tabl. de Fourcroy*, 1800.

CARBONATE of ALUMINE is formed by the acid of the carbonates of alkalies, combining with the earth thereby precipitated from a solution of alum. It has been found near *Halle*, in *Magdebourg*, and is also called *lac lunæ*. It varies in its proportions.

CARBONATE of STRONTIAN is found at *Strontian*, in Scotland, formed in small striated hexahedral prisms, of a light green, and not quite opaque. It melts into a green glass, and gives the flames of coals a purple hue. Sp. gr. 3,658. It contains acid 0,30, strontian 0,62, water 0,08. It is only decomposable by baryt.—*Fourcroy*.

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

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

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.

OF MURIATIC ACID.

MURIATIC ACID, formerly termed *Marine Acid*, or *Acid of Sea Salt*, &c. is conjectured, from analogy, to consist of oxygen, in combination with a peculiar, but hitherto unknown basis.* It is obtained by distillation, from a mixture of sea salt, with half its weight of sulphuric acid. The residuum is *sulphate of soda*, shewing the sea salt employed to have been a neutral salt composed of this acid and soda.

When pure, it is colourless, and of a less specific gravity than the nitric acid. 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 combustible bodies, but seizes the oxygen of oxidized bodies. It absorbs the carbonic acid, and its affinities with baryt, pot-ash, soda, ammoniac, lime, magnesia, and alumine, appear to be in the order they are here placed.

MURIATIC ACID GAS, is easily obtained in this form: it has a strong smell, and is sharp, without being caustic. It is heavier than common air, extinguishes flame, first en-

* *Girtanner* supposed this radical to be hydrogen; and *Armet* thought it to be the metal zinc.

Mr. W. Lambe supposes that sulphurated 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.

larging it, by a greenish or bluish circum-ambient flame. It suffocates animals, and is unchangeable by light, caloric, or combustible bodies. It unites with water with great rapidity and heat, forming the fluid muriatic acid.

OXYGENATED MURIATIC ACID, is formed by the addition of *oxygen* to the *muriatic acid*, which it seizes with avidity, whenever it is presented to it. It is therefore readily obtained by distillation of the muriatic acid, from substances containing much oxygen; such are the oxides of metals, particularly the native oxide of manganese. The acid is, in this state, of a yellowish colour, of an austere taste, and of an excessively strong disagreeable smell; its vapours irritating the larynx violently. It renders the blue colours of vegetables white, and thus destroys the colour of most substances, thereby losing its oxygen. When about the freezing point, it crystallizes, in quadrangular spiculæ. It oxidates metals with rapidity, and thickens oils. By communicating its oxygen to sulphur, it produces the sulphuric acid. Exposed to the light, oxygen gas is separated, and ordinary muriatic acid is left; and 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 seems to differ from the common muriatic acid, on the same principle as the nitric and sulphuric acids differ from the nitrous and sulphureous; the simple or the oxygenated muriatic acid appearing to be formed, according to the greater or less quantity of oxygen, united to the pure radical. Dr. Gren, therefore, proposes the substitution of the terms *muriatous* for *muriatic*, and *muriatic* for *oxygenated muriatic*; by analogy from *sulphureous* and *sulphuric*, *nitrous* and *nitric*, &c. Supposing the ordinary *muriatic acid* to be an *imperfect acid*, and the *oxy-muriatic* to be a *perfect acid*, but not a super-saturation with oxygen.

When it is mixed with ammoniac, decomposition with great effervescence, takes place; no neutral salt is formed; but the hydrogen of the ammoniac, combining with the superabundant oxygen of the acid, forms water, the nitrogen escapes in the form of gas, and common muriatic acid is left. If the acid and the ammoniac are mixed in the state of gas, considerable detonation and inflammation succeed.

Phosphorus and carbon immediately unite with its oxygen, and form phosphoric and carbonic acids.

Phosphorus, charcoal, cinnabar, antimony, bismuth, zinc, and several other combustible bodies, reduced to powder, are spontaneously inflamed when thrown into this acid, warmed and in a state of vapour.—*Gren.*

It removes the stain of common ink, though it does not affect printer's 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.*

It powerfully bleaches linen, cotton cloths, and paper; and in the proportion of twelve ounces to forty-eight pounds of spirit of wine, it is exceedingly efficacious in bleaching raw silk, and even entire garments.—*Journal de Physique, XLIII.*

MURIATES are neutral salts, formed by the *muriatic acid*, and certain *bases*.

MURIATE of *POT-ASH*, the *febrifuge Salt of Sylvius*. It contains in 100 grains, 29,68 acid, 63,47 alkali, and 6,85 water. It is found in sea-water, in old plaister, and in vegetable and animal fluids. It crystallizes in cubes, 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, purification, &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, decripitates on hot coals, and by great heat, is volatilized without decomposition. It crystallizes in cubes, or in hollow tetrahedrons, soluble in 2,5 their weight of cold water.

The soda is advantageously obtained from it by the addition of nitric acid, and the oxides of lead. The soda is also separable by baryt, 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 *AMMONIAC*, or *Sal Ammoniac*, 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 ammoniac, and 8 water. It crystallizes in quadrangular prisms, with tetrahedral pyramids; 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 ammoniac being disengaged in the state of gas, leaving a muriate of lime or of alkali. If the lime or fixed alkali is pure, *caustic or pure ammoniac* is obtained, but if the carbonate of lime or of alkali be employed, then a *carbonate of ammoniac* is the result of the process.

MURIATE of LIME, *Muriated Calx, Calcareous Marine Salt, or Glauber's fixed Sal ammoniac*, 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 ammoniac. It speedily deliquesces, and therefore, crystallizes with difficulty, in hexahedral prisms, with hexahedral summits. 100 parts of lime take up 86 of real marine acid. It is decomposed by baryt, and the alkalies. It fuses with a moderate heat, 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. Like the nitrate of lime, this salt renders the flame of alcohol red.

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.

MURIATE of BARYT does not seem to exist native. When obtained artificially, it forms in tabular crystals, which do not suffer any change in the air or fire, and have a nauseous and burning taste. Pure alkalies and earths have no effect on this salt. The sulphuric and fluoric acids decompose it very readily; hence this salt is highly useful to detect the presence of these acids in any mixture. This salt produces the same effect on the flame of alcohol as the nitrate of baryt does, giving it a yellowish white hue.

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

MURIATE of STRONTIAN forms hexahedral prisms with alternate broad and narrow surfaces, with trihedral pyramids. It gives to the flame of alcohol a bright red colour.

MURIATE of GLUCINE forms in sweet and very small crystals.

MURIATE of ZIRCONIA 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 exists only in a liquid and cold state, heat precipitating the silica.
—*Fourcroy*, 1800.

AMMONIACO-MAGNESIAN MURIATE is formed by a mixture of the solutions of the two muriates. It forms small, irregular polyhedra; is soluble in seven parts of water, and contains muriate of magnesia 73, and of ammoniac 27.

OXY-MURIATE of POT-ASH is formed by introducing the oxygenated muriatic gas into a solution of pot-ash; 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 emit light by attrition.

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.

It is said to be decomposed by the action of light, parting with its oxygen, and becoming simple muriate.

This is, however, denied by Mr. Hoyle.—*Manchester Memoirs*, vol. v.

Heat separates its oxygen from it, in the form of oxygenous 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 equal quantities of sublimed sulphur, it explodes, by mere trituration; and spontaneously, if kept in a bottle.
—*Nicholson's Journal*.

A grain or two of phosphorus being dropped in a solution of the oxy-muriate in nitric acid, a great number of vivid flashes appear in the liquor.

A little of this muriate being put into the sulphuric acid, violent cracklings or small explosions succeed, and if a small piece of phosphorus be also dropped in, a violent explosion takes place: the addition of heat will also occasion its explosion. This muriate being rubbed with an equal quantity of phosphorus, a violent explosion follows with a flash of light. If mixed with charcoal, and smartly struck with a hammer, flame, but not much noise, succeeds; but with pit-coal, sparks, and some small reports are produced: with sulphur a report and flame; and with sulphuret of pot-ash, and of arsenic 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, aurum musivum, &c.—*Manchester Memoirs*, vol. v. part 1.

The oxy-muriate of carbonated 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.

Being employed in the fabrication of gun-powder instead of nitre, the effects produced by its ignition, are augmented to a four-fold degree; and the mixture will explode by mere trituration.

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

Of the other oxy-muriates but little is known. *Van Mons* says, he formed the **OXY-MURIATE** of **AMMONIAC**; but *Gren* asserts that such a combination cannot exist.

NITRO-MURIATIC ACID, or *Aqua Regia*, is formed by distillation of the *nitric* and *muriatic* acids in the proportion of two parts of the former, and one of the latter. Four ounces of sal-ammoniac 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, as well as a portion of nitrous gas; forming a mixture of muriatic acid thus oxygenated 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 oxidates without dissolving.

OF ACID OF BORAX.

ACID OF BORAX, formerly called *Homberg's Sedative Salt*, 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. It 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. 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. Its acidifiable base has not yet been separated.

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. It is best purified by long boiling; the crystals this affords, being again purified by a second filtration and crystallization. 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 it is dissolved in six times its weight of boiling water. Exposed to a moderate heat, it melts with its water of crystallization, and is reduced into 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 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 parallelipipeds.

BORATE of AMMONIAC forms in small rhomboidal crystals, easily decomposed by fire.

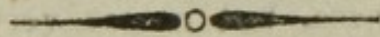
BORATE of MAGNESIA is of very difficult solution in water. It yields crystalline grains by evaporation, and is decomposed by lime.

BORATE of ALUMINE is not very soluble, and melts in the fire into a glass. Lime, magnesia, and the alkalies 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 STRONTIAN, 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.



OF FLUORIC ACID.

FLUORIC ACID 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 gas, termed fluoric acid gas, is detached, which forms the fluoric acid, on coming in contact with water; 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 volatilizing it with itself, deposits it as a siliceous crust on the surface of the water in the receiver. In smell and taste it resembles the muriatic acid.

It does not act on gold, or silver, but combines in preference with their oxides. From its power of dissolving siliceous earth, it is employed for the purpose of etching on glass.

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.

Its radical is not yet known, but it appears not to be saturated with oxygen, *Gren*, therefore, thinks we have not had it in its *perfect* or *oxygenated* state, and that it therefore deserves farther investigation.

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 AMMONIAC 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.

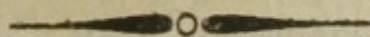
FLUATE of LIME, or *Fluor Spar*, is of a compact sparry texture, of various colours, hard and brittle. Sp. gr. 3,09 to 3,19, nearly insoluble in water, and becomes phosphorescent in a moderate heat. It promotes the fusion of clay, and other earthy substances, but is not very fusible itself. Its general 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, siliceous 31, alumine 15,5, iron 1, muriatic acid 1, phosphoric acid 1.

FLUATE of ARGILL has been found in Greenland. But 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 analysis of 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.



METALLIC SUBSTANCES.

THESE are distinguished by their absolute *opacity*, great degree of *gravity*, and peculiar *brilliancy*; to which may be added their *ductility*, which property, however, is not perhaps possessed by all metals.

They are concealed in the earth, and from *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 appear to be simple substances. They 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 eozally principle, to disengage the oxygen, with which the metal has been impregnated, during the previous calcination, or torrefaction.

They are found. 1. In the form of a native metal. 2. In the form of calx or 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 un-metallic 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 super-added, the carbonic acid. Next to these, sulphur, and arsenic, in its oxidated state, occur; these last generally communicate a metallic lustre. The sulphuric, muriatic, phosphoric, arsenical, 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*, or *calx*; 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*.

That metals are calcined, or rather oxidated, in consequence of their absorbing oxygen, is proved, by this process taking place only when oxygen is present; and by their giving it out, in exactly the same quantity and proportion, on their reduction, or return to the metallic state. They undergo this process of calcination, or oxidation, also from the action of humidity: the water is decomposed; its hydrogen being dissipated, whilst its oxygen combines with the metal. The baser metals have their surfaces tarnished by exposure to the air, being acted on by the carbonic acid and oxygen, the *tarnish* or *rust* being a carbonated oxide of the metal. They are all soluble in acids, and precipitable therefrom by alkalies; or, platina excepted, by Prussian alkali. 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.

Metals may be dissolved by means of alkaline sulphurets, and the metal and the sulphur may be precipitated together. This precipitate is a combination of the metal with the basis of sulphurated hydrogen gas, and is called a METALLIC HYDRO-SULPHURET. They may also be made to enter into combination with ammoniac, when substances are formed which are termed AMMONIURETS.

If calcined, and not too volatile, they communicate a tinge to borax and microscomic salt, after fusion, or render

them opaque. 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.

They however unite with sulphur, phosphorus, charcoal, ammoniac, hydrogen, and alkaline sulphurets. Thus we have *metallic* SULPHURETS, PHOSPHURETS, CARBURETS, AMMONIURETS, HYDRURETS, and HYDRO-SULPHURETS.

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. Uranite. 16. Sylvanite. 17. Titanite. 18. Chrome. 19. Arsenic. 20. Molybdenite. 21. Tungstenite.

The three first, undergoing no oxidation in our furnaces, are called *perfect* or *noble* metals, and the others *imperfect*, or *base*. The oxides of the former may, however, be obtained by other means; and differ from those of the baser metals in this, that they, as well as that of quicksilver, are reduced to a metallic state, by mere heat; whereas those of the baser metals require the addition of a combustible matter. Those which are not at all, or slightly malleable, have been termed *semi-metals*. The four last are capable of such complete oxidation as to be converted into real acids, and are therefore called *acidifiable metals*.

PYRITES, or *Marcasites*, are METALLIC SULPHURETS, which are formed by the union of metals with *sulphur*. The most common of these are the SULPHURETS OF IRON.

PLATINA comes to us in a granular state from Peru. It has no known ore, but is found in a metallic state, only among alluvial gold ores.

Its colour is between the tin and silver white. Sp. gr. 20,6 to 23: being the most ponderous of all known bodies. It is considerably malleable, and ductile; but harder than gold. It is not affected by the action of the air, nor by the heat of an ordinary furnace; but yields to the heat produced by powerful burning glasses, and to that excited by ignited oxygen gas.

It is often mixed with quicksilver, and gold, and is intimately combined with iron, and therefore magnetic. The

mercury may be driven from it by heat, and the iron may be separated from it by dissolving it in eight times its weight of nitro-muriatic acid, and either precipitating the iron, by Prussian alkali, or the Platina itself by muriate of ammoniac. This precipitation of platina, by the muriate of ammoniac, affords a simple method of ascertaining the mixture of this metal, with gold, since the muriate of ammoniac has no visible effect on the solution of gold.

It is soluble in the *nitro-muriatic*, and the *oxy-muriatic acid*; the saturated solution being of a dark-red colour. It is precipitable from this solution, by pot-ash, and muriate of ammoniac; less freely by soda, not visibly by the Prussian alkali, and not at all, by a dilute solution of sulphate of iron: these properties distinguish it from gold. Berthollet found it in a great measure acidified, when in solution, which accounts for some of its singular properties. The solution deposits small irregular fawn-coloured crystals, the MURIATE OF PLATINA; and if concentrated, it yields larger crystals, sometimes of an octahedral form.—*Bergman*.

It amalgamates, though with difficulty and very sparingly, with *quicksilver*, and is capable of being alloyed with most of the known metals.

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*, is very fusible, and unless the tin is in large proportion, the alloy is 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.—*Baumé*.

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 is prodigiously altered, and the alloy possesses considerable ductility.

Platina free from iron, being fused with *phosphorus*, by long continued heat, is obtained in a concrete porous form, and may be formed into a solid mass, under the hammer, being a PHOSPHURET OF PLATINA.

GOLD.—Its colour is orange red, or reddish yellow. Sp. gr. 19,3. melts at 32°. Wedgwood. It may be volatilized and calcined, in high and long continued heats. It is the most perfect, ductile, tenacious, and unchangeable of all the known metals. Not being combinable with oxygen, sulphur, &c. in low heats, it can never be found, strictly speaking, mineralized.

It is found in compact masses, or interspersed in various modes. Its form of crystallization is generally the aluminiform octahedron, with its modifications.

It is more extensively diffused, though in exceeding small quantities, than any other metal, except iron. It has been obtained from *vegetables*, by Becher.—From *rotted manure*, *garden-mould*, and *uncultivated earth*, by Monsieur Sage.—From *ashes*, by Berthollet.—Gold may therefore be said to exist in *vegetables*.

It is not attacked by the *sulphuric acid*, and is very slightly acted on by the *nitric acid*; but is attacked with most energy by the *nitro-muriatic acid*, or *aqua regia*, as it is called, and the *oxy-muriatic acid*, which are the true solvents of 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 a red liquor, 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*.

When precipitated by *ammoniac* from the yellow solution, it is called FULMINATING GOLD, it detonating when gently heated. Fulminating gold has been proved to be a mixture of ammoniac, and oxide of gold; the oxygen of the latter, and the hydrogen of the alkali, taking fire by simple heat, detonate; and the gold is restored to its metallic state.

It does not unite with nitrogen, hydrogen, carbon, nor sulphur; nor does it act on water or the metallic oxides.—Fourcroy, 1800.

It is precipitated from its solution by several 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 *æther*, the gold immediately forming a stratum at the surface of the now colourless liquor.

Gold is also dissolved completely by the sulphurets of alkalies, 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, pulverised, and dissolved in hot water, being an HYDRO-SULPHURET of GOLD. Stahl affirms, that by this process Moses dissolved the golden calf. It may be obtained pure, by precipitation, with a dilute solution of sulphate of iron, from a solution of gold, in nitro-muriatic acid.

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.

Mr. Alchorne expresses an opinion, that the addition of a very small quantity of tin to fine gold, is not so injurious as workmen have imagined.—*Phil. Transf.*

But after repeating Mr. Alchorne's experiments, M. Tillet is convinced, that the alloy of a very small quantity of tin with gold is injurious, the mixture possessing both hardness and rigidity.—*Mem. de l'Academie*, 1790.

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 $56\frac{3}{4}$ square inches.

Gold is employed for the purpose of GILDING the surfaces of copper, brass, and silver, in the following different processes. 1st. *Hot gilding*, for the *Or Moulu*; 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 *gilders 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. 2nd. *Grecian gilding of silver* is performed by a solution of gold in nitric acid, to which sal-alembroth (a triple salt formed by sal ammoniac 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* is performed by rubbing the me-

tal 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.—*Gren.*

SILVER is of a pure white. Sp. gr. before malleation, 10,474: after, 10,510. It is malleable, ductile, and laminable, in a high degree, though inferior to gold; and is not changed by the contact of air. 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.* If by means of solution of *borax*, a small bit of leaf silver, be stuck to the top of a small glass cylinder, and melted into it, it will give it a golden tinge.—*Bergman.*

By long exposure to violent heat, it has been converted into a glass of an olive green colour. In the focus of a burning glass, it yields a white pulverulent matter; but there appears to exist but little affinity between it and oxygen.

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.

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

With *sulphuric acid*, if concentrated, sulphureous gas is disengaged, and the silver is converted into a true **OXIDE** of **SILVER**, mixed with a small quantity of **SULPHATE** of

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

SILVER, in small needles, or in plates formed of these needles, united length-ways.

It is dissolved in *nitric acid* with rapidity, if water be added to the acid, and much nitrous gas is disengaged. The solution is at first, blue; 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*.

By fixed alkalies it is precipitated from its solution, white; by ammoniac, grey; and by lime-water, olive-green.

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. It is likewise precipitated by *mercury*, with which it will also amalgamate. These crystals, being articulated into each other, give them the form of a vegetation, known by the name of the **TREE of DIANA**, *Arbor Dianae*, &c.

Nitrated silver, being precipitated from its solution, separated from the fluid, exposed three days to the air and light, and mixed with liquid ammoniac; becomes, when dry, **FULMINATING SILVER**. This exceeds in power, gun powder, and even fulminating gold. Once obtained, it 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 ammoniac, by which water, in the state of vapour is produced. This water, instantly vaporised, and possessing all the elasticity, and expansive force of that state, is the principal cause of the phenomenon; in which the nitrogen of the ammoniac, with its whole expansibility, bears a part.

It is readily combined with *the muriatic acid*, by adding this acid to a solution of silver in the nitric acid, the **MURIATE of SILVER** being precipitated; 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 sulphate of pot-ash, and the remaining alkali. It may likewise be decomposed by several other metals.

Professor Hildebrant says, I have frequently re-dissolved, in pure nitrous acid, the silver which I obtained from horn silver, and always found a small quantity of black-powder remaining at the bottom, which seemed to have the properties of gold. To appearance, part of the silver is converted to gold; but the Professor, accounts for it, from the silver, though called pure, containing the gold thus found.

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.

CARBONATE of SILVER may be obtained, by precipitating it by the carbonate of alkali.

Sulphur unites with it; this SULPHURET of SILVER is known as *vitreous silver ore*.

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

PHOSPHURET of SILVER may also be obtained by the fusion of silver and *phosphorus*.

Mr. Keir discovered that a *mixture of the vitriolic and nitrous acids*, in a concentrated state, has a peculiar faculty of dissolving silver copiously: and at the same time, oxidating tin, mercury, and nickel; dissolving, however, a small quantity of the latter, and having little or no action on other metals. By dilution, the mixture becomes less capable of dissolving silver, and more capable of acting on other metals.—*Phil. Transf.* 1790.

QUICKSILVER is of the colour and lustre of polished silver. Sp. gr. 13,568. It is as indestructible by fire as gold and silver, and has therefore been arranged among the perfect metals. It is volatile in heat, and boils in the same manner, as other liquids when heated.

It remains liquid between 600° above, and 72° below the freezing point. When congealed by cold, it acquires malleability. Mr. Walker says, that quicksilver may be frozen by a mixture of snow and nitrous acid, each being at + 70°. By ground ice, and nitrous acid, at + 10°. To make it perfectly solid and hard, a mixture of diluted sulphuric acid and nitrous acid should be used with the powdered ice, but then the materials should not be less than — 10° before mixing.—*Phil. Transf.* 1795.

Mr. Pepys congealed fifty-six pounds of mercury into a solid mass, by mixtures of muriate of lime, and uncompressed snow, in equal weights. The 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.

It is but little affected by the air, except by long agitation in it, when it forms a BLACK, but *imperfect*, OXIDE, 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 *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, and the mercury resuming its metallic form. Exposed to heat, in close vessels, the oxide sublimes in beautiful red crystals.

Mercury does not appear to be at all changed, or deprived of any part of its weight, by the action of *water*. The *sulphuric acid* acts on mercury, only if assisted by heat, first rendering it an oxide, and then dissolving the oxide. Cold water being added, a *white oxide* falls, and hot water being poured on it, it becomes a YELLOW, *imperfect*, OXIDE, called *Turbith mineral*; the water holding in solution a SULPHATE of MERCURY, crystallizable in small, soft, and deliquescent needles. The sulphates may 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 oxidating the metal, whilst the other dissolves it, as it is oxidated. With cold dilute acid, the oxidation is but imperfect, but with heat and concentrated acid, it is complete.

The nitric acid becomes loaded with an excess of mercurial oxide, which it lets fall on dilution with water, and yields crystals, in the form of flat and acute needles, striated lengthways. 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 this same solution be evaporated, long and acute blades are obtained, striated obliquely across.

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 oxygen or nitrogen gases, the remaining oxide becoming

yellow, and at length a lively red, being the *red precipitate*, and if fresh nitric acid be distilled from it three or four times, the precipitate is in small crystals of a very superb red colour. The solution of mercurial nitrate forms *mercurial water*. It is of use to ascertain the presence of sulphuric and muriatic salts in mineral waters.

100 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 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 36° 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.—*Howard. Phil. Transf. for 1800.*

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

The *muriatic acid* does not sensibly act on mercury, except by long digestion, when it oxidates 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, the OXY-MURIATE of MERCURY, or *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 oxygenated 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 oxygenated muriate, are completely blended by trituration, and this mixture exposed to sublimation, the reguline mercury becomes oxidated at the expence of the oxygen of the oxide, and yields the *mercurius dulcis*, which is insipid, insoluble in water, and 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.

Borax 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 this *phosphoric*, *fluoric*, and *carbonic* acids are made to unite with mercury.

Corrosive sublimate is 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 tin.

Mercury long triturated and digested with moistened *muriate of ammoniac*, forms an AMMONIACO-MERCURIAL MURIATE.

The *acetic acid* dissolves the oxides of mercury, and affords white foliated crystals, the ACETATE OF MERCURY. Mercury precipitated from the solution of the *acetate of mercury*, combines with the acidulous tartrate of pot-ash, and forms the *vegeto-mercurial water* of *Pressavin*. The acetate of mercury is the basis of *Keyser's Pills*.

Mercury mixed with *sulphur*, forms the RED SULPHURET, or the BLACK SULPHURATED OXIDE, called also *cinnabar* and the *æthiops*.

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 *black sulphurated oxide of mercury*, or mineral æthiops, is formed.

By subliming these æthiops, the *red sulphuret of mercury* is obtained, called cinnabar.

The Count Apollon de Mouffin Pouffchin 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*.

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 muddy red, with a shade of yellow, malleable, flexible, and ductile, though inferior in these respects to silver. Sp. gr. 7,780 to 8,584. A wire 1-10th of an inch, will support $299\frac{1}{2}$ pounds. It melts at 27° Wedgwood. Exposed to the fire, it becomes blue, yellow, and at last, violet. When in contact with the coals, it gives a greenish blue tinge to the flame, and if kept long in fusion, part is volatilized. Heated in contact with air, it burns at its surface, and becomes changed into an *imperfect blackish red OXIDE*, which by a more violent heat, is converted into a *brown glass*, or *more perfect OXIDE*. If melted and cooled slowly, it forms, according to *Mongez*, in quadrilateral pyramids. It has no action on *water*, yields oxygen to many of the metals; but takes it from *mercury* and *silver*. —*Fourcroy*, 1800.

It combines readily with sulphur, forming a very fusible mass, termed **SULPHURET of COPPER**. It also unites readily with *phosphorus*, forming a grey, brilliant **PHOSPHURET of COPPER**.

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

It is attacked by diluted *nitric acid* with effervescence, abundance of nitrous gas being emitted. A blue solution is thus obtained, yielding crystals of **NITRATE** of **COPPER**, in long parallelograms, or rhomboidal crystals.

It is not dissolved by the *muriatic acid*, unless boiling and concentrated. The solution is green, and affords cubic crystals, the **MURIATE** of **COPPER**, of a grass green. Ammoniac does not dissolve the oxide of this muriate with the same facility as that of other cupreous salts.

When acted on by the *acetous acid*, it is corroded, and yields the substance known by the name of *verdegris*. Being combined with oxygen, it becomes more readily soluble in vinegar. The oxide of copper dissolved in vinegar, forms the **ACETITE** of **COPPER**, *distilled verdegris*, 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 oxygenation.—*Morveau*.

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. It is also readily acted on by rancid fats or oils.

It is precipitated from its solutions, in its metallic form, by a clean 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.

Copper filings being added to a caustic spirit of ammoniac, 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.—*Gren.*

It 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, somewhat bluish grey. 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. It is the most generally diffused metal in nature: almost every mineral substance deriving a colour from it, from the blue to the deepest red. Animal substances contain it, and it exists in the vegetable kingdom; even in vegetables supported merely by air and water. It requires for its fusion a heat equal to 130° Wedgwood.

It is obedient to the magnet, is the only metal capable of combustion, on collision with quartz, and the only metal constantly found existing in the fluids of organized bodies. It is difficult of fusion, but may be hammered with heat into any form. When slowly cooled, it crystallizes into octahedra almost always implanted one in the other. It is oxidated by mere exposure to the air; absorbing also the carbonic acid of the atmosphere, and forming a CARBONATED OXIDE of IRON. On being heated in a furnace for some time, the surface is oxidated, and separates in the form of black scales.

This oxide is still attracted by the magnet, and contains from 0,20 to 0,27 oxygen.—*Fourcroy*, 1800.

This oxide of iron, when most degraded, and of a reddish brown colour, is the BROWN OXIDE of IRON, formerly called the *astringent saffron of Mars*. It contains 0,40 to 0,49 oxygen.—*Fourcroy, 1800.*

The colour varies with the degree of oxidation, becoming yellow and even red; and is reduced to a black powder, by heating it with coally matters.

Iron in filings, being constantly agitated in water, a black powder is deposited, being a *perfect* BLACK OXIDE of IRON, also called the *martial æthiops of Lemery*. The oxidation is effected by the air contained in the water; but more especially by the decomposition of the water itself, hydrogen gas being developed during the process. With heat this process is rapidly performed, and much hydrogen gas is separated. After oxidation it is less attractable by the magnet and less soluble in nitric acid: possessing these properties, inversely, as to the quantity of oxygen it contains. It is oxidized in a slight proportion, by being digested in a solution of the *fixed, or volatile alkalis*, 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.

An iron wire, heated red-hot, being plunged in pure oxygen gas, burns and deflagrates with wonderful brilliancy.

Iron, when fused, may be cast into suitable moulds, in which state it is called *cast iron*. If instead of this it be stirred when in fusion, and then carried to the forge hammer, and hammered into bars, it assumes a fibrous texture, and becomes more ductile: in this state it is called *bar, or forged iron*. If placed in contact with coally substances, and softened to such a degree that these may penetrate into its texture, a substance is formed possessing a greater degree of hardness and elasticity than either of the former, and it is then termed *steel*.

These three states appear to be modifications of the same substances.

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.

I. 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. Its varieties are:

1. Oxygenated crude iron, which contains a small proportion of carbon, and a super-abundance of oxygen, is called *white-iron, forge-pigs, ballast-iron, &c.*

2. Carbo oxygenated crude iron, contains equal quantities of carbon and oxygen; known by the name of *grey-iron.*

3. Carbonated crude iron,—carbon fully predominating with an extra privation of oxygen.

4. Super-carbonated crude-iron,—approaching to and even becoming a true plumbago.—*Philos. Mag.*

FORGED IRON, or BAR IRON, 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, which is malleable when cold, but brittle when ignited, is supposed to derive these properties from arsenic, or from concrete carbon, not extirpated during the operation for rendering it malleable.—*Vander Monde, Monge, and Berthollet.*

Cold short iron which is brittle when cold, but not when ignited, being dissolved in the sulphuric acid, 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, or combination of *phosphorus* with iron.

Every solution of iron is precipitated in the form of *siderite*, by the phosphoric acid.

STEEL is a kind of iron containing *carbon* only, it may be impregnated with this. 1. During the fusion, which happens when the iron is contained in the ore in nearly a disengaged state, and a large proportion of coal is employed; the iron being scarcely at all calcined, becomes charged with carbon only, the result being steel. 2. Afterwards, by the cementation of iron in a ductile state, and free from all foreign matters, with coally substances, the iron in both these cases passing into the state of steel, or CARBURET of IRON.

The nature of the combination producing steel, will plainly appear from steel kept plunged for a considerable time in crude iron, abounding with oxygen, being converted into soft iron. Soft iron on the other hand, kept for a time in crude iron, in which carbon predominates, is converted into steel.

Steel is ductile, whether cold or ignited; but being *tempered*, by plunging 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.

Iron may contain a much greater quantity of carbon than is necessary as a constituent part of steel; in this state it is hard and unmalleable, and may be called **HYPER-CARBURET of IRON.**—*Dr. Pearson, Phil. Transf.*

Clouet has observed that 1-32 of charcoal is sufficient to convert iron into steel; and that 1-6th affords a steel more fusible, but still malleable. After this it comes nearer to the state of cast iron, and by augmenting the dose of charcoal, the fusibility is increased, and at last it acquires the state of *grey cast iron*.

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.

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 the 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.*

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. Transf.*

Mr. Musket, on the suggestion of the Editor, observes that carbon exists in steel, in a concrete state, though not crude—in chemical union, however, and not in mere mixture, as in crude iron.—*Philos. Mag.*

The tempering of iron, effected by suddenly cooling it after heating, seems to produce its hardness, brilliancy and brittleness, by the integrant parts, separated by the heat, being kept and left at a certain distance from each other; the sudden cold checking their approximation by the affinity of aggregation.

Steel is capable also of fusion, when it is termed *cast steel*.

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. Transf.* 1795.

Dr. Beddoes observes, that in the conversion of cast into malleable iron, in the reverberatory furnace, the oxygen of the imperfectly reduced metal, combines with the charcoal to form fixed air; at the same time another portion of charcoal is thrown into an elastic state, that is, into inflammable air, and burns on the surface with a very deep blue flame, on account of the admixture of fixed air. By subsequent experiments, the Doctor ascertained beyond doubt, the real extrication of air, varying in its nature at various periods of the process.—*Philos. Transf.* 1791.

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.

A drop of nitrous acid placed on polished iron and washed off, leaves a white spot. On polished steel it forms a black spot, by the coally part which is deposited during the solution of the iron.

ANTHRACOLITE, or incombustible pit-coal, may be considered as a fossil carburet, it has a metallic lustre, marks a little, is soft and brittle. Sp. gr. 1,468. It contains 0,90 carbon, 0,04 alumine, 0,03 silice, 0,03 iron.

PLUMBAGO, also called *Graphite*, and *Black-lead*, 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,

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 sulphureous 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 *oxygenated muriatic acid* dissolves it; the result being a true combustion 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 destroyed; the residue being a strongly carbonated 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*.

Carbon 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*.

The same gentleman 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; it thereby appearing to be an oxide of carbon in the first degree.

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 enclosed 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. Musket, 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.—*Philos. Mag.*

Sir George Mackenzie suspects, either that the carbon was derived in *Mr. Musket's* experiment from the sand, or other materials he employed; or else that what he obtained was only a combination of iron with earth, somewhat resembling steel, *Sir George* repeating *Guyton's* experiment with compleat success.—*Nicholson's Journal*, June, 1800.

Iron combines easily with sulphur by fusion, forming a *true martial pyrites*, or sulphuret of iron.

By the combination of the SULPHUR with iron, in the bowels of the earth, are formed the *sulphureous iron ores*, the *martial pyrites*, or SULPHURETS of IRON. These sulphurets are very abundant, and are evidently formed by the decomposition of vegetables.—*Chaptal*.

The sulphurets of iron crystallize sometimes in cubes, and often in octahedra. The union of a number of octahedral pyramids, forms the GLOBULAR PYRITES.

From the decomposition of pyrites, the *sulphuric acid* is disengaged, which holding the iron in solution, forms the SULPHATE of IRON, called also *copperas*, *sal martis*, *vitriol of iron*, and *salt of steel*. This salt is also obtained by pouring *diluted sulphuric acid* on iron filings, an effervescence arising, from the escape of the hydrogen gas of the water, its oxygen helping to oxydate the metal, which the acid dis-

solves. It crystallizes in rhomboids of a beautiful green colour, of which it is deprived by exposure to the air, from its efflorescing, and losing its water of crystallization; exposed to heat, it liquefies, becomes thick, and is reduced to a powder. This powder mixed with pulverised nutgalls, forms *ink-powder*, only requiring the addition of water to render it fit for use. The same powder urged by stronger heat, loses all its sulphuric acid, a *martial oxide*, named *colcothar*, remaining.

The *concentrated acid* is decomposed by boiling in this metal. The mixture being distilled to dryness, sublimed sulphur, and a white incrySTALLIZABLE mass, but soluble in water, will be found in the retort.

Proust has discovered that the common sulphates of iron contain a *green* and *red* sulphate.

The green is insoluble in spirits of wine, affords a white precipitate with alkaline prussiates, is not altered by the gallic acid, and its oxide contains 0,27 of oxygen. It has a strong affinity for oxygen, becoming red by attracting it.

The red is soluble in alcohol and uncrystallizable, gives a fine blue precipitate with alkaline prussiates, and with the gallic acid a strong black one; its oxide contains 0,48 of oxygen. It has no affinity for oxygen, being already a *sur-oxygenated* SULPHATE OF IRON.

The green may be changed to red by oxy-muriatic or nitric acid, and the common sulphate to green by sulphurated hydrogen.

The muriatic and other acids may by combining with either of these oxides that form distinct salts.—*Annales de Chimie*, 1800.

It may be also precipitated by the *carbonate of pot-ash*, and re-dissolved by the superabundant alkali, forming the *martial alkaline tincture of Stahl*. Or if it be precipitated by caustic alkali, the æthiops is formed at once.—*Maret*.

Iron is rather oxidated than properly dissolved by the *nitric acid*, which at the same time is rapidly decomposed. 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 nitrous 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 ammoniac, the vessel also now holding oxygenated nitrous gas. The water

and nitrous acid being deprived of their oxygen by the iron, their hydrogen and nitrogen combine whilst in a state of condensation and compose the ammoniac in this form.—*Fabroni, Ann. de Chi.* 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; there remaining at the bottom of the retort, a deliquescent salt of a brilliant colour, and foliated appearance, like fine large talc. 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.

Iron is precipitated from its solutions, by the *acid of galls*, this forming the BASIS of INK.

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 tartrate of pot ash*, forming the SOLUBLE MARTIAL TARTAR, or *aperitive extract of mars*. In the *oxalic acid*, it yields prismatic, astringent, effervescent crystals of a greenish yellow colour, soluble in water.

Phosphoric acid unites with it, by adding the soluble phosphates to a solution of sulphate of iron. Thus is formed an almost insoluble PHOSPHATE of IRON, becoming *phosphate of iron*, by fusion with powdered charcoal —*Fourcroy, 1800.*

Carbonic acid forms with it, as in the chalybeate waters, the CARBONATE of IRON.

Of the FLUATE of IRON, and BORATE of IRON, but little is known.

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 Chi.* 100.

With the *Prussic acid*, it forms PRUSSIATE of IRON, or *Prussian blue*. If the oxide of iron predominates in this combination of iron and the prussic acid, the precipitate is

yellowish; but if its proportion be less, the product is Prussian blue. The prussiate of iron is decomposed by the oxide of mercury. Prussiate of iron 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 ammoniac, very well, yielding an aeriform fluid, half alkaline, and half hydrogenous. Iron, in filings, sublimed with muriate of ammoniac, in the proportion of an ounce to a pound, forms the MARTIAL FLOWERS, or *ens martis*, being a MURIATE of AMMONIAC COLOURED BY IRON.

The filings mixed with sulphur, and moistened with water, forms a mass which swells, and becomes heated in a few hours. The water is decomposed, the iron is rusted, and the sulphur is converted into acid; the hydrogen gas exhales, and the heat is sometimes sufficient to set the mixture on fire. By this process is produced the *volcano of Lemery*, the mass being placed under ground.

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 oxygenated.

It may be alloyed with several metallic substances, but the only union which is used in the arts, is that which it contracts with tin, by which *tin plates* are formed.

LEAD is of a bluish white. Sp. gr. 11,352. 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 oxidated or rather carbonated, and it may be classed among the most fusible of metals. It affects the organs both of smell and taste. It melts before it becomes red-hot, at 540° Fahrenheit. In a cupelling heat it evaporates and loses from 6 to 8 per cent. of its weight. *Abbe Mongez* obtained it in quadrangular crystals, recumbent on one side.

Kept for some time in fusion, it becomes covered with a GREY imperfect OXIDE, which again exposed to a more violent heat, assumes a deep yellow, and is called *massicot*. This cooled by the affusion of water, ground and washed from the particles of lead, and again exposed to a moderate heat, becomes a more *perfect* and RED OXIDE of LEAD, called *minium*, containing 0,10 of oxygen. If the fused lead is exposed to violent heat, and the wind of bellows directed on its surface, a scaly yellow oxide is formed, called *litharge*.

These oxides being fused with coally matter, the metal is revived; if distilled by a strong heat, oxygen gas is separated; and if urged by a very strong heat, they are converted into a YELLOW GLASS, or VITREOUS OXIDE; so fusible that it penetrates the best crucibles.

Sulphuric acid being boiled on lead, much sulphureous 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.

Concentrated *nitric acid* also converts it 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.

The *muriatic acid* assisted by heat, oxidates 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*.

The *oxy-muriatic acid* forms a *brown perfect*, or *super-oxygenated*, OXIDE of the white or red oxides.

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 ammoniac*: and, by thus decomposing *sea salt*, the separation of soda is obtained.

The *acetous acid* corrodes lead, and affords a WHITE OXIDE, known by the name of *white lead*.

All the oxides of lead are soluble in vinegar, forming the ACETITE of LEAD, which crystallizes in efflorescent tetrahedral prisms, formerly called *salt of saturn*, or *sugar of lead*.

The oxides of lead attract the *carbonic acid* of the atmosphere with great eagerness.

Caustic 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*.

Sulphur combines readily with lead, forming a brilliant semi-crystallized mass, termed SULPHURET of LEAD, which assumes the forms of the cube and octohedron, with their modifications, and is the artificial *galena*.

It has no known union with *carbon* or *hydrogen*. It unites with *phosphorus*, forming a white, brilliant PHOSPHURET of LEAD, difficult of fusion and soon tarnishing.

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 *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 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 alkalies, lime-water, sulphuric and muriatic acids, decompose the acetate of lead, throwing down the oxide in a white powder, 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. Hanbemann. 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.

From this property of precipitating the lead of a dark colour, the alkaline sulphurets, and even the sulphurated 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 the lightest of all metals; is exceedingly ductile, but inconsiderably tenacious. It is very flexible, and crackles when bended. It fuses at 410° : 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*. Kept in fusion eight or ten hours in a lined crucible, and in contact with charcoal, it becomes more white, hard, and sonorous. It takes fire with a violent heat, a white oxide subliming, and part of the tin being converted into a glass of an hyacinthine colour.—*Geoffroy*.

After repeated fusions, an assemblage of prisms are obtained, united together sideways.—*De la Chenaye*.

All the acids attack reguline tin, requiring for their saturation more of the imperfect than of the perfect oxide.

The *sulphuric acid* oxidates it without dissolving it, but the *sulphureous acid* forms with it a SULPHITE, or SULPHURATED SULPHITE of TIN.—*Fourcroy*, 1800.

Water is sufficient to precipitate this oxidated metal. *Mr. Monnet* has obtained crystals, the SULPHITE of TIN, which resemble fine needles, interlacing each other.

In pure *nitric acid* it is directly precipitated in a white oxide. The acid must therefore be considerably diluted and no heat employed; thus the NITRATE of TIN may be obtained.

This nitrate burns with a white and thick flame like that of phosphorus; and detonates when well heated into a crucible. On distillation it boils up, and fills the receiver with a white vapour, smelling like nitric acid.

By adding a solution of gold to the solution of tin in the nitric acid, a beautiful purple precipitate falls.

Tin is dissolved by the *muriatic acid*, cold or heated, a fetid gas being disengaged. 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 oxy-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 OXYGENATED MURIATE of TIN.

It is dissolved by the *oxy-muriatic acid* with vehemence, and when the acid is highly concentrated, a magma is obtained, resembling pitch, which hardens in time.

It is dissolved in the common *aqua fortis*, prepared with salt-petre of the first boiling, for the composition for scarlet dye, from *cochinelle*. 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.

Tin and its oxides are dissolved, but the latter more freely, by the caustic alkalies. It is likewise slightly soluble in the *vegetable acids*; but the *carbonic acid* does not appear to act on it at all.

It has no known union with *nitrogen*, *hydrogen*, or *carbon*. *Charcoal* renders it refractory, and with *phosphorus* it forms a brittle PHOSPHURET.—*Fourcroy*, 1800.

Combined with *sulphur*, it forms SULPHURET of TIN, of a bluish grey colour, of a metallic splendour, and aci-

eular texture. But if the combination is with the perfect oxide, as in the following process, then is formed *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 matrafs with six ounces of sulphur and four of muriate of ammoniac; the bottom of the matrafs being ignited, the sulphuret sublimes; and if the heat is 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 oxidated by the muriatic acid of the muriate of ammoniac; and the hydrogen, disengaged from the water of crystallization of this salt, combining with sulphur and caloric, forms a sulphurated 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 ammoniac, 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 ammoniac, the sulphuret of tin will be formed at the bottom of the retort, and of a most brilliant appearance.—*Brugnattelli*.

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 amalgam 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 ounces 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*.

Two parts of tin with one of bismuth afford, according to *Wallerius*, the compound called **TUTENAG**, an appellation which is given in the East Indies to zinc.—*Gren*.

One part of tin and one of zinc being melted together, and mixed with two 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 employed in the formation of **MIRRORS**. 1 part of tin, 1 of lead, 1 of bismuth, 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 **Printer's 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 tale, and 25 or 30 of muriate of soda, form 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: Three parts of sand, one of chalk, and three of borax; or three of glass, one of borax, a fourth 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.

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 oxidation, and the tin is rubbed over its surface.

If care be taken to prevent oxidation, and a proper degree 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.—*Fourcroy*, 1800.

It melts as soon as ignited, when it inflames and sublimes in white flocks, which are called *philosophical wool*, *pompholix*, or *nihil album*, and is a true OXIDE of ZINC. When laminated into thin leaves, it takes fire by the flame of a taper, burning with a flame of a blue colour, mixed with green. M. de Laffone considers it as a kind of metallic phosphorus.

From its strong attraction for oxygen in a red heat, it decomposes water: much hydrogen gas being disengaged, but mixed with carbon; derived from the zinc.

Zinc is dissolved by all the acids.

Sulphuric acid, diluted, dissolves it in the cold, and produces much pure hydrogen gas; a black powder, which is plumbago, from the admixture of iron, is separated, and a salt is formed in compressed tetrahedral crystals, terminated by four sided pyramids. This is the SULPHATE of ZINC, *vitriol of zinc*, *white vitriol*, or *white copperas*. This salt is not much altered by exposure to air, when pure; but its acid escapes, at a degree of heat, less than is required by the sulphate of iron.

This sulphate uniting with the alkaline sulphates, forms triple salts, from which may be precipitated, a white oxide soluble in pot-ash and soda.—*Fourcroy*, 1800.

The *nitric acid* attacks zinc with vehemence, even when diluted with water; and, by slow evaporation, yields crystals in compressed and striated tetrahedral prisms, terminated by four sided pyramids, being the NITRATE of ZINC, which is deliquescent. It emits red vapours when heated; becoming soft, and preserving that softness for some time.

The *muriatic acid* attacks zinc, with effervescence: hydrogen gas is produced, and an *irreducible oxide of zinc* is deposited in black flocks. The solution thickens by evaporation, without crystallizing, a concentrated acid escapes, and the MURIATE of ZINC will itself sublime by distillation.

Of all known bodies, *Girtanner* says, zinc unites most readily to oxygen. It takes it from almost every other body, which renders it useful in detecting the smallest quantities of oxygen. It was chiefly by means of zinc that I have been enabled to separate the oxygen of the muriatic acid from its base.—*Ann. de Ch. Cah.* 100.

The zinc of commerce, Proust remarks, contains also iron, lead, and copper, which precipitate in an oxidized state in a black powder, during the solution of zinc in the acids. In whatever acid it is dissolved, he observes, it constantly absorbs the same portion of oxygen. In the muriatic and sulphuric acid, where it is perfectly oxidized, the iron is at its *minimum* of oxidation, and therefore does not change by the addition of the gallic acid, which it will however do by exposure to the air, or by the addition of a few drops of oxy-muriatic or nitric acid. Thus also the carbonate becomes yellow on exposure to the air, the iron passing readily to its *maximum* of oxidation.

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 the zinc; leaving the fluid on the solution two or three days, that if any manganese have been precipitated, it may be re-dissolved by the acid, the zinc precipitating in its place. The sulphate of zinc thus purified will furnish the fine WHITE OXIDE of ZINC so desirable by painters.—*Ann. de Chim. Cah. 103.*

The *pure alkalies*, boiled on zinc, obtain a yellow colour, and dissolve part of the metal; and added to a solution of zinc in sulphuric acid they throw down a white oxide, with a considerable increase of weight beyond that of the metal.

It detonates strongly if mixed with *nitrate of pot-ash*, and thrown into an ignited crucible. The *muriate of ammoniac* is decomposed by it, simply by trituration.

Sulphur cannot be combined with zinc by fusion, but is said by *Dehne* and *Gayton* to combine with the oxide.

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*, *milor*, and *Pinchbeck's metal*.

Lead is precipitated from acids by zinc; thus is formed *Ilsemann's LEAD TREE*, a small roll of zinc being suspended in a solution of acetite of lead, in the proportion of two drams to six ounces of water.

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.—*Translator of Gren's Principles.*

ANTIMONY is a white, brilliant semi-metal. Sp. gr. 6,860. volatile and difficult of fusion; but when melted, it emits a white fume, called *argentine snow*, or *flowers of antimony*, being a **SUBLIMED OXIDE** of **ANTIMONY**, in brilliant prismatic acicules. The metal whilst cooling slowly, crystallizes in octahedra, and generally assumes a stellular form, on its surface. It is very slightly changed by exposure to air. When combined with *sulphur* in the earth, or artificially, it forms a **SULPHURET** of **ANTIMONY**; this, when native, is an *ore of antimony*, commonly called *crude antimony*, or improperly, antimony.

Crude antimony, reduced to powder and exposed in a shallow vessel to a slow heat, gradually loses its sulphur; and the oxygen of the atmosphere uniting with the antimony, converts it to a **GREY** or **imperfect OXIDE**. This being urged by a more violent heat, becomes a reddish, and partly a transparent *glass of antimony*, **VITREOUS OXIDE** of **ANTIMONY**, which when corrected by being blended with wax, forms the **CERATED GLASS** of **ANTIMONY**.

Tin, *copper*, *silver*, or *iron*, being fused with crude antimony, unites with the sulphur, and separates the antimony, which, according to the metal employed, was called *regulus of Mars*, *Venus*, &c. It is found at the bottom of the crucible, in a crystallized metalline form.

Antimony is separated from the sulphuret, or crude antimony, by detonating three parts of crude tartar, two of crude antimony, 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 *scoriæ*, which

contain the sulphurated alkali, combined with imperfect antimonial oxide, and which, on solution in water, lets fall a brown precipitate, an *hydrogenated sulphuret of antimony*, named the **SULPHURATED OXIDE of ANTIMONY**, and formerly *Kermes mineral*. But, if an acid be added, the precipitate is of a fainter, and at last, of an orange colour. This last precipitate is also called the sulphurated oxide of antimony, and was formerly termed the *golden sulphur of antimony*. It differs from the former precipitate, in containing a greater proportion of the hydrogenated sulphur.

Antimony is completely dissolved in the dry way by alkaline sulphuret; thus equal parts of fixed alkali being melted with crude antimony, a sulphuret is formed containing antimony, being the **SULPHURET of ANTIMONY**, commonly called *liver of antimony*.

If equal parts of nitre and crude antimony be detonated and fused, another *combination of alkaline sulphuret with antimony* is obtained, formerly called *saffron of antimony*. On being boiled with water, **HYDROGENATED SULPHURATED OXIDE** is precipitated.

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 Retrou*. 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*.

One part of pot-ash being melted with five of crude antimony, 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.*

All the acids, except the *carbonic*, dissolve the imperfect oxide of this metal. The sulphuric, nitric, oxy-muriatic, and nitro-muriatic acids alone attack reguline antimony.

The *sulphuric acid* by boiling on antimony, is partly decomposed. Sulphureous gas is first separated, and sulphur itself sublimes, towards the end; an *oxide* is formed, as well as a small quantity of **SULPHATE of ANTIMONY**, which is very deliquescent, and easily decomposed

It decomposes the *nitric acid* with great facility, part of the antimony is oxidated, forming the *bezoar mineral*, and a portion is dissolved, forming a NITRATE of ANTIMONY, decomposable by heat, and very deliquescent.

The *muriatic acid* acts on it only by a long digestion. The *nitro-muriatic acid* is its most convenient solvent. The solution has no colour. The *oxy-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 a butyraceous matter, the SUBLIMED MURIATE of ANTIMONY, or *butter of antimony*. The acid, as in the corrosive muriate of mercury, being in an oxygenated state. The sublimed muriate of antimony becomes fluid by a very gentle heat, and is thus easily poured from one vessel to another. It sometimes crystallizes in hexahedral prisms with dihedral summits, two sides of the prisms being inclined. Diluted with water, a white oxide, of antimony falls, which has been called *powder of Algaroth*, or *mercurius vitæ*.

Wine and the *acetous acid* dissolve it.

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 tartrate 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.

The *gastric fluid* dissolves this semi-metal, as is proved by the famous perpetual pills. *Simple water* has also some action upon it, since it becomes purgative by remaining in contact with it.

Lime, or *lime-water*, digested for some days, even without heat, on powdered antimony, yields a beautiful red sulphurated oxide. *Ammoniac* being distilled from crude antimony, a pulverulent sublimate of a purple colour is obtained, being a *sulphur of antimony*, with base of volatile alkali.

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 printer's types, either with or without *zinc* or *bismuth*.

Three parts of *white oxide of antimony*, 12 of *white oxide of lead*, 1 of *sulphate of alumine*, and 1 of *muriate of ammoniac*, 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 tartareous 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 the 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 re-dissolved and crystallized, as the silica will entirely separate towards the end of the evaporation.—*Ann. de Ch.* 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, and, next to tin, is the most fusible of all metallic bodies. It tarnishes, but does not rust in the air.

When exposed to a strong heat it burns with a blue flame, and sublimes in a yellowish smoke, which forms, when condensed, an OXIDE of BISMUTH, or the *flowers of bismuth*. These flowers may be vitrified into a brownish glass. By a less heat it is calcined into a powder, which is a less perfect oxide.

It readily combines with *sulphur* by fusion, and forms a bluish grey artificial ore, or SULPHURET of BISMUTH,

which crystallizes in beautiful parallelepipeds, united by their ends, at right angles.

Sulphuric acid being boiled on it, the bismuth is partly dissolved, forming the **SULPHATE** of **BISMUTH**, which is very deliquescent.

The *nitric acid* is speedily decomposed by bismuth; nitrous gas is separated, whilst the oxygen combines with the semi-metal, and a portion is dissolved which yields rhomboidal, tetrahedral prisms, terminating in tetrahedral pyramids with unequal faces, being the **NITRATE** of **BISMUTH**, which effloresces in the air.

The *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. 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*: 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 dissolved by *fat oils* into a tenacious mass resembling plasters. It also combines with *sulphur* by fusion. Its various solutions form pellucid sympathetic inks, which are curious from the facility with which they become black with alkaline sulphurets or sulphurated hydrogen gas.

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 white, inclining to a bluish grey; and if tarnished, to red, Sp. gr. 7,645. When very pure it is malleable, in some degree, in a red heat. Even when purest it is magnetic, and it is generally contaminated with arsenic. It is not volatile in close vessels, and when pure, is as difficultly fusible as iron, but is rendered more fusible,

and of a brown colour, by the addition of arsenic. After fusion its surface frequently assumes a reticular form. It calcines with more difficulty, as it is more pure; its oxide being of so deep a blue, as to appear black.

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*, *microcosmic salt*, in a strong heat it tinges them blue. In fusion, it will not mix with *bismuth*, *lead*, or *silver*; but with *bismuth* it unites by the mediation of *nickel*; but it does not amalgamate with quicksilver. With *arsenic* it burns with a bluish or white flame.

With concentrated *sulphuric acid*, it unites and yields reddish crystals, with quadrilateral columns, with dihedral summits, the SULPHATE of COBALT.

It unites with the *nitric acid* readily, and with effervescence; the solution is reddish, and yields hexahedral crystals, the NITRATE of COBALT: if *arsenic* predominates, the solution is first whitish, and then becomes red. Cobalt dissolved in nitro-muriatic 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.—*Transf. of Gren's Principles.*

The *muriatic acid* dissolves it with difficulty, requiring heat; the solution, which is of a peach red, holding in solution the MURIATE of COBALT.

If contaminated with much *nickel*, the above solutions are greenish. Its oxides yield to the *acetous acid* and to *ammoniac*; 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. 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 ammoniac 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.

By 1 part of oxide of cobalt, and 16 of distilled vinegar evaporated to an eighth, and $1\frac{1}{4}$ th of the cobalt of muriate of soda, is formed *Ilsemann's blue sympathetic ink*, somewhat similar to the former.

Its solutions are not precipitable by *zinc*.

It was employed to give a blue colour to glass, long before it was supposed to contain a semi-metal.

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 three-fourths of sand. This oxide fused with three parts of sand and one 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 liquid AMMONIURET of COBALT: by evaporation to one-fourth he procured two substances, the one of which precipitates of a yellow colour, the other remaining dissolved, and giving to the water a red colour. The yellow substance is a pure oxide of cobalt, and dissolved in ammonia forms a pure AMMONIURET of COBALT. The colour of this is yellow and sometimes rose-red: the acids do not decompose it, but the muriatic acid discolours it; and the prussiate of pot-ash renders it grey, and produces a precipitate of the same colour. The sulphur of pot-ash gives it a deep colour, approaching to black, and SULPHURET of COBALT is precipitated. Borate of soda is decomposed by it, and BORATE of COBALT precipitated. From the red solution, filtered from the yellow oxide, he obtained an acid which he calls the COBALTIC ACID. This acid he obtained in a concrete form, of a red or yellow colour, and sometimes colourless; without smell, and of a sharp, and not unpleasant taste. It reddens turnsole, is soluble in water, and decomposes sulphurets of alkali. It precipitates ammoniuret of copper of a light green, and that of zinc of a clear white, and the sulphuret of copper of the same colour as the ammoniuret; nitrate of silver it precipitates white, as well as the nitro-muriate of tin; the nitrate of mercury of a light straw colour; the acetite of lead, white; lime-water, a white coagulum; tincture of galls, yellow; and it precipitates the acetites and muriates of barytes, but does not affect the solutions of gold and platina. It is separable by alcohol from its solution in water. Used as a sympathetic ink it changes brown, not green or blue. With soda it forms a salt of irregular crystals; with pot-ash, square crystals; and with ammonia, a salt soluble in its acid; and with baryt, an opaque, difficultly crystallizable salt.—*Ann. de Chim.* XXXIII.

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 one part of smalt with six of soda.

NICKEL is a metallic substance of a greyish white, when pure ; but shaded with red or yellow, when impure. Sp. gr. 9.000. It is difficultly purified. When purest it is magnetic, and hence has been deemed to contain iron, even when it exhibits no other sign of its containing any, but Mr. Kirwan thinks without sufficient reason. It is malleable in a considerable degree, and calcines slowly in a strong heat : if pure, the oxide is brown, if impure, greenish ; rising in tuberous vegetations, proceeding from iron or arsenic. When pure, it requires as strong a heat as cast iron, the impure melts more easily. Fused with sulphur, it forms a hard low mineral ; and with the sulphuret of pot-ash, a compound resembling the yellow copper-ores. It does not amalgamate with mercury.

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 *muratic* 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 alkalies* precipitate the nickel in the foregoing solutions, greenish white. *Ammonia* also precipitates them, but in excess re-dissolves them, the solution being blue ; even metallic nickel yields to ammonia. It is not precipitable by zinc, though in some measure by iron, but does not amalgamate with iron.

MANGANESE is of a greyish white, but soon darkens by exposure to the air ; its surface becoming friable and

dark, as it becomes oxidated, the *perfect* OXIDE being black. It is in no degree malleable. Sp. gr. 7.000.—*Hiehm.*

By heat it is converted into a black oxide, and, if strongly urged, affords a glass of a yellowish brown. This metal is less fusible than crude iron, and unites by fusion, with all the metals, except mercury. The oxide of manganese affords a prodigious quantity of oxygen gas; and with charcoal, the carbonic acid.—Kept in fusion, with *phosphate of soda*, upon charcoal, a transparent glass is formed, which curiously changes from the colour of a ruby to a colourless state, and again becomes coloured, according to the quantity of phosphate, and to its exposure to the interior or exterior part of the flame.

From its affinity with oxygen it decomposes water.

The habitudes of manganese with respect to acids are remarkable. Its *imperfect* oxide is 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 oxidation, 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 oxygenated, but being volatile, the oxygen flies off, and the muriatic acid continues to dissolve the oxide thus rendered imperfect.

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 itself does not appear to

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. 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 *chamelion 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.

Its affinity with oxygen exceeds perhaps that of any other metal.

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 oxidation.

If a very slight portion be used to glass discoloured by coally 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*.

URANITE, or the metal of uranochre, of the *pitchblende*, and of the *chalcolite*, or *green mica*, discovered by Klaproth, in 1790, is of a dark steel or iron grey; internally browner. Sp. gr. 6,444. It is soluble in nitrous acid; it does not appear that other acids have been tried. It is infusible alone before the blow-pipe; but with microcosmic salt, or concrete phosphoric acid, it becomes a grass green glass; and with soda or borax only a grey opaque scoriaceous bead. Its oxyde 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 *nitrous* and *nitro-muriatic acids*, greenish yellow crystals. The precipitate thrown down from these two last mentioned solutions, by sulphurated ammoniac, is of a brownish yellow; by *tincture of galls*, the superfluous acid being saturated, of a chocolate brown; by *Prussian alkali*, a brownish and red granular precipitate, diffused through the whole liquor: that of copper by this alkali, being flaky; and that of molybdena, not so brown. By *carbonated fixed alkali*, whitish yellow; much of which is re-dissolved by the carbonic acid gas set loose. By *pure ammoniac*, lemon yellow. By *carbonated ammoniac*, dark yellow. But these solutions are precipitable neither by *iron* or *zinc*. This oxide is insoluble in alkalies, either in the moist or dry way; which fully distinguishes it from tungstenic oxide, which it resembles in colour.



TELLURITE, or SYLVANITE. Klaproth, although he first appears to have clearly ascertained the existence of this metal, modestly gives the honour of the discovery of it to Muller, and even to Bergman. Mr. Kirwan first called it sylvanite, but Mr. Klaproth denominated it tellurium. He discovered it whilst analysing the gold ore from Fatzebay, in Transylvania.

It is one of the most volatile and fusible of the metals, except quicksilver, and is of a dark grey colour, inclining to red, and of considerable metallic splendor.

It is semi-ductile and semi-malleable. Before the blow-pipe it burns with a blue flame with a green edge. When broken by the hammer, which has been 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 SULPHURIZED OXIDE of SYLVANITE.

Its oxids are reduced by exposure to heat on a piece of charcoal, with a rapidity approaching to detonation. It amalgamates with mercury, and its precipitation by antimony shows it is not that metal disguised.

The order of affinities of the OXIDE are not well determined.—*Dr. Pearson's Nomenclature*, 1799.

TITANITE 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 MENACHANITE, a substance first noticed by Mr. M^rGregor, in the valley of *Menachan*, in Cornwall, in small black grains resembling gunpowder. Mr. *Kirwan* pointed out the resemblance between this substance and titanite.

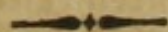
The oxide of this metal, which is of a whitish yellow, requires to be disoxidated to a certain degree to become soluble in acids. It is therefore treated with pot-ash, during which process it passes through various colours, red, blue, green, &c. according to the quantity of oxygen it retains; with which it even again supplies itself whilst drying, as is also the case with iron.—*Lowitz. Ann. de Chi.* XXXIV.

A slender stick of *tin* being placed in a solution of the MURIATE of TITANITE, the solution becomes first rose-red and then of amethystine hue. *Zinc* thus produces first a violet, and then a deep indigo blue.—*Gren.*

The solutions of titanite yield ALKALINE CARBONATES, and in white flocks by the addition of alkalies.

The prussic acid precipitates it of a green colour according to *Klaproth*, but according to *Lowitz* of a dirty yellowish brown.

On the authority of *Lampadius*, the order of attraction is, gallic, phosphoric, arsenic, oxalic, sulphuric, muriatic, nitric, and acetous acids.—*Ann. de Chi.* XXVI.



CHROME is a metallic substance, of a whitish grey, shining, and very brittle; obtained by Vauquelin from the mineral, called *Siberian red lead*.

He obtained the **CHROMIC ACID** from this mineral by the following processes:

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 oxygenates 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 **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 **CHROMIATE** of **LEAD**. It also forms **CHROMIATES** 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 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.—Its natural colour is white, with a strong shade of blue, but it quickly tarnishes by exposure to the air, becoming a pale yellow, and at last greyish black. Sp. gr. 8,310. It is brittle and not soluble in water. On burning coals, it gives a low bluish white flame, an alliaceous smell, and white smoke, which holds an *imperfect* OXIDE of ARSENIC, or the *white arsenic of commerce*. In close vessels, it sublimes without alteration, and crystallizes in trihedral pyramids, or octahedrons, of a brilliance resembling steel.

This substance, which in general is called arsenic, is of a glittering whiteness, sometimes of a vitreous appearance; exciting an acrid taste on the tongue, and subliming with the same smell and smoke as the arsenic itself. It may be reduced to the metallic state by treating it with oils, soaps, or charcoals, in close vessels.

Arsenic 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.

The oxide is less volatile than the metal itself. If sublimed by a strong fire in closed vessels, it becomes transparent like glass. The oxide 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 other 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. 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 oxide of arsenic; but the glasses, thus formed, soon tarnish.

The *muriatic acid* attacks arsenic very feebly; 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 *bute of arsenic*.

The *nitric acid*, and the *oxygenated muriatic acid* distilled from the oxide of arsenic, are decomposed; from the former, nitrous gas passes over abundantly, and from the latter, ordinary muriatic acid; their superabundant oxygen being seized by the arsenical oxide, which is thereby changed to a more perfect *oxide* called the ACID OF ARSENIC. This acid is also obtained from the residue of the distillation of equal parts of nitrate of pot-ash and oxide of arsenic, which yields a red, and almost incoercible nitric acid.

This residue is capable of being crystallized in tetrahedral prisms, terminated by four-sided pyramids, this arseniate of pot-ash, the neutral arsenical salt of *Macquer* being mixed with half its quantity of sulphuric acid, and urged by a strong fire, a white mass is left in the retort, which attracts humidity, and is *pure arsenical acid*. The nitrate of ammoniac with the oxide of arsenic, also, being distilled, the arseniate of ammoniac remains, from which the alkali being driven by a fire long kept up, the residue is a vitreous, deliquescent mass, the acid 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 arsenical acid remains.

The ACID OF ARSENIC may possess the concrete form, but deliquesces and resolves into a fluid. It is fixed in the fire, but heated in contact with a coally substance, it is decomposed, the oxygen exhaling in fumes. It is also reduced by passing hydrogen gas through it.—*Pelletier*.

At 12° it requires only two-thirds of its weight of water to dissolve it: and when thus dissolved, it may be concentrated and again brought to the state of a transparent glass.

In the state of concentration it acts strongly on the crucible, dissolving the alumine.

Pure pot-ash boiled on the oxide of arsenic, becomes brown, gradually thickens, and at last forms a hard, brittle, but deliquescent mass; the ARSENIATE OF POT-ASH.

Soda exhibits phenomena nearly similar with this oxide, forming the ARSENIATE OF SODA.

Ammonia dissolves the oxide by heat, and yields crystals by spontaneous evaporation, which are the ARSENIATE OF AMMONIAC.

Barytes and *magnesia* appear to have a stronger affinity with this acid than the alkalies. *Lime* and *alumine* also decomposes the alkaline arseniates.

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.*

MOLYBDENITE.—This semi-metal was obtained by *M. Hielm*, from the sulphurated ore, called *molybdena*, which has a metallic lustre, and marks paper similar to plumbago. Sp. gr. 6,1. It is nearly infusible in our furnaces, calcining in a red heat, and in a reguline state gives no colour to borax.

Molybdena is oxidated in a strong heat. Its white or yellow oxide, manifests evident acid properties, and may be considered as the MOLYBDENIC ACID, being the OXIDE of MOLYBDENITE oxygenated as perfectly as possible.

The most perfect acid is obtained by means of the nitric acid. 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 barytes.

The molybdenic acid thus purified, is of the Sp. gr. 3,750, soluble in 570 times its weight of water at 60° Fahr.

The solution of the molybdenic acid forms MOLYBDATES by acting on the imperfect metals, as *tin*, *zinc*, &c. rendering them blue, particularly when heated, as they strip it of

its oxygen. It precipitates the nitrated solutions of silver, mercury, and lead, the solutions of muriated lead, and of barytes in the nitrous or muriatic acids, but not those of the other earths. With the *earths* it forms difficultly soluble molybdates; and with the alkalies it unites and effervesces, but is not discoloured.

By detonation of one part of the metal with four of nitrate of pot-ash, a residue will be left which contains the **MOLYBDATE OF POT-ASH**.

Molybdena, when not in a metallic state, appears to suffer four degrees of oxygenation, 1st. black oxide; 2d. blue oxide; 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 fourth degree is the yellow acid, or that which is super-saturated with oxygen; heated in close vessels, it melts; in open, it sublimes; before the blow-pipe, on charcoal, it is speedily absorbed. With microcosmic salt it becomes green, with borax grey, and slowly also green.

Mr. Hatchett observes, whenever a solution of the molybdic acid becomes blue, or tending towards that colour, it is a sign that the molybdic acid has suffered a diminution of oxygen.

The *nitric acid* attacks it with effervescence, and converts it into an oxide endued with acid properties, ceasing to act as soon as the super-saturation with oxygen is effected.—

Hatchett. Phil. Trans. v. 86.

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.*

Muriatic, tartarous, oxalic, and acetic acids, afford blue solutions of the oxide, the colour shewing that the oxide is divested of part of its oxygen in the process.

The molybdenic 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**.

TUNGSTENITE is said to have been obtained in a metallic form from the mineral called *tungsten*, or *ponderous earth*, in which it is united with calcarous earth : and from another mineral called *wolfram*, in which it is combined with iron and manganese. It is supposed to be capable of existing as a **REGULUS**, externally brown, internally steel grey. Sp. gr. 17,600. Insoluble in the mineral acids, but convertible by the nitric, and nitro-muriatic into a yellow oxide, and likewise by heat, increasing 24 per cent. in weight.

This metal was obtained by Messrs. *Elluyarts*; and lately *Guyton* obtained a button of tungsten, by a heat of 183° Wedgewood in a three blast furnace. No other chymist has yet announced a similar success. It may also exist as a **YELLOW OXIDE**.

To obtain this, nitric acid is digested with tungsten, which renders it yellow; the powder is then washed and digested with liquid ammonia, by which it is rendered whiter. The ammoniated solution is then poured off, and the residual powder again exposed to the action of nitric acid. It is again extracted by ammonia and so on, until totally decomposed. The nitric acid carries off the lime contained in the ore, and the ammoniac really holds the oxide in solution, which is precipitated by the addition of nitric acid, nitrate of ammoniac being formed, and the oxide is precipitated white. To free it quite from the ammonia either heat must be applied, or it must be boiled with nitric acid. When this is done it assumes a yellow colour.

Ammoniac holds the oxide, therefore, in solution, and is neutralized by it; which circumstance and its changing litmus shews its acid nature. Ammonia by whitening it, distinguishes it from the yellow oxide of uranite.

The neutral salt just mentioned, or *tungstate of ammonia* being dropped into lime-water, throws down a *tungstate of lime*, resembling the native tungsten.

The yellow oxide exposed to the external flame of the blow-pipe, continues yellow; but by the internal, it swells and darkens, but does not melt. This is the reverse of what takes place with manganese, which is coloured by the external, and becomes colourless by the internal flame. The privation of oxygen blackens this substance, and whitens manganese. Alkaline phosphates being added, it loses all colour in the external flame of the blow-pipe, but in the internal, it gives a blue glass, but the addition of an alkali again renders this blue glass colourless. With borax it gives a brownish yellow glass—heated on a burning coal,

or in a crucible, it becomes a slate blue colour, but does not dissolve.

Digested in the *sulphuric acid* it is converted into a blue, and in the *nitric* and *muriatic*, into the yellow oxide.

This oxide may be combined with larger or smaller portions of oxygen. When imperfectly oxidated, it is bluish, and yellow when in the state of perfect oxide.—*Gren.*

It unites to *sulphur* in the dry way, and forms a bluish black, brittle, crystallized mass, the sulphuret of tungsten.

Its union with alkalies, with lime and with metals, even the noble metals, plainly evinces its acid nature, for as a simple calx it could not unite with them.—*Kirwan.*

C. Guyton observes, that tungsten in the last degree of oxygenation 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.

The metals are all excellent conductors of the ELECTRIC FLUID. They also possess the power of producing the evolution, decomposition, or some other unknown change on that fluid, on which those phenomena which belong to CALVANIC ELECTRICITY depend.

These phenomena are produced by two piles composed of different metals, alternately placed, one for instance *zinc*, another *silver*, with pieces of leather interposed between each metallic disk, moistened with a solution of muriate of ammoniac; water even will answer, but in a less degree. From each of these two piles a wire being passed, several curious phenomena result. When an animal is placed between the wires, and thus connects the two piles, a shock, similar to that from a charged electric jar is felt; when placed on each side of the tongue a pricking sensation and somewhat of an acid taste is experienced; when the head forms part of the circuit, the wires being placed in the ears, a crackling sound is heard; a flash of light appears if the eyes are brought in its course; and excessive pain is felt if its influence is directed on a surface where the skin is removed. When the wires from the two piles are brought within less than two inches of each other, but not in contact, and under water, the water appears to suffer a decomposition, hydrogen gas being separated by the wire coming from the pile of silver, whilst pure oxygen is obtained from the wire of the zinc pile, the wire itself suffering oxidation. These extraordinary effects were first noticed by *Volta*. Numerous experiments with different metals, &c. are recited in *Ni-*

cholson's Philosophical Journal, by the learned editors, Mr. Carlisle, Mr. Cruickshank, Mr. Davy, and Major Haldane; no satisfactory theory has however yet been published respecting these curious results from the apparent combination of electric and chemical powers.

BITUMINOUS SUBSTANCES.

NAPHTHA is a white or yellowish white substance, fluid as water, feels greasy, has a penetrating smell, and burns with a light flame, leaving scarcely any residuum. It is insoluble in spirits of wine, passes over entirely in distillation, and is thickened, but not inflamed by nitrous acid.

PETROL, or PETROLEUM, is a brown semi-transparent substance; being naphtha, thickened, and altered in colour and other respects by the air.

MINERAL TAR is petrol farther altered by the air, having become of the colour and consistency of pitch.

ASPHALTUM, or MINERAL PITCH, is produced by a still farther exsiccation. There are three varieties described of this substance, depending chiefly on the degree of solidity they possess. 1. *Cohesive*, MINERAL PITCH. 2. *Semi-compact*, MALTHA. 3. *Compact*, ASPHALT.

JET is a substance of a full black, harder, and less brittle than asphalt; and according to *Wiedenman*, 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 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.

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, hydrogen, carbon, 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, hydrogen and carbon, constitute the vegetable oils and rosins; and the same with some nitrogen, form the oils and grease of animals.

Organised 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. Genfanne* 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 ammoniac 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 decom-

position 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*.

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 carbure 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 by dry distillation yields the carbonate of ammoniac, and an empyreumatic oil in the form of *TAR*. If this be performed in a proper oven, the coal being piled in the manner of wood for charring, it 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 slightly 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 **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 dram of oil of amber, with a proper quantity of caustic solution of ammoniac, a compound of a milky colour is formed, called **EAU DE LUCE**.

Among the strata of *braunkoble* (bovey coal) in Saxony, is found a fossil of a honey yellow colour, and of an octahedral form; soft, brittle, and reducible to a greyish powder: it is called **MELLILITHUS**, or *Honey-stone*. It was supposed by some to be a gypsum impregnated with petroleum; and by Burn it was thought to be a kind of amber. But by the analysis of Mr. Klaproth, 100 parts appear to contain, besides the water of crystallization, 16 of alumine, and 46 of a peculiar acid.

This acid, which he 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 acetous acid, though less than that of mineral acids.

—*Crell's Journal*, 1800.

OF STONES.

CALCAREOUS EARTHS are characterised 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, TUSA, CALCAREOUS SPAR, STALACTITE, STALAGMITE, FLOS FERRI, PISOLITHUS, HAMMITES, or ROE-STONE, with ALABASTER 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 *superfaturated with carbonic acid*, the DOLOMITE or ELASTIC MARBLE. 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 *tungstenic 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.

BARYT has its combinations generally marked by their great degree of gravity, if not concealed by their porous structure. *Fourcroy* ranks this earth among the alkalies on account of its taste, solubility, attractions and other chemical powers.—*Tabl. Synopt.* 1800.

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 *silix* forms the SILICI-MURITE; with *lime* and some *iron*, CALCI-MURITE; with *alumine* and *iron*, ARGILLO-MURITE; and with a farther addition of *silix* and *lime*, CHLORITE; by its combination with *silix* 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 SERPENTINES appear to result from its union with *silix* 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 AMIANTHINITE, ASBESTINITE, ASBESTOID, BAIKALITE, with the SHORLACEOUS, 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 *silix*, 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.

From its admixture with *silicious 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 *silix* and *iron*, proceeds the TRIPOLI; from its union with phosphoric acid, PHOSPHOLITE; with *silix*, *iron*, 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* HORNBLLENDE, SCHILLER SPAR, WACKEN, MULLEN-STONE, KRAG-STONE, TRAP, TOAD-STONE, BASALT, CALP, ARGILLITE, SLATES, and NOVACULITE.

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 clay 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 dodecaëdron with triangular faces, or double hexëdral pyramid with or without an intermediate prism. From its mixtures with various proportions of *iron*, *lime*, and *alumine*, result the *AMETHYST*, *TOPAZ*, *SAPPHIRE*, *HYACINTH*, *GARNET*, *CHRYSOBERYL*, and *OLIVIN*. From its union with *shorlaceous actinolyte*, proceeds the *PRASIUM*; and with *alumine* and *iron*, *OBSIDIAN*; and *manganese* being added to these, the result is *SHORL*. With *alumine*, *lime* and *iron*, it forms the *TOURMALIN* and the *PREHNITE*; and with the addition of *manganese*, *THUMERSTONE*. Combined with *alumine*, *lime* and *water*, it forms the *ZEOLITES*; and with *barytes* in the place of *lime*, the *STAUROLITE*; with *alumine*, *blue sulphur of iron*, *sulphate and carbonate of lime*, *LAPIS LAZULI*; with *nickel*, *iron*, *alumine*, and *lime*, *CHRYSOPRASE*; with *alumine* and *lime*, *VESUVIAN*; with *alumine* only, *SHORLITE*; and with *alumine* and *pot-ash*, *LEUCITE*. If this last combination also hold *oxide of iron* and *manganese*, *RUBELLITE* is the result; but if *iron* only is added, *OPALS*, *SEMI-OPALS*, and *PITCH-STONE*. From the addition of *lime* to the combination just mentioned, proceeds *HYALITE*. From the various intermixtures of *alumine*, and a small portion of *iron*, also proceed *CHALCEDONY* with its varieties, *CORNELIAN*, *CAT'S-EYE*, *ONYX*, *MOCHA*, *AGATE*, *CUCHOLONG*, and the *SARDONYX*; and by the farther addition of a small portion of *lime*, *FLINT*, *HORN-STONE*, *PETRO-SILEX OF CHERT*, *JASPER*, *EGYPTIAN PEBBLE*, *PORCELANITE*, *HELIOTROPIMUM*, *WOODSTONE*, 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*, *RED-STONE*, and *SILICEOUS SPAR*. *AGATES* are composed of binary, ternary, or more numerous combinations of *calcedony*, *jasper*, *quartz*, *hornstone*, &c.

STRONTIAN is ranked as well as *baryt*, among the alkalis, by *Fourcroy*.—*Tabl. Synopt.* 1800.

It 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 stone of this genus, is the stone called *ZIRCON*, or *JARGON* of *Ceylon*.

GLUCINE, the newly discovered earth of Vauquelin, is found to exist in the *emerald of Peru*, in combination with *alumine, siliceous earth, lime, and oxide of chrome*. The BERYL, OF AQUA MARINE, also contains this earth with *silex, alumine, lime, and oxide of iron*.—*Annales de Chimie*, xxvi.

The RUBY appears, by the analysis of Vauquelin, to be a saline substance, composed of two bases, *alumine, magnesia*, and the *chromic acid*. The difference of colour between the ruby and the emerald, both of which he has discovered owe their colour to this acid, he attributes to the different degree of oxidation 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*.

The DIAMOND, though considered as a precious stone, has long been known to be of an inflammable substance, and is now believed to be the substance called *carbon*, existing in its most simple state, and in a crystallized form.

A mineral substance brought from Sydney Cove, was supposed to contain a new species of earth, which was therefore termed SYDNEIAN EARTH; but Mr. Hatchett having analysed this substance, says, "I do not hesitate to assert this mineral does not contain any primitive earth or substance, possessing the properties ascribed to it, and consequently that the *Sydneian genus*, in future, must be omitted in the mineral system."—*Phil. Transf.* 1798.

The stone called the CORUNDUM STONE, and from its hardness, ADAMANTINE SPAR, was also supposed to contain a new earth, which was therefore termed CORUNDA. Mr. Klaproth's first analysis of this mineral, gave *silex* 31,5. Iron and nickel 00,05, and *adamantine earth*, 68. But by a subsequent analysis, by Mr. Klaproth, of this mineral, he found that it contained *alumine*, from 84 to 89. *Silex* 5,5. to 6,5. *Oxide of iron* from 1,2 to 7,5, and *no new earth of any kind*.

AGGREGATED STONES. By the intermixture of *quartz, felspar*, and *mica*, is formed GRANITE; and by the addi-

tion of *hornblende*, SIENITE; and by various triple combinations of these substances with *shorl*, *serpentine*, *steatites* and *garnites*, GRANITINE; *quartz*, *mica* and *garnet* compose the stone called NORKA or MURKSTEIN. The duplicate aggregates, 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 GRUN-STEIN, *quartz* and *steatites*, the SAXUM MOLARE; and capillary shoots of *shorl* in *quartz* form the HAIR-STONE of the Geimans. 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. SHISTOSE MICA is composed of *quartz* and *mica*, and is of a shistose or slaty texture, but contains more mica than gneiss. PORPHYRY is any stone which in a *siliceous*, *argillaceous*, *muriatic*, 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*, *steatites*, *hornblende*, &c. in a ground of *trap*, *mullen*, *krag*, &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. Sometimes these are crystallized, as in the SANDSTONE of FONTAINBLEAU. 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.

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 no increase in size and roundness in proportion as their situation is higher.

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 *silix*, *alumine*, *lime* and *iron*; **TERRASS** and **TUFAS**, 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 basalt, 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 basalt; that granite lavas are indeed granite rocks fused, and that they have cracked like the *basalte en tables*.—*Phil. Transf.* 1791.

Dr. *Hutton*, in his Theory of the Earth, differing from Mr. *Kirwan*, conceived that whinstone or basalt, &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.

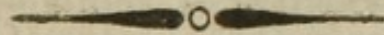
Mr. *Kirwan* has, however, since offered some ingenious objections to the inferences drawn from these experiments, as to the high degrees of heat attributed to volcanos, acknowledging the discovery of the cause of the stony appearances which lavas exhibit after cooling to be a discovery of great importance to geology.—*Philos. Journal*, 1800.

Dr. *Samuel Mitchell*, 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 basalt; and like basalt, though figured, they evidently were 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 basalt? 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* accounts 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.*

It is however observed by Mr. *Spallanzani*, 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.*



OF THE

PRIMEVAL STATE OF THE EARTH,

AND ITS SUBSEQUENT CHANGES.

Mr. *KIRWAN* supposes the superficial parts of the globe to have been originally in a soft liquid state, proceeding from solution in water heated at least to 33° , and possibly much higher. This menstruum must have held in solution all the different earths, the metallic, and semi-metallic, the saline, and the inflammable substances; being a more complex men-

Aruum than has ever since existed. In this fluid, its solid contents coalesced and crystallized, according to the laws of elective attraction; *quartz*, *felspar*, and *mica*, constituting *granite*, *gneiss*, &c. he supposes to be first deposited, with various *metallic substances*, particularly *iron*. In other tracts, according to the predominant proportion of the ingredients, were formed *siliceous schistus*, *porphyries*, *jaspers*, &c. with *argillites*, *hornblende*, *slates*, *serpentine*s, and other *primeval stones*; and the metallic substances meeting and combining with sulphur, formed the *pyritous* substances and *sulphurated ores*. With the sulphur also *petrol* would combine and enter into combination. By this crystallization of these immense masses, a prodigious quantity of heat must have been generated, and increased by the decomposition of the water, intercepted in the precipitated ferruginous particles, and by the disengagement of inflammable air, even to incandescence; the oxygen uniting with the inflammable air, and bursting into flame. This stupendous conflagration, supported also by the sulphurated, carbonic and bituminous substances, must have rent and split, to an unknown extent, the solid basis on which the chaotic fluid rested. From the heated chaotic fluid must have been extricated the *oxygen* and *mephitic* airs, which gradually formed the atmosphere. From the union of oxygen with the ignited carbon, proceeded the *carbonic acid*, or in Mr. *Kirwan's* words, the *fixed air*, the absorption of which, as the chaotic fluid cooled, occasioned the crystallization and deposition of the *calcareous earth*.* The immense masses, concreted and deposited by the combination and crystallization of the several earths on the nucleus of the globe, formed the *primitive mountains*. The formation of *plains* took place from the subsequent deposition in the internals of distant mountains, of matters less disposed to crystallize; such were argillaceous and ferruginous particles, and such particles of other earths, as were too distant from each other's sphere of attraction to concrete into crystals. The level of the antient ocean being lowered to the depth of 8500 or 9000 feet, then and not before, it began to be peopled by fish. That the *creation of fish* was subsequent to the emersion of the tracts just mentioned, he thinks, is proved, by no marine shells

* The formation of fixed air being subsequent to the formation of the primeval stones, he thinks, appears from the calcareous earth being found in the composition of primeval stones, in a caustic state.

or petrifications being found in tracts elevated above the height of 9000 feet, and reciprocally, of the mountains containing petrifications, none reaches to the height of 8600 feet. After this elevated tract of the globe had been uncovered by the retreat of the sea to its bed, there is no reason to believe it remained long divested of *vegetables*, or unpeopled by *animals*; being in every respect fitted to receive them. This retreat of the sea, from the lower parts of our present continent, was not effected, he supposes, until the lapse of several centuries; this, he thinks, is proved by the vast accumulated heaps of fossil shells, in inland situations, and the discovery of trees and vegetables in great depths, of our modern continents; and from the appearance of stratified mountains formed by gradual deposition; and thus entombing fish, shells, wood, &c. The retreat of the sea continued probably until a few centuries before the deluge, which he conceives to have originated in and proceeded from the great southern ocean below the equator, and thence to have rushed on the northern hemisphere, spread over the arctic region, and then to have descended southwards. During this elemental conflict, he supposes the carbonic and bituminous matter must have run into masses no longer suspensible in water, and have formed *strata of coal*; the calces of iron, gradually reduced by the contact of bitumen and precipitated with the argillaceous and siliceous particles, forming *basaltic masses*, which split into columns by desiccation. The eruption of fixed or oxygen air would form cavities in which, by subsequent infiltration, *calcedonies*, *zeolytes*, *olivins*, *spars*, &c. might be formed.

This system, Mr. *Kirwan* says, agrees with the geological facts related by Moses, not only in substance but in the order of their succession.—*Geological Essays*, 1799.

It is remarked by Mr. *Jameson*, that in the Shetland Islands, the east side is low, but the west, lofty, rugged, and broken, and many of the mountains are more steep on the west, than on the east side. Upon examining other parts of Scotland, England, Norway, &c. similar phenomena present themselves.—The *rivers* also generally run from west to east.—*Hills*, he remarks, all run in the longest direction of the islands in which they are placed.—*Mineralogy of the Shetland Islands*.

OF VEGETABLE SUBSTANCES.

VEGETABLE SUBSTANCES appear to derive their chief nourishment from *water*, which on its reception into the plant is reduced to its first principles, hydrogen and oxygen; the *hydrogen* becoming an essential principle of the vegetable; and constituting the greater proportion in the composition of resins, oils and mucilage. The *oxygen* is partly employed in producing vegetable acids, &c. and partly expelled by transpiration through the pores of the plant: its separation is evidently accelerated by the action of light; since during night plants chiefly give out carbonic acid gas.

The *air* is useful in vegetation, not only as a vehicle for water, caloric and light, but from its yielding oxygen, which enters into the plant itself, and which also combines with the carbon and hydrogen it meets with on the surface of the plants; furnishing also a portion of carbonic acid, from which nourishment is derived in a high degree. The *carbonic acid* thus absorbed is decomposed, its *carbon* is deposited in the plant, aiding the formation of the vegetable fibre, whilst its oxygen is transpired. Thus also *carbonated hydrogen* promotes vegetation. M. *Saussure* finds that plants, like animals, form carbonic acid, with the assistance of the oxygen of the atmosphere, the acid being often decomposed as fast as it is formed. *Light*, he observes, promotes vegetation by decomposing the acid; and therefore that proportion of the acid which favours vegetation during the influence of the sun, injures it during the night. 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.—*Journal des Chemie, Jan. 1800.*

Nitrogen gas, so unfriendly to man, appears to be rapidly absorbed by vegetables.

Light is certainly necessary to vegetable life, it serving as a stimulus, and being also a powerful agent in decomposing the various nutritive principles; and particularly in separating the oxygen gas from the substances imbibed, whilst their bases become fixed in the plant.

Light has been supposed to occasion the green colour of vegetables, plants growing in the dark being white, when they are said to be *etiolated*. But *Von Humboldt* finding

plants green which have grown in the dark, but in inflammable or mephitic gases, attributes the verdure of plants to hydrogen and azote in certain proportions.—*Experiments by V. Humboldt.*

A sensible production of *heat* is discoverable in vegetables, so as sometimes to exceed that of the atmosphere. This heat is, undoubtedly, an effect of the fixation and concretion of those matters which form the food of plants.

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 oxygen is emitted both from land and aquatic plants, in very considerable quantity, during their exposure to the action of light; and by this continual emission of vital air, is the loss repaired which is occasioned by respiration, combustion, fermentation, and putrefaction. Plants likewise emit a very considerable quantity of water in the form of vapour.

I. The *SAP* is that fluid which is formed by the elaboration of the various substances which are taken up as *pabula* by the plant.

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 the elm, the beech, the service, the birch, and the mulberry-trees appear to differ considerably in their composition; but in general they contain in much water, gum, sugar, extractive matter, tannin, carbonic acid, acetic acid, and salts with basis of pot-ash.—*Fourcroy, 1800.*

II. *MUCILAGE* is a viscid matter, which 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 *cuphorbium*, *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, &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.

The characters of mucilage are:—1, Insipidity. 2, Solubility in water. 3, Insolubility in alcohol. 4, Coagula-

tion by the action of weak acids and metallic solutions. 3, The emission of a considerable quantity of carbonic acid, when exposed to the action of the fire, and 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 what is termed the pyromucous acid.

Its formation seems almost independent of light.

Mucilage may be changed into *oxalic acid* by the nitric, and into the *citric*, by the *muriatic acid*.—*Vauquelin*.

III. GUM exudes from different parts, but chiefly from the trunks and branches of trees. It is generally supposed to be only inspissated mucilage.

It 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*.

IV. OILS. The oily principle appears to be the same in all oils; but is combined with *mucilage* in FIXED, and *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 employed the oil is said to be *cold drawn*. They are insoluble in alcohol or water, and are generally mild. They all congeal at certain degrees of diminution of heat, 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.

By distillation they afford phlegm, an acid, consequently oxygen, a fluid, or light oil, much hydro-carbonate gas, with carbonic acid gas, and a coally residue which affords no alkali. The volatile oils afford more hydrogen gas, and the fixed more carbonic acid gas; this last depending on the mucilage.

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 oxidation 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.

If the product of the combustion of oil be collected, much water is obtained; the hydrogen and the oxygen, which the oil contained, uniting and forming that fluid. According to *Chaptal*, a pound of oil of olives contains 12 oz. 5 dwts. 5 grains of carbon, and 3 oz. 2 dwts, and 67 grains of hydrogen.

The process by which oil is rendered drying, shows its dependence on the combination of oxygen with the oil itself, since nothing more is required than to boil oil with metallic oxides; during which process, a substance is disengaged which swims at the top, and appears to be simple mucilage.

The oxides of lead, bismuth and mercury, thus combining readily with oils, 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 Chemie*, 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. The *muriatic* forms a saponaceous mass with them, and the *oxy-muriatic* thickens them. These masses have been called *acid soaps*.

The alkalies also combine with the fixed oils, and form SOAPS, by which oils are rendered miscible with water.

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.

Sir *John Dalrymple* proposed to use the muscular fibres of fish, in a certain proportion with tallow, to make hard soap, and to substitute it for oil, in the manufacture of soft

soap. But by experiments made to determine the value of this proposal, it appears, that in making hard soap, the greater part of the fishy matter was useless, being nearly in a gelatinous state; and that it separates from the tallow, so that the fish and tallow will not combine. In attempting to make soft soap, the precariousness of the result, and its affording little or no saving, renders it unworthy of attention.—*R. Jameson. Nicholson's Journal, 1799.*

By mixing oil with lime-water, an acid solution of lime, solutions of the sulphates of magnesia, or of alumine, or of the muriate of baryt, an EARTHY SOAP, either *magnesian, aluminous, barytic, &c.* is formed.

The fat oils perfectly dissolve *sulphur*, and form a reddish balsam, of a disagreeable odour, called BALSAM of SULPHUR. They also dissolve *phosphorus*.

2. *Volatile or essential oils* are soluble in alcohol. 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.

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 oxy-muriatic acids, are soon deprived of their oxygen by the ethereal oils, which are thereby converted to resins.

If two parts of oil of turpentine, and one 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 *sulphur*. They contain much *hydrogen*.

V. CAMPHOR is a white concrete crystalline substance, which, though chiefly obtained from a species of laurel, is said to exist in all odoriferous vegetables. It has a strong smell and taste, is soluble in alcohol, 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 not 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. It is capable of crystallization either by sublimation, or precipitation. It appears to be a volatile oil, rendered concrete by carbon; and, treated with nitric acid, yields its peculiar acid.

Romieu has 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 *per se*. It does not turn upon hot water.—*Bergen*.

Prevost and *Venturi* have remarked the curious appearances observable from the floating of camphor and other odorant bodies on water, under different circumstances.—*Annales de Chimie*, XIX.

It appears that these phenomena proceed from jets of essential oil thrown out with rapidity from these bodies, which make them move on the water.—*Brugnatelli*.

VI. RESINS appear to be oils rendered concrete by their combination with oxygen. They appear to be volatile oils oxygenated and in part dis-hydrogenated.—*Fourcroy*, 1800.

They are inflammable, and yield much soot, during their combustion; are soluble in alcohol and in oils, but not in water. They are generally less sweet than the balsams, and afford more volatile oil, but no acid by distillation. Among the resins may be placed *massich*, *sandarach*, &c.

Bouillon la Grange observes that SENA contains, besides extractive matter and a gum, both resolvable into calcareous earths, and similar substances, a substance only wanting a portion of oxygen to make it a perfect resin. This it acquires by boiling and then becomes drastic. Hence he recommends the cold infusion, and not mixing it with acids or any other substance which may supply it with oxygen.—*Ann. de Chi.* XXIII.

TAR is separated from pine, and Scotch firs, in *tar furnaces*, and when inspissated it becomes BLACK PITCH. The TURPENTINES appear to be resins containing volatile oil.

VII. GUM RESINS appear to be a natural mixture of mucilage and resin. They are partly soluble in water, and partly in alcohol, and render water turbid in which they are boiled. Under this head may be placed *scammony*, *gum gutta*, *assafetida*, *aloes*, *gum ammoniac*, &c.

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 *birdlime*. Resins dissolved in fixed oils form the fat or *oily varnish*; in volatile oils the *essential varnish*; and in alcohol the *spirit varnish*.

VIII. CAOUTCHOUC, called the *elastic gum*, may also be placed here. The *nitric ether* dissolves this gum. 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. A mixture of volatile oil and alcohol forms a varnish which dries more speedily. Linseed oil also, by long digesting on the oxides of lead, affords a pellicle of considerable firmness; transparent, wonderfully 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*.

IX. BALSAMS are substances containing a principle which does not exist in resins, and which combining with oxygen, forms an 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.*

X. FÆCULA of vegetables appears to be only 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 is obtained *potatoe flour, cassava, sago, &c.* 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. There are also *coloured fæcula*, such as *iudigo*.

XI. VEGETABLE GLUTEN. This has been called the *vegeto-animal substance*, from its properties resembling those of animal substances. It is more particularly obtained from the gramineous vegetables. 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.

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 ammoniac, and shews in several instances 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 a state is produced resembling that of cheese.

Cold water does not attack this glutinous part; but if it be boiled with this fluid, it loses its extensibility and 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.

The *nitric acid* dissolves it, with activity, emitting at first the 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 oxalic acid in crystals.

The *sulphuric* and *muriatic acids* likewise dissolve it, and salts with base of ammonia, may be obtained from the combinations.

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.

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*. This 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 less quantity in the flour of other corn, but is a constituent part of many other plants, particularly of the *fungi*. Its principles appear to be carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, phosphorus, and oxygen.

FARINA, or flour, therefore is composed of three principles, the *amylaceous*, or *starch*, or *fæcula*, the *animal* or *glutinous* principle, and the *saccharine* principle.

XII. SUGAR is a true essential salt, of a peculiar nature, a constituent part of vegetables; it may be extracted from a number of plants, as the maple, birch, 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 would prevent the sugar from coagulating, until it acquires a syrupy consistence. It is then far-

ther concentrated by boiling with alum and lime, and the thinner syrup, 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 bullocks blood, which latter, coagulating by heat, involves and separates most of the foreign matters it contains, thus producing its clarification, when it is 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, being truncated on two sides, it is then called *sugar candy*.

It may be converted by the *nitric acid* into the oxalic, and by fermentation into acetic acid.

The juice of the sugar maple (*acer saccharinum*) yields it very plentifully.

The carrot, and the *beta cyclo altifs*, yield sugar in considerable quantity. The water remaining after obtaining starch, also contains a large quantity of sugar.—*Professor Jacquin and Dr. Peschiere.*

MANNA, which is sugar under another form, is secreted and exudes from several vegetables, from the pine, the fir, the maple, the oak, the juniper, the fig, the willow, the olive, &c. but the ash, the larch, and the *albagi*, afford it in the largest quantities.

From the ingenious inquiries of Mr. Cruikshank, it appears that, 1. sugar is a pure vegetable oxide, consisting of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen. 2. Sugar of milk differs only in containing more oxygen, and much less carbon. 3. Gum differs also in containing lime and azote. 4. Vegetable farina cannot be converted into saccharine matter, without the joint action of oxygen and water, the first being absorbed, the latter decomposed. 5. Sugar deprived of its oxygen, loses its characteristic properties, appears somewhat like a gum, and is no longer susceptible of the vinous fermentation. 6. Neither vegetable nor animal mucilage, in their pure state, are susceptible of this process.—*Experiments on Sugar. W. Cruikshank.*

XIII. 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 it in a flocculent form. This 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.

XIV. 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. We can decompose them all, but cannot compound any one.—*Gren.*

FIRST, *Vegetable acids ready formed, and obtained by very simple processes.*

1. The 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 warm water, and then a sufficient quantity, previously ascertained, of sulphuric acid, to 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 may be freed from the remaining gypsum. Its crystals are octahedral prisms, truncated on their solid angles. It seems to be one of the strongest of the vegetable acids; it is not converted by the nitric acid into the oxalic acid. It acts on several metallic substances by the aid of water, and forms CITRATES with the *alkalies* and *earths*.

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.

M. Brugnatelli, obtained citric acid pure, by well straining it through linen cloth, then mixing it with spirits of wine, and, after standing some days, filtering it through paper; the pure citric acid passing through, and the slimy matter being left on the paper.—*Ann. de Chim.*
XXII.

2. The MALIC ACID may be extracted from the juice of unripe fruits, particularly of apples, by saturating the juice with chalk, and adding a solution of acetite of lead; the acetous 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 *mesembryanthema*, and in common parsley. He observes, when the juice of a plant furnishes an abundant precipitate with an oxalate of ammoniac, and also a light flocky precipitate, with acetite of lead, which is easily soluble in vinegar, it assuredly holds a malate of lime.——*Ann. de Chim. C. 104.*

With the alkalies it forms deliquescent salts; with the *earths* it also forms MALATES, that of alumine being difficultly soluble. The MALATE of IRON does not crystallize, but that of *zinc* forms in fine crystals. It precipitates the *nitrates of lead, of silver, or of gold*, in the metallic state. It is readily destroyed by fire, or converted into the carbonic acid. The nitric acid changes it into the oxalic acid. Vauquelin says, perhaps, by being oxygenated by degrees, it at last contributes, in some plants, to form the oxalic acid.

3. The GALLIC ACID, which is also yielded by many barks, roots, fruits, &c. may be thus obtained. 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 falls down in proportion as the infusion evaporates. These precipitates being collected, and dissolved in boiling water, form a liquid 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 by sublimation.

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 spirits of wine dissolves its own weight of this acid; but cold spirits only one fourth.

It is inflammable, it also melts and leaves a coal of difficult incineration. By distillation it gives out an acid phlegm, and a sublimate nearly of the smell and taste of acid of benzoin.

Dejeux thinks its radical is simply carbon, and that it differs from carbonic acid only in the quantity of carbon. But *Gren* thinks that, as it is, like the acids just spoken of, convertible into oxalic acid, by nitric acid, its basis is composed of hydrogen and carbon.

It precipitates the several metals in different colours. Gold, of a brown colour; silver, of a grey; mercury, of an orange; copper, of a brown; lead, of a white; and iron, of a black colour.

The basis of INK is iron thus precipitated. Proust considers ink as a solution of gallate and tannate of iron in sulphuric acid; and prefers ink made by a solution of iron itself in infusion of galls. The juice of walnuts (green) present the same appearances on digestion with iron. It is only the red oxide of iron, (oxidated *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. Sulphurated 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.*

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, half an ounce of acetite of copper first moistened and pounded into a paste, 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.—*Deformeaux, Phil. Mag.*

Writing in common ink may be effaced by diluted oxy-muriatic acid, and may be again restored by dipping the paper in a very weak solution of sulphur 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.

TANNIN, or that substance which acts as a *tanning principle*, combining with the gelatinous parts of animals, and thereby preventing their decay, is generally found to accompany the gallic acid in the bark, ligneous part, &c. of vegetables.

To obtain the tanning principle in the readiest manner, a saturated solution of carbonate of pot-ash is to be poured in a very strong infusion of galls, when the tannin is precipitated in whitish yellow flocks; which must be washed with a very small quantity of cold water. The quantity remaining in

solution may be precipitated by inspissation. The whole precipitate being spread thin, dries in a stove and assumes a resinous form, of an acid bitter taste, soluble in hot water and in alcohol, and by distillation yields a saline liquor, in which the smell of ammoniac is distinguishable. This solution holds *tannin*, which volatilizes unchanged, and which blackens the red oxide of iron, but does not become green with alkalies. The foregoing precipitate appears to be formed by the salt, which is added, having a greater affinity for the water than the *tannin* has; at the same time, that the carbonate of alkali saturates the gallic acid, which has the property of holding the *tannin* in solution. The aqueous solution of *tannin* lathers like soap water, and being poured into a solution of glue, it directly converts it into a magma, which possesses the elastic properties of the gluten of wheat. As all saline substances will precipitate the *tannin*, and as the animal fluids contain salts; it is not to be inferred from a precipitation on a mixture with infusion of *tannin* that these contain glue. It is the *preserving principle of tanned leather*.

By its action on animal substances it renders them soft, supple, and lasting, diminishes their attraction for water, and prevents their becoming the food of insects.—*Proust. Ann, de Chim. C. 103.*

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.*

The green sulphate of iron is not altered by the tanning principle, any more than by the acid of galls. But the red sulphate is precipitated by the tanning principle, in a somewhat tarnished blue deposition, different from that by the acid of galls. Besides, the GALLATE of IRON is soluble in acids, but the TANNATE of IRON is decomposed by these salts.—*Proust.*

4. The BENZOIC ACID is obtained by boiling 4 parts of benzoic with 1 of lime, and 4 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, it must be dissolved, filtered, and gently evaporated. It may be also obtained by *sublimation*, in the form of *flowers of Benjamin*.

It reddens the infusion of violets, effervesces with the alkaline carbonates, and unites with earths, alkalies, and metals, forming BENZOATES. A similar acid is obtained from *balsam of Tolu* and *storax*.

The effects produced on it by the *nitric acid* are not thoroughly known. It differs, however, from the other vegetable acids, and retains an essential oil, which gives it smell, volatility, combustibility, and solubility, in alcohol.

Distilled with sulphuric acid, and the black oxide of manganese, it is decomposed, and becomes acetic acid.

5. ACID of TARTAR is obtained from TARTAR, or the TARTAREOUS ACIDULE, which is pot-ash supersaturated with tartareous acid, and 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. Exposed to heat it yields oil, phlegm, carbonic acid, and hydro-carbonate gas, and leaves in its ashes a considerable quantity of vegetable alkali.

PURIFIED ACIDULOUS TARTRITE of POTASH, 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 by degrees, until the liquid is saturated. A precipitate forms which is a true TARTRITE of LIME, tasteless and crackling between the teeth. By adding 9 ounces of sulphuric acid, and 5 ounces of water to this tartrite, and digesting them together for twelve hours, the tartarous 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 hydro-carbonate, 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.

This acid is very sharp, but has no action on *platina*, *gold*, *silver*, or *antimony*, and scarcely any sensible action on *copper*, *lead*, and *tin*; but it dissolves their *oxides*. It acts on *iron* with a considerable degree of effervescence. With the *earths* it also combines very freely.

Boiled with the *sulphuric acid*, the *tartarous* is for the most part converted into *acetic acid*.—Gren.

By a neutralization of the acidulous tartrite by a farther addition of pot-ash, the TARTRITE of POT-ASH, or as it

was improperly called, *soluble tartar*, a *triple salt* is formed.

The addition of *soda* to the *acidule* forms the TARTRITE of SODA, formerly called *sal rochelle*, or *sel de seignette*, which crystallizes in tetrahedral, rhomboidal prisms.

The TARTRITE of AMMONIAC forms crystals of tetrahedral prisms with obliquely truncated summits.—*Gren.*

The crystals of tartar are rendered more soluble by the addition of *borax*.

The tendency of the tartarous 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 attracted by pot-ash as is the tartarous, decompose the neutral tartrate of pot-ash, and separate from it, not the tartarous acid, but the acidulous tartrate, the consequence of the tartarous 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.—*Gren.*

6. The OXALIC ACID is obtained chiefly from the salt of sorrel, of which we will therefore first speak.

OXALIC ACIDULE, or *salt of sorrel*, consisting of oxalic acid and oxalate of pot-ash, is obtained from the juice of the *oxalis acetosella*. 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 tartrate of pot-ash, it also forms triple salts with the alkalies, earths, and some of the metals.

The OXALIC ACID obtained from the oxalic acidule, by depriving it of the pot-ash it contains, has a penetrating sour taste, it effervesces in the air, is soluble in twice its weight of cold, and half its weight of hot water.

It forms OXALATES with the *alkalies*, making, with *pot-ash*, the oxalic acidule, or the salt of sorrel of the shops. 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*.

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.

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 failed.—*Ann. de Chim.* No. 86.

VEGETABLE ACIDS obtained by the use of NITRIC ACID.

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 tartarous and the oxalic are converted into the acetic acid.—*Gren.*

7. 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 ammoniac, which are very sparingly soluble in water. With *pot-ash* it forms crystals in regular hexagons; with *soda*, irregular crystals; with *ammoniac*, 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 whose planes are parallel, and in some respects resembling basaltes.

It burns without leaving any residue, 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.*

8. SUBERIC ACID, obtained, as its name imports, from *cork*, 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*, *ammoniac*, *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.*

To explain the action of SULPHURIC ACID on *dry vegetable substances*, *Fourcroy* observes, that on putting a *straw* in this acid a black powder is precipitated, and the acid weakened without being decomposed. The acid, he supposes, decomposes the straw, by attracting some of its water of composition, thus destroying the mutual attraction of its component parts. A portion of the carbon is precipitated unchanged, and another of it is combined with the hydrogen, and a part of the oxygen of the vegetable substance, to form the acetous acid, which is found after the process to be combined with the sulphuric acid, while the remaining hydrogen and oxygen form the water with which the mineral acid appears to be diluted.—*Ann. de Chim.* XXIII.

ACIDS obtained by the ACTION of FIRE, or EMPYREUMATIC ACIDS.

9. PYRO-TARTAROUS ACID is yielded by dry distillation, by the *tartarous acidule*. Its saline combinations are called PYRO-TARTRITES.

10. PYRO-MUCILAGINOUS ACID is obtained by dry distillation from *insipid*, *saccharine*, *gummy*, or *farinaceous* mucilages. It renders the skin of a red colour, and forms PYRO-MUCITES with the *earths* and *alkalies*, with *lead*, *copper*, *tin*, and *iron*.

The acid thus obtained *Gren* believes to be only a mixture of acetic and oxalic, and does not think it deserves to be considered as a peculiar acid.

11. PYRO-LIGNOUS ACID is obtained by dry distillation from *wood*, and particularly from *beech*, *birch*, and *box*. With earthy and alkaline bases it forms PYROLIGNITES.

Gren supposes these acids to be *products* of the operation, not *educts* which have actually existed in the substance.

From the experiments of *Vauquelin* and *Fourcroy*, it appears that the three empyreumatic acids are merely the acetous acid impregnated with empyreumatic oil, of which it appears to be an actual dissolvent.—*Ann. de Chim.* 1800.

12. The ACETOUS ACID is the result of what is termed the acetous fermentation, of which it will be necessary first to speak.

FERMENTATION OF VEGETABLE SUBSTANCES.

FERMENTATION takes place, accompanied by a decomposition, when the various parts of vegetables are diffused in water, and the action of this fluid 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.

When the *saccharine principle* predominates in the substances employed, the product is a *spirituous liquor*, and the process is termed, the *spirituous fermentation*; but when *mucilage* is most abundant, the liquor soon manifests an *acid*, the process by which it is formed being termed the *acetous fermentation*; and if gluten be prevalent, *ammoniac* will be discovered in the product, and the process will be the *putrescent fermentation*. No substances but those which consist simply of carbon, hydrogen and oxygen are susceptible of the vinous fermentation. It appears that nitrogen and lime combined with the carbon, in gum, prevents the vinous, and consequently the acetous fermentation.

SPIRITUOUS FERMENTATION is employed for making *wine*, *cider*, *beer*, *perry*, &c. Thus the *must* or *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 *yeast*. This process ceasing, the liquor becomes clear and bright, and has obtained 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 these fermenta-

tions *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.

Flour is likewise disposed to fermentation, especially if the grain be first *malted*, 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 about 2-3ds of its length, the farther germination is then stopped by drying in a kiln, or airy lofts. When dried in the latter way it is called *air dried malt*, and in the former *kiln-malt*. BEER is made from malt by infusing ground malt in boiling water in a *masb-tub*, it being then called *masb*, 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 acedent 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 resinous 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*. Alcohol is produced by a re-distillation or *rectification*. 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, appears to be formed by an intimate union of much hydrogen with carbon. Mr. *Lavoisier* obtained eighteen ounces of water by burning one pound of alcohol.

Alcohol may be freed from its redundant water, not only by distillation, but by the addition of fixed alkali, which

attracts the water, in which it becomes dissolved, the alcohol swimming at the top, and containing a small portion of the alkali.

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.

It 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*, *essential oils*, and *soap*, but does not dissolve *fat oils*, *animal fat*, *sulphur*, *prussian blue* or *phosphorus*.

ETHER, or *naphtha*, is formed by distilling equal parts of sulphuric acid and alcohol, the oxygen of the acid combining with the hydrogen and carbon of the alcohol. If the distillation be continued beyond the production of the ether, a yellow oil, called SWEET OIL of WINE, is produced, which is heavier and less volatile than the ether.

Ether is exceedingly light and volatile, and of a peculiar smell; is sparingly soluble in water, and burns with a bright flame.

Fourcroy and *Vauquelin* attribute the formation of ether to the attraction of the sulphuric acid for the water of the alcohol.

Van Mons says, that a *muriatic ether* may be composed by one operation, if you distil, at a boiling heat, a mixture of alcohol and oxy-muriate of pot-ash in the proportion of 1,00 to 0,25.

By simply mixing the sulphuric and muriatic ethers, instantaneous evaporation takes place, and the absorption of caloric is so rapid as 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.

Messrs. *Bondt*, *Dieman*, *Van Trootswyk*, and *Lawrenberg*, have discovered that by the distillation of ether, or of a mixture of sulphuric acid with alcohol or ether, or by causing the vapours of alcohol and ether to pass through a tube of clay ignited, or through the component parts (alumine and filix) of such a tube, a gas is obtained, which they have called the *carbonated oily hydrogenous gas*: which on being mixed with oxygenated muriatic acid gas, manifests 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 *manganefian oxide*, 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, and which sinks in water, comes over. This has been called *oil of salt*; perhaps it resembles the oil just spoken of in its mode of production.—*Gren.*

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 sometime, 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 *tartareous* acids, may, without addition, be changed to the acetic acid, by fermentation.

VINEGAR may be concentrated by distillation, or by freezing, when it forms the ACETOUS ACID, which united with *pot-ash*, forms the ACETITE of POT-ASH, also called improperly, *terra foliata tartari*; with *soda*, the ACETITE of SODA; and with *ammoniac*, the AMMONIACAL ACETITE, generally known by the name of *Mindererus's spirit*.

ACETIC ACID, also called *radical vinegar*, has been supposed to be formed by introducing a still larger quantity of oxygen, than it in general contains, into the acetous acid. To do this, the acetous acid is combined with some of the metallic oxides, and exposed to distillation, when the higher acid is obtained. Or half its weight of *sulphuric acid* may be mixed with *acetite of soda* and distilled. It is most probable that the difference arises only from the proportion of water the acids contain.

Acetic acid, as it is termed, is very acrid and volatile, emitting, when heated, an inflammable vapour, and forming with alkalies and earths, salts different from those formed by common vinegar, and which are distinguished by the term ACETATES. It will also form ether with alcohol.

The formation of vinegar appears to be the result of the combination of oxygen with carbon and hydrogen, *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.

The conversion into the acetous acid appears to depend on four 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, by which water and carbonic acid also are formed, and charcoal deposited. This acetification appears to be the last step of vegetable acidification; since if 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 with the putrid decomposition. It takes place in animal fluids, particularly in urine.—*Ann. de Chim. Cah. 104.*

Scheele has formed vinegar by decomposing the nitric acid on sugar and mucilage.

In the making of *bread*, the vinous and acetous fermentation take place; the former soon yielding to the latter, the flour kneaded into *dough* with water, having acquired this state, is called *leaven*, and if added to more dough it hastens its fermentation. But if baked before sourness is discoverable good bread is formed. Yeast is also 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.*

XIV. 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 *ammoniac*. 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 actuate those which existed in the plant.

The alkali thus obtained is, in fact, a neutral salt, containing carbonic acid; and 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.

XV. 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 DYING, consists in transferring the colouring principle of one body to another, so that it shall be durably fixed.

Colours are all formed in 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 dying, 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 dying 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*, which either by imparting oxygen or otherways, alters its substance, and 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.

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.

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 *fecula*, which water alone does not dissolve, such are *archil*, *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 mordants are chiefly of an acid nature, such as the sulphate of alumine, acidulous tartrate of pot-ash, solution of tin in nitro-muriatic and oxy-muriatic acid, gallic acid, sulphate of copper, of iron, and of zinc, acetite of copper, arsenic, &c.

Blue, red, and yellow, are the fundamental colours, by combining these, *on the stuffs*, rarely in the bath, the various hues are obtained.

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 oxygenated muriatic acid produces the effect with so much facility, that all former processes must yield to it.

The oxy-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 thus made.

Sulphur 4 pounds, flaked lime 24 pounds, and water 16 gallons boiled half an hour in an iron vessel, the liquor strained off and 16 gallons more of water poured on the dregs and also strained off; the two solutions being mixed together and poured into 33 gallons more water, makes a liquor of a proper standard in which cloth may be steeped in the process of bleaching, the sulphuret serving as a substitute for pot-ash for condensing the oxy-muriatic gas.—
Essay on Bleaching, &c. Wm. Higgins.

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 sulphate of alumine and the muriate of tin are the two salts which are most efficacious for these purposes. 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. In this way, cow's dung and bullock's blood are used in dying cotton.

Turnsol 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.*

The juice of aloes produces a lively violet, highly proper for works in miniature, and which may serve either cold or warm, for dying silk, from the lightest to the darkest shade.—*Fabroni. Ann. de Chim. xxv.*

INDIGO is a fæcula obtained from the indigo plant, by steeping it in water and allowing its fermentation, the co-

loured *fæcula* falling in a blue flocculent sediment. **WOAD** 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.

ARNATTO is prepared from the pulp of the seed capsules of a tree growing in Guiana.

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.

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.

Guyton supposes the red colour of fruits to be owing to the re-action of their own acid on the colouring matter: and that 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 tungsten, he thinks, is superior to all others, in forming cakes for painters.—*La Decade Philos.* 1798.

XVI. 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.

XVII. WAX of **BEEES** is merely the pollen very little altered.

There appears to exist in the very texture of some parts of various vegetables, a matter analogous to wax.

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 muriatic acid be digested on fixed oil 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.

Ammoniac 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*.

XVIII. HONEY, or the nectar of flowers, is contained chiefly in the pistil or female organs. It appears to be a solution of sugar in the mucilage.

XIX. The LIGNEOUS part of the vegetable, forms the vegetable fibre ; and not only constitutes the basis of the vegetable, but also the husk of seeds, lanuginous coverings, &c. Its character is insolubility in water, and almost every other menstruum ; even the concurrence of air and water alters it very difficultly, and it so absolutely resists every kind of fermentation, as to be almost indestructible, but by insects. It contains the greatest quantity of carbon of any vegetable substance.

XX. 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.

XXI. CHARCOAL is an *oxide of carbon*, obtained from wood by the process termed *charring*, which is 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. *Sulphur*, in substance, is said to be found in the dried scum which rises from the herb *patience*, whilst boiling in water. *Iron*, *manganese*, and even *gold*, have been found in the ashes of

plants. *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 filex; 22 grains of epidermis yielding about 9 grains of filex. From 240 grains of the internal part of the cane, about 2 grains, apparently filex, were obtained. Other canes yielded much less filex; but it was found in the English reeds and grasses, in wheat, oats, barley, &c. Possessing also carbonate of pot-ash with the filex, 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 filex. *Mr. Notcutt* obtained a globule of glass from it by the blow-pipe.—*Phil. Journal.*

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. The *smoke* 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 carbonated 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 where, 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 ammoniac, 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 deri-

ved from the sulphur, which he considers as one of the constituent parts of wood, combining with oxygen, during combustion.

DISTILLATION occasions a separation of the principles of vegetables; all vegetables yielding nearly the same, viz. an oil, an acid water, a concrete salt, carbonic acid, and carbonated hydrogen gases, and charcoal.

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, and becomes heated, and as it is reduced to a magma, a gas is disengaged, which is a mixture of *nitrogen*, *hydrogen*, and *carbonic acid*; *ammoniacal gas* is also emitted. 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 residue of vegetable decomposition may be considered as the great agent and means by which nature repairs the continual losses the mineral kingdom undergoes, diamonds, quartz, crystals, spars, bog-ores, &c. being formed in this matrix.

If this decomposition is 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 may accompany the disengagement of *hydrogen*, and of *phosphorus*.

PEAT, or **QUICK MOSS**, appears to be vegetable matter deprived of its *hydrogen*; during the process a black carbonaceous matter, called *peat earth*, separates, and this combining with oxygen, an acid is generated resembling the fuberic acid. The peat in this state appears to be what Lord Dundonald calls oxygenated peat.—*Jameson's Mineralogy of the Shetland Isles*.

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.

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.

Besides the manures already mentioned, *charcoal* itself, and *soap-boiler's waste* have been successfully used.

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 taking 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

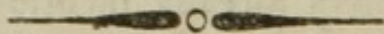
with sulphuric acid, as this, with the calcareous earth, would form gypsum, and with the magnesia, Epsom salt, from both which would carbonic acid gas be developed.

The oxygenated 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 pure earth, either silica, lime, or alumine thus absorbs oxygen. 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.*

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.



OF ANIMAL SUBSTANCES.

THE constituent parts of animal bodies consist of but a small number of radical principles; their various natures chiefly resulting from the different proportion in which these are combined. These radicals appear to be *nitrogen, carbon, hydrogen, phosphorus, oxygen, and lime.*

1. 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, whilst circulating through the veins, differs in intensity of colour and degree of consistence, from 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, which is the character of lymph: it easily putrifies, and then affords much carbonate of ammoniac. Distilled on a water bath, it yields an insipid phlegm, neither acid nor alkaline, but very readily putrifying; the residue being transparent like horn, and no longer soluble in water, but yielding, by farther distillation, an alkaline phlegm, carbonate of ammoniac, and a fetid blackish oil, more or less thick: the remaining coal is very voluminous and difficult to incinerate. The ashes afford muriate and carbonate of soda, and phosphate of lime. Being poured into boiling water, it directly coagulates, a part communicates a milky colour to the water, and possesses, according to *Bucquet*, all the properties of milk.

The **COAGULABLE LYMPH**, besides being the principle 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. 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. It gives oxalic acid when treated with the nitric acid, and appears to contain carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, oxygen, phosphorus, and lime.—*Gren.*

The **COAGULUM** of the blood, likewise contains much lymph, which may be carried off by washing. The colouring part, which contains much iron, may be carried off by the same process. When the coagulum has been thus wash-

ed, a white fibrous substance is left called **FIBRIN**, or the *fibrous part* of the blood. It is void of smell, and being distilled in a water bath it yields an insipid phlegm, easily susceptible of putrefaction. The residuum soon becomes dry, by a gentle heat; and if exposed to a considerable heat, it shrinks up like parchment; if distilled, it affords the same results as the coagulable lymph, but the coal is less voluminous and lighter than that of lymph. The *alkalies* dissolve it, if aided by a boiling heat, and the *acids* combine with it.

The blood contains much iron. The colouring matter of the blood being burned, and the coal lixiviated, an oxide of iron is left, of a fine red colour, said to be obedient to the magnet.

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 oxidation 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.

Gren, in a letter to *Van Mons*, says, that the oxygen does not unite with the arterial blood, and that all the water in respired air is newly formed, and not separated from the blood. The oxygen is absorbed and forms water and carbonic acid, and no part is left to unite with the blood; the change in the venous blood depending therefore on the separation of carbon and hydrogen.—*Ann. de Chim.* XXIII.

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 fibre. 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.

II. 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.

III. 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.

IV. 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*.

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.*

LACTIC ACID, or the ACID of MILK, is thus obtained. Sour milk being evaporated to one eighth, the cheesy matter separated by the filter, 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, baryt, 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.

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. By distilling the nitrous acid from twelve ounces of sugar of milk, *Scheele* obtained five drams of oxalic acid in long crystals, and seven drams and a half of the ACID of SUGAR of MILK, in a white powder.

The SACCHO-LACTIC ACID is combustible, and does not leave any ashes behind; 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 SACCHO-LACTATES with the *alkalies* and *earths*; those with the *earths* being insoluble, and that with *ammoniac* having a sourish taste. On the *metals* it does not act, but with their *salces* it forms salts of very difficult solubility.

The serum of milk may, by several processes, be made to pass into the vinous fermentations. Six spoonsful 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 con-

sistency, 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. *Ammoniac* 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 sebatic acid.

At Constantinople the butter is obtained from the Crimea and the Cuban, they do not sell it, but melt it over a 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*.

V. FAT is a condensed in flammable 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.

SEBATIC ACID, OR **ACID OF FAT**, thus obtained, has been concentrated by various processes by Mr. Crell. Alkalies, it is known, form a soap with animal fat; by heating this soap with a solution of alum, he separated the oil and obtained the **SEBATE OF POT-ASH**, by evaporation. The sulphuric acid, afterwards distilled from this salt, decomposed it, and the sebatic acid was separated.

This acid exists ready formed in the fat, since earths and alkalies disengage it.

Mr. Crell also obtained it by distillation from the butter of cocoa, and from spermaceti.

It seems to approach to the nature of the muriatic acid, in some respects, but not in others. Mr. Crell thinks its place should be between the mineral and vegetable acids. It forms a crystallizable salt with the *oxide of gold*, as it does likewise with that of platina. It unites with *mercury* and with *silver*, yielding the latter to the muriatic acid, but not the former: it takes both from the sulphuric. It also takes *lead* from the nitric and acetous acids, and *tin* from the nitro-muriatic. It attacks neither *bismuth*, *cobalt*, nor *nickel*, nor decomposes the *sulphates of copper*, of *iron*, or of *zinc*, nor the *nitrates of arsenic*, *manganese*, *zinc*, &c. but reduces the *oxide of arsenic*. It unites with the *carbonates of lime* and *alkali*, with effervescence, and forms salts very similar to the acetites of the same basis. Crell formed with it a SEBACIC ETHER.

The sebacic acid treated with the *nitric acid*, may be converted into the oxalic, and acetic acid.

From the foregoing analysis, it appears that fat is a kind of oil or butter, rendered concrete by an acid, being, in fact, an *acid soap*. By still nicer analyses, it has been estimated, that six parts of fat consists of nearly five of carbon, and one of hydrogen, with some sebacic acid: and not yielding so much oxygen and nitrogen as the fleshy parts.

Dr. Gren remarks, that though esteemed as a peculiar acid; yet after being purified and concentrated, it manifests the same properties as the acetic acid.

Dr. Beddoes appears to think that fat is produced in the animal system, in proportion to the diminution of oxygen.

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. The *sulphuric* acid dissolves it. The *nitric* and *muriatic* have no action on it. *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*.

VI. 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. Distilled on a water bath, it yields a phlegm which is neither acid nor alkaline, but soon putrefies; this phlegm, and the bile itself, sometimes, it is said, emits a smell like that of musk. The residue of this distillation is a dry extract, which attracts the humidity of the atmosphere, and is tenacious, pitchy, and soluble in water. By more violent heat it yields ammonia, an empyreumatic animal oil, concrete alkali, and hydrogen.—The coal is not difficult of incineration, and contains iron, carbonate of soda, and phosphate of lime. Bile is decomposed by acids, by which a coagulum is separated, which is soluble in excess of acid, and which forms, with the muriatic acid, a red solution; an oily substance, analogous to resin, also rises, and salts are formed which have soda for their basis. Bile is soluble in alcohol, by which the albuminous principle, which renders bile coagulable, and hastens its putrefaction, is also separated. The bile appears therefore to be a combination of soda with a matter of the nature of resins, and a lymphatic substance, which renders it susceptible of putrefaction and coagulation. 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.

When the bile becomes thick in the gall-bladder, it forms the concretions called *biliary calculi*; concreted, it is supposed, by the absorption of oxygen. These are soluble in general, in ardent spirit; and when the solution is left to itself for a certain time, brilliant and light particles are seen in it, which appear to have an analogy with the salt of benzoin, and with those which are found in the human calculi. There appear to be two sorts of biliary calculi, the one opaque, consisting of the condensed bile, with a substance similar to wax or spermaceti, and formed in concentric strata; the other composed of crystalline plates, similar to mica or talc, formed by the crystals just described.

VII. The **SOFT AND WHITE** parts of animals. The tendons, cartilages, ligaments, and skin of animals, contain a mucous substance, very soluble in water, but not in alcohol; known by the name of **GELATIN** or *animal jelly*. It is obtained merely by boiling any of the foregoing substances in water: it has in general no smell, and is insipid to the taste. By distillation this jelly yields an insipid and in-

odorous phlegm, which easily putrifies; by a stronger heat it swells, becomes black, and emits a strong odour, with white acrid fumes: an alkaline phlegm, an empyreumatic oil, and a little carbonate of ammoniac passes over; and a spongy coal remains, difficult of incineration, and which contains muriate of soda and phosphate of lime.

As it putrifies, a large quantity of nitrogen, hydrogen, and carbonic acid gas, is emitted. 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 egg 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-glue* or *isinglass*, which possesses 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 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 sinew, 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. Gelatin is soluble in acids; thus dry mucilage, dry size, and dry glue, are progressively dissolved in nitric acid, according to the degree of viscosity by which they are distinguished.

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 yielding 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 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 *cartilages* of the articulations are also completely soluble 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 nitro-muriate 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 *stag's horn, bone, ivory, &c.* but when carbonate of lime is the hardening substance, as in shells, madrepores, and millepores, no gelatin can be discovered.

Scales of fish, and the spicula of the shark's skin, appear to be true boney substances, containing much phosphate of lime, with a greater proportion of the membranaceous part than in common bone.

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.—*Philos. Trans.* 1800.

The SKINS of ANIMALS, after washing, fleshing, and cleaning from the hair, are impregnated with the tanning principle, with which they form a compound insoluble in water, and possessing other useful qualities; this substance is termed *leather*.

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 Chi. de Crell.* 1799.

VIII. The MUSCULAR or FLESHY PARTS afford, by distillation, water, alkaline phlegm, empyreumatic oil, nitrogen gas, carbonate of ammoniac, and a coal which yields a small quantity of fixed alkali and febrifuge salt. *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 ammoniac, mixed with the phosphate of lime. The most abundant part of muscles, and that which constitutes their predominating character, is the *fibrous matter*. This is distinguished by its insolubility in water, and by its yielding more nitrogen gas, by the nitric acid, than other animal substances. It also yields the oxalic and the malic acid. It putrifies readily, when moistened; and affords much concrete ammoniac by distillation. Of the other matters contained in flesh, the lymph, and fat part, have been already spoken of; and the albumen has been lately the subject of some ingenious experiments of Mr. Hatchett.

ALBUMEN, that tenacious fluid contained in the blood, and composing the chief part of the white of eggs, which, when dry, is semitransparent, like horn; 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 mem-

brane, or to an elastic, brittle and hard body, like tortoise-shell, manifesting a stratified arrangement. Moreover the chemical properties of these substances resemble those of pure *albumen*, in every respect; 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. Transf.* 1800.

Fourcroy found the muscular parts of bodies, which had been interred in the *Cemeterie des Innocens*, converted into a substance resembling spermaceti.—*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. Transf.* 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. Transf.* 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. Transf.* 1795.

Dr. *Crawford*, by his ingenious experiments, discovered, that *cancerous matter* renders syrup of violets green, and that, with oil of vitriol, effervescence takes place, and the mixture becomes of a dark brown, a gas being disengaged, which has many of the properties of hepatic air, and which the doctor called, *animal hepatic air*. This he found to be mixed, in the matter, with volatile alkali, forming an *hepatized ammonia*, which may occasion the black deposition from the solution of sublimate, when employed to wash venereal ulcers in the throat; on saturnine poultices applied to ill-conditioned ulcers; and on silver probes introduced into sinous ulcers. The animal fibres undergoing, in cancerous and other malignant ulcers, nearly the same changes which are produced by putrefaction, or destructive distillation.

Lean animal substances yield, by heat, alkaline air, carbonic acid, and animal hepatic air, from which sometimes is deposited an oily empyreumatic substance, a diminution of the volume of the gas, at the same time, taking place. It seeming probable, the doctor thought, that these

three aërial fluids combining together, formed the oily empyreumatic substance.

The aërial fluids extricated from the muscular fibres of animals by putrefaction, consist of carbonic acid and animal hepatic gas, mixed with a very small proportion of phlogisticated air. From the green leaves of a cabbage, I obtained, the doctor says, an aërial fluid, which, in most of its properties, resembled animal hepatic air.—*Phil. Transf.* 1790.

Vauquelin found that ammonia was produced by the action of sulphuric acid on animal substances. Mr. *Jameson* found that the muscular fibre of fish, treated with pure alkali, yielded ammonia, especially with long boiling and the addition of tallow; a carbonaceous matter subsiding, not acted upon by alkalies. Thus the muscular fibre appears to be completely decomposed, its hydrogen and nitrogen forming ammonia, and the carbonaceous matter being left behind.—*Jameson's Experiments.*

IX. 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 *feces 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 (*Halle*). The crude urine presents very different phenomena, becoming soon covered with mouldiness, like the expressed juice of vegetables.

By distillation, the urine yields a phlegm which soon putrefies, and which affords ammonia by its putrefaction. At the same time, a substance is precipitated of an earthy appearance, but which is, in reality, a peculiar saline substance. This salt forms the sediment of urine, which separates by the cold, or by evaporation, even in the urine of persons in perfect health.

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 phosphate of soda and of ammoniac, and is used as a flux to the earths.

From accurate experiments it appears that thirty-six ounces of urine yields a residuum from an ounce to an ounce and a half, which consists of the following ingredients in nearly these relative proportions.

	Drams.	Grains.
Muriatic salts	I	0
Phosphoric salts	3	50
Lithic or Uric acid and phosphate of lime, } with excess of acid	0	25
Animal extractive matter	3	40

The salts are the muriates of pot-ash and of soda; the phosphates of soda, of lime, and of ammonia, with the lithic and phosphoric acids.—*Cruikshank*.

Urine, when first voided, contains an excess of phosphoric acid, and thereby holds in solution more or less of phosphate of lime. It soon runs into the putrefactive state, accompanied with the extrication of much ammonia. The ammonia is disengaged from urine, likewise, by the fixed alkalies and lime, which decompose the phosphate of ammoniac; and acids diminish its smell by combining with and fixing the ammonia, which is the principal cause of its odour. The urine of animals which feed on vegetables does not appear to contain phosphoric acid, but an acid of a vegetable nature, which seems to resemble the benzoic.—*Rouelle and Fourcroy*.

Recent human urine contains ten constant ingredients; muriate of soda, muriate of ammoniac, acid phosphate of lime, phosphate of magnesia, phosphate of soda, phosphate of ammonia, uric acid, benzoic acid, jelly, albumine, and the specific matter of urine, called *urée*, to which matter the urine owes its odour, colour, and savour, its alterability into ammonia, carbonic and acetic acids, &c. with the property of becoming by putrescent fermentation, a fluid so different from what it is when first voided, as to contain nine new ingredients. These are, 1. Ammonia in excess. 2. Phosphoric acid saturated by this alkali. 3. Phosphate of magnesia, converted into ammoniaco-magnesian phosphate. 4. Urate of ammonia. 5. Acetous acid, united to ammonia. 6. Benzoic acid with ammonia. 7. Muriate of soda, changed in its crystallization from the cube to the octaëdron. 8. Muriate of ammoniac, changed from the octaëdron to the cube. 9. Carbonate of ammoniac.

The urée is obtained by distillation from a brown liquor formed, by adding at different times, four times their weight of alcohol, on the crystals yielded by inspissated urine.—*Ann. de Chim.* 93.

According to *Fourcroy*, the analysis of urine discovers that it contains the phosphoric, uric, and benzoic acids, in a free state, the phosphates of lime, of soda, of magnesia, and of ammoniac, and a peculiar crystalline matter in the form of an extract, which is the most abundant of all the matters it contains; and which possesses the very singular property of changing to carbonate of ammoniac by the action of fire, and also of changing the cubic crystals of the muriate of soda into octahedra, and the octahedra of the muriate of ammoniac into cubes. This animal matter, named UREE, is an excrementitious substance surcharged with nitrogen, and it is by it that the body rids itself of the superfluous part of this animalizing principle. The urine suffers a spontaneous decomposition, thereby undergoing very considerable alterations, its salts being changed and multiplied, and the acetous and carbonic acids, with ammoniac formed. Besides the ammoniaco-magnesia phosphate, and the phosphate of ammonia, the carbonate of ammoniac is produced in a considerable quantity, and is easily obtained by distillation.—*Tab. Syn. de Fourcroy*, 1800.

PHOSPHORUS is thus obtained from URINE. Ten pounds of urine evaporated to the consistence of honey, the muriate of lead, remaining after the distillation of four pounds of minium, two of muriate of ammoniac, and half a pound of charcoal, are to be mixed together, and dried in an iron pot, until reduced to a black powder, which is to be deprived of its volatile alkali, fetid oil, and muriate of ammoniac, by distillation; the residue containing the phosphorus, which it will yield, by distillation in a good earthen retort. In this process the muriate of lead is employed, to decompose the phosphate of soda, which is not decomposable by charcoal, and to form the phosphate of lead, which affords the phosphorus.—*Margraaf*.

Phosphorus is of a flesh colour, of the consistence of wax, and at first transparent, but becoming white, and, in the sun, yellow. In the air it emits a white fume, and is luminous in the dark. It is soluble in oils, more especially in volatile oils, which then become luminous: the oil of cloves is used for this purpose, and every time the bottle is opened a phosphoric flash is seen. A phosphoric gas may be extracted from phosphorus, which takes fire by the mere contact of air. Thus the nitric acid being digested on phosphorus, a

gas escapes, which takes fire in the receiver, affording the appearance of flashes of lightning striking through the cavity of the vessels.

A very thin slice of phosphorus being placed on an anvil with a gros of the crystals of nitrate of silver, and smartly struck with a hammer, a most terrible detonation was produced, the edge of the hammer was turned up, and the anvil shaken and marked with streaks of silver. The lapis infernalis and all the metallic nitrates being thus treated, violent detonations were produced. The experiment also succeeded with the common nitrate of pot-ash, but the hammer was required to be heated.—*Brugnatelli*.

Van Mons repeated these experiments with success, and found the oxides of gold, silver, and mercury, by fire, to occupy the first rank among fulminating substances. He also discovered that two grains and a half of oxygenated muriate of ammoniac, with four grains of phosphorus, being gently crushed on the anvil, a most terrible detonation ensued, which alarmed the house; and the concussion was so violent as to force the hammer out of his hand.—*Ann. de Chim.* 1797.

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.

Phosphorus is not luminous in pure nitrogen gas, as was maintained by *Prof. Goëttling*; the presence of oxygen appearing to be necessary to produce this effect. *Jacques, Helldibrand, Van Mons*.

At about 100° of Fahrenheit, it takes fire with decrepitation, burns with a very bright flame, and emits a very abundant white fume, which is luminous in the dark. The residue of the combustion is a red caustic substance, which, attracting the humidity of the air, is dissolved into a liquor.

Brugnatelli remarks, that phosphorus dissolves without light in oxygen gas, which becomes luminous by adding any mephitic gas. It dissolves also in hydrogen, and is then separated by oxygen. It separates the oxygen from the oxy-muriatic acid, and becomes itself an acid, but does not dissolve in pure carbonic acid. When the temperature is a little raised, and some pure air is added, it shines better than in atmospheric air. Water suspends little atoms of phosphorus only. Atmospheric air dissolves it at the moment of burning, and becomes phosphorescent.—*Ann. de Chim.* XXIII.

Gren says, that phosphorus not shining in pure oxygen air, but requiring a little portion of nitrogen, is owing to the same reason that other substances, such as sulphur, require the medium of some other substance, to enable them to attract oxygen.

Girtanner conjectures phosphorus to be hydrogen in its purest state.

The PHOSPHORIC ACID is formed by the combination of oxygen with the phosphorus during combustion. This acid thus obtained is, however, imperfect, not being saturated with oxygen; but the phosphorus is more completely decomposed by the slower combustion, or combination with oxygen, which takes place at the common temperature of the atmosphere; fluid acid of phosphorus is thus obtained, still however retaining a small quantity of undecomposed phosphorus, of which it may be cleared by digesting alcohol upon it.

By digesting *nitric acid* upon phosphorus, nitrous gas is separated and the oxygen unites to the phosphorus, forming *phosphoric acid*. If the acid be highly concentrated, the phosphorus burns at the surface. The water in which phosphorus is kept, contracts acidity in time, the water yielding its oxygen to the phosphorus. This acid, when pure, is clear, inodorous, and not corrosive; it may be concentrated to dryness, when its specific gravity, compared with water, is as 3. 1. It is very fixed. If after concentration it is put in a crucible, on hot coals, it boils, a green flame appears, and the mass is converted into a white transparent substance soluble in water.

The PHOSPHATE of POT-ASH forms a very soluble salt, in tetrahedral crystals, terminating in tetrahedral pyramids; is acid, swells on hot coals, is difficult of fusion, and decomposable by lime water.

PHOSPHATE of SODA forms in rhomboidal crystals which effloresce in the air. 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.

PHOSPHATE of AMMONIA forms in tetrahedral crystals, readily soluble in water. It is also fusible, when it parts with its ammoniac.

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

PHOSPHATE of BARYT is tasteless and insoluble, and convertible by fire into a glass.

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

PHOSPHATE of LIME is white, friable, insipid, opaque, and insoluble in water.

Phosphate of lime, *apatite* or *phosphorite*, has been found in an amorphous state in Hungary, and forming entire mountains in Spain. It is also found in truncated hexahedral, 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.

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 glass.

X. The CALCULUS of the BLADDER is chiefly formed of a peculiar concrete acid, which is slightly soluble in boiling water, and is deposited in crystals, as the solution cools.

The URIC ACID, or *acid of calculi*, formerly called the *lithic acid*, is concrete, sparingly soluble in water, and is decomposed, and partly sublimed by distillation: it decomposes the *nitric acid*, unites with *earths, alkalies and metallic oxides*, and yields its bases to the weakest *vegetable acids*, not excepting the *carbonic*.

Mr. *Lane* ascertained by careful experiments that there exists a great difference in different calculi, some being dissolved in the *lixivium saponarium*, and others being scarcely altered; some retaining their form, whilst others were nearly evaporated by a red heat. Different parts of the same calculus varying considerably in these respects.—*Phil. Transf.* 1791.

It has been ascertained that the calculus, 1st. Is dissolved by the *sulphuric acid*, with heat. 2. Is not acted on by the *muriatic acid*. 3. Is dissolved by the *nitric acid*, with effervescence and the disengagement of the nitrous gas and carbonic acid: the solution is red, contains a disengaged acid, tinges the skin of a red colour, and is not precipitated by the *muriate of barytes*, nor rendered turbid by the *oxalic acid*. 4. Is not acted on by the *carbonate of pot-ash*, but is dissolved by the *caustic alkali*, as well as the *volatile alkali*. 5. Is dissolved in *lime-water* in the quantity of 5,37 in 1000 grains, and may be precipitated by acids. 6. Contains a small quantity of *ammoniac*. 7. The coally residuum of

combustion indicates an animal substance of the nature of jelly.—*Scheele*.

This illustrious chemist has also proved that all urine, even that of infants, holds a small quantity of the matter of calculus in solution, and that the brick coloured deposition from the urine in fevers, is of the nature of calculi, but he did not find that it contained a particle of calcareous earth. By pouring the sulphuric acid into the nitrous solution of the calculus, a true sulphate of lime was obtained; although the lime did not exceed the 200th part of the entire weight.

This chemist also detected a white spongy substance, not soluble in water, spirit of wine, acids, or alkalies, nor in the nitric acid, even in the state of ashes; but the quantity was too small to be thoroughly examined.

The matter obtained from calculi, by solution in lye of caustic fixed alkali, and precipitation by acids, has been supposed to be an acid similar to that obtained by sublimation, and which has been termed LITHIC ACID. Dr. *Pearson* obtained this precipitate, in the proportion of at least one half of the matter of the calculi; and asserts that this precipitate does not belong to the genus of acids; that it is not the same thing as the *sublimate of Scheele*, nor is to be referred to the animal mucilages; but that it belongs to the genus of *animal oxides*. Its peculiar and specific distinguishing properties being imputrescibility, facility of crystallization; insolubility in cold water, and that most remarkable property of all others, of producing a *pink or red matter*, on evaporation of its solution in nitric acid. Of 300 grains of calculus 175 were this peculiar *animal oxide*, 96 were *phosphate of lime*, 29 were *ammoniac* and probably united with it, *phosphoric acid*, *water*, and *common mucilage of urine*.

The term *lithic*, being, the doctor says, a gross solecism, he proposes, as more appropriate, the term OURIC or URIC. This oxide he would therefore term the URIC OXIDE.

From 100 grains of an urinary concretion he obtained only 18 grains of the acid sublimate of *Scheele*, and doubts whether the lithic acid of *Scheele* exists as a constituent of urinary concretions, or is compounded, in consequence of a new arrangement of the elementary matters of the concretion, by the agency of fire. The doctor did not find the uric oxide in the urinary concretions of any phytivorous animal.—*Phil. Trans.* 1797.

Fourcroy asserts that *Scheele* did not give the name of lithic acid to the sublimate of the calculus, as *Dr. Pearson* asserts, and that the peculiar animal oxide of *Dr. Pearson* is really *Scheele's* acid (the lithic acid). *Fourcroy* approves of the adoption of the name *uric acid*, especially as *Dr. Pearson* has found the same acid in arthritic concretions, and it has not yet been found, but in man. *Ann. de Chim.* XXVII.

Although the causes of disease, these concretions are the natural products of urine, which generally contains almost all the materials of which they are composed. These may be formed by

1. *Uric acid*, which crystallizes in striated layers, is insoluble in cold water, and but slightly soluble in hot, it weakly reddens turnsole, is insipid, inodorous, soluble in caustic alkali; when pure, of a fawn colour, and becoming of a pink red by the addition of nitric acid.

2. *Phosphate of lime*, this will be found to concrete in earthy layers resembling chalk, to be soluble, without effervescence, in nitric acid; precipitable by all the alkalies; by the sulphuric acid in a sulphate of lime, and by the oxalic acid is an oxalate of lime.

3. *Ammoniaco-magnesian phosphate*, forms in semitransparent, spathose, hard layers, susceptible of polish, or in crystals, very soluble in all the acids, yielding an ammoniacal vapour by the addition of fixed alkalies, which deprive it of the phosphoric acids. It is often mixed with the phosphate of lime, and frequently covers a kernel of uric acid or oxalate of lime.

4. *Oxalate of lime* forms the harder, mulberry form, calculi, which are very dense and capable of receiving a fine polish, are externally of a sooty brown colour, internally of a dirty grey, having numerous tubercles on their surface, are insoluble in water, very difficultly soluble in the nitric acid, and not affected by alkalies, leaving, after the action of the fire, which burns the animal matter, a residue of quick-lime.

Besides these four substances, which are united to a gelatinous or albuminous animal matter, *silica* is sometimes, but very rarely, found in the human urinary calculi. —

Tabl. Synopt. de Fourcroy. 1800.

Dr. Pearson found the uric acid in arthritic concretions: *Mr. Tennant* discovered in them a combination 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 matter.

XI. The PRUSSIC ACID, or *colouring matter of prussian blue*, is produced by exposing the horns, hoofs, or dried blood of animals, with an equal quantity of fixed alkali, to a red heat. The alkali united with the acid thus formed, yields a salt in tetrahedral plates, or prisms, with tetrahedral summits, which is called PRUSSIATE of POT-ASH, or of SODA, according to which alkali has been employed. These prussiates of alkali precipitate all *metals* from their solution; the alkali uniting with the acid which held the metal in solution, whilst the prussic acid unites with the metallic oxide, and communicates to it a peculiar colour. Thus *gold* is precipitated of a *yellow*; *lead* of a *white*; *copper* of a *brownish red*; and *iron* of a *dark blue*, being a PRUSSIATE of IRON, or the substance called *prussian-blue*.

The prussic acid may be again separated from prussiate of iron, by digestion with pure alkali, the prussiate of alkali, being again formed, and the iron left in a brown oxide. Thus may a fully saturated prussiate of pot ash be obtained; but still this is not a pure prussiate, but contains some iron or rather prussian blue, which it deposits on the addition of an acid, and therefore it is not an accurate test of the quantity of iron contained in any solution.

In these prussiates, in consequence of the volatility of the acid, a part of the alkali exists in a crude state, unneutralized; hence the precipitate of iron has a greenish cast from the yellow precipitate thrown down by this unsaturated alkali. This last precipitate is soluble by an acid and the other is not; therefore the addition of an acid to it gives it its full blue colour, and on the same principle the prussiate may be previously saturated with dilute sulphuric acid.

Sulphate of alumine is profitably employed in the precipitation of prussian blue, its earth increasing the quantity: it may be deprived of this by digesting it with muriatic acid.

The prussic acid is obtained in a pure state, by supersaturating the prussiate of alkali with sulphuric acid, and by subsequent distillation. It may also be obtained by distillation of blood with nitric acid. It has an acid taste and suffocating smell; but except its capacity of combining with alkalies and metals, it manifests no conspicuous acid properties.

By digestion of prussiate of iron with ammonia, the PRUSSIATE of AMMONIA is obtained, and, in the same manner, is PRUSSIATE of LIME obtained with lime water. This acid is found also in the mineral kingdom, combined with

iron; it also exists in vegetables. The prussic colouring principle has been obtained by passing ammoniacal gas through charcoal.—*Clouet.*

Proust describes prussian blue to be an oxide, whose basis contains 48-100 of oxygen. *Berthollet* believes its basis to be composed of hydrogen, nitrogen, and carbon; but its constituent parts are not yet known.

XII. 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.*

XIII. 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 Dipple*; 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 coally 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.

XIV. 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 mild ammoniac, 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 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.—*Schcele.*

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 farther 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.

The phosphorus may be purified, by being immersed in a vessel of boiling water; as 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.*

XV. 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

* *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.

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 appearing 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.

XVI. SHELLS, according to the same celebrated chemist, as to the substance of which they are composed, are *porcellaneous*, with an enamelled surface, and when broken, often of 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 of 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.

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.

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. Hatchet, 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 egg-shells 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.

XVII. CARTILAGE, and such **HORNS** as are distinctly separate from bone, as are those of the *ox, the ram, chamois, also tortoise-shell*, contain phosphate of lime, but in two small quantities to be considered as one of their constituent principles. 500 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.

XVIII. MADREPORE 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 cortical 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. *Alcyonium 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, — *Philos. Transf.* 1800.

XIX. SYNOVIA appears to contain lymph, 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.

XX. TEARS are secreted by the lachrymal glands, and are chiefly composed of a peculiar kind of mucilage, common salt, phosphate of lime, phosphate of soda, and soda, in a free and apparently caustic state. — *Jacquin.*

XXI. **MUCUS** of the Schneiderian membrane. At its first secretion is analogous to the tears, but changes by remaining in the nose, probably from the oxygen it imbibes from the inspired air, and the carbonic acid of the expired air, saturating the free soda.

XXII. **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 boney nature.—*Fourcroy*.

XXIII. **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 mucus will not.

XXIV. **SEMEN**, its constituent parts appear to be water, animal mucilage, phosphate and muriate of soda, caustic soda, and phosphate of lime: the latter crystallizes during evaporation in the air, and the soda attracting carbonic acid will be 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.

XXV. **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.

XXV^e. **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 foetuses 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 tanmin, ammoniac, prussic acid, and 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 *saccholaetic* it yields ammoniac 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.

XXVII. The ZOONIC ACID is a new acid discovered by *Berthollet*. The fluid obtained by distillation from animal substances, has been hitherto thought to contain no other principle than carbonate of ammoniac and an oil. *Berthollet* has ascertained that it contains an acid, which he names zoonic acid. He has obtained it from bones, woollen rags, &c. also from the gluten of wheat, and the yeast of beer. To obtain it, after separating the oil from the liquor yielded by the destructive distillation, he adds lime to this liquor, then separates the carbonate of ammoniac by a boiling heat, and adds more lime; thus obtaining the ZOONATE of LIME. By distilling a mixture of phosphoric acid with the zoonate of lime, he obtains the pure zoonic acid.

The zoonic acid smells like meat which has been roasted; a process, in which indeed it is formed. It is of an austere taste, reddens turnsole, and effervesces with alkaline carbonates. It has a stronger attraction to the oxides of mercury and lead, respectively, than the acetic and nitric acids. The ZOONATE of POT-ASH calcined does not form a prussiate of iron, with a solution of that metal.—*Ann. de Chim.* XXVI.

Tromsdorff thinks this acid of *Berthollet*, which he imagined to partake of both an animal and vegetable nature, is analogous to the sebatic acid.

XXVIII. 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. This acid may be obtained by simple distillation, only mixed with a small quantity of empyreumatic oil, from

which it may be separated by a funnel. Its specific gravity being to that of water, as 1,0075 to 1,0000; when exceedingly pure, it is as 1,0453 to 1. It may also be obtained by lixivation, washing the ants first in cold, and then in boiling water, until all the acid is procured. It may likewise be obtained in a FORMIATE of POT-ASH, or of SODA, by placing linen cloths impregnated with an alkali in an ant-hill. It affects the nose and eyes in a peculiar, but not disagreeable manner. When pure, its taste is burning and penetrating; but agreeable, when diluted with water. It possesses all the characters of acids. When boiled with *sulphuric acid* the mixture blackens, white penetrating vapours arise, and a gas is disengaged, which unites difficultly with distilled water, or lime water; the formic acid is hereby decomposed, for it is obtained in less quantity. The *nitric acid* distilled from it destroys it completely; a gas rising which renders lime-water turbid, and is difficultly and sparingly soluble in water. The *muriatic* only mixes with it, but the *oxy-muriatic acid* decomposes it. It unites perfectly with *spirit of wine*, but difficultly, even with heat, with the *fixed* or *volatile oils*. The order of its affinities seems to be barytes, pot-ash, soda, lime, magnesia, ammoniac, zinc, manganese, iron, lead, tin, cobalt, copper, nickel, bismuth, silver, alumine, essential oils, water. (*Ardvidson 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 *silkworm*. The acid is extracted by digesting the subject of experiment in alcohol, which dissolves the acid, and precipitates the foreign animal matters.

XXIX. 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 is of the same nature as the serum of blood: heat coagulates it, so do acids and alcohol. By distillation it affords a phlegm, which easily putrifies, then carbonate of ammoniac and empyreumatic oil came over, a coal remaining in the retort which yields soda and phosphate of lime. Sulphur has also been said to have been obtained from it by sublimation (*Deyeur*.) 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.

XXX. The HAIR, WOOL, and BRISTLES of animals differ both from the bones and white animal soft parts, containing less jelly, fat, and lymph.

XXXI. FEATHERS appear to differ chiefly, chemically considered, from the foregoing substances in containing a still smaller proportion of fat and jelly. The quills, however, approach more to the nature of horn.

XXXII. SILK, and the web of other caterpillars, much resemble wool in their chemical properties. *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. He also found, in animal substances, another peculiar kind of matter, colourless, soluble in concentrated nitric acid and precipitable by water.
—*Phil. Journal, Sept. 1799.*

XXXIII. CONCRETIONS, such as are found in the pineal gland, are in general boney, with an excess 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 ammoniaco-magnesian phosphate, and sometimes of the phosphate of lime.

XXXIV. 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 either 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.

XXXV. MILLEPEDES, *afelli, 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.

XXXVI. COCHINEAL. These insects are more especially used in dying; 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 colour-

ing matter, and of alumine from a decoction of cochineal in sulphate of alumine.

XXXVII. AMBERGRIS, is a light ash-coloured body, chiefly found on the sea-shores in the East-Indies. It yields a grateful smell, softens with heat, and affords, by distillation, an acid and an oil, very similar to that of amber.

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. Transf.* 1791.

XXXVIII. 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 Lacsha, 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 Lacsha, 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 cinnera*, or on a new species called by the Gentoos *conda corinda*.—*Dr. W. Roxburgh, Phil. Transf.* 1790.

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 phosphorated and carbonated 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 produce 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.

A great part of the ... and the remaining carbon
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 brown, soft earthy matter. This is the ...
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TABLE OF PRECIPITATIONS,
APPARENTLY BY SINGLE ELECTIVE ATTRACTIONS,
FROM BERGMAN;

WITH ALTERATIONS AND ADDITIONS,

By GEORGE PEARSON, M. D. F. R. S.

1.	Nitrous Gas	Q. Silver, at	Nickel?	Copper
CALORIC.	Muria. Acid	above 1000°	Bismuth	Tin
<i>In Water.</i>	Nitrous A.	Manganese	Antimony	Lead
Oxygen	Sulphuric A.	Ox-white	Q. Silver	Silver
Æther	Manganese	3.	Arsenic	Gold?
Alcohol	Ox-white	SULPHUR.	Uranite?	Antimony
Ammonia	Hydrogen	<i>In Water.</i>	Melybdena	Cobalt
Water		Oxygen	Sylvanite	Nickel
Vol. Oils		Molybd. Ox.	4.	Bismuth
Glass	Vol. Oils	and Acid	SAL. SUL-	Q. Silver?
Q. Silver	Alcohol	Ox. of Lead	PHURETS.	Arsenic?
	Water	Tin	<i>In Water.</i>	Carbon
	<i>In Fire.</i>	Silver	Oxygen	
Bases of all	Carbon	Q. Silv.	Ox. of Gold	5.
Gases.	Zinc	Arsenic	Silver	SILICA.
	Iron	Antim.	Q. Silv.	<i>In Water.</i>
2.	Hydrogen	Iron	Arsenic	Fluor A.
OXYGEN.	Metal-Mang	Fixed Alkal.	Antimony	Fixed Alkali
<i>In Water.</i>	Cobalt	Barytes	Bismuth	Barytes?
Basis of Mu-	Nickel	Strontia	Copper	Strontia?
riatic, and	Lead	Lime	Tin	
various	Tin	Magnesia	Lead	6.
other	Phosphorus	Phosphorus	Ox. of Nikel	ALUMINE
Acids.	Copper	Fat Oil	Cobalt	<i>In Water.</i>
Carbon	Bismuth	Vol. Alkali.	Mangan.	Sulphuric
Phosphorus	Antimony	Æther	Iron	Nitric
Sulphur	Q. Silver at	Hydrog. G.?	Other Oxides	Muriatic
Light.	600°	<i>In Fire.</i>	Carbon	Fluoric
Zinc	Arsenic	Fixed Alkal.	Water	Arsenic
Copper	Sugar	Oxygen	Alcohol	Oxalic
Lead	Sulphur	Iron	Æther?	Suberic
Iron	Caloric	Copper	<i>In Fire.</i>	Tartarous
Silver	Gold	Tin	Manganese	Phosphoric
Platina	Silver	Lead	Iron	Acetous and
Q. Silver	Platina	Silver		other Acids.
Gold.		Cobalt?		

Alkalies	Prussic Acids	Fat Oil	Suberic	Formic
Barytes?	Fix. Alkali?	Sulphur	Sebacic	Lactic
Strontia?	Lime?	<i>In Fire.</i>	Formic	Benzoic
<i>In Fire.</i>	Water	Not ascertain.	Lactic	Aceto. Acids
Phosphoric	Fat Oil		Benzoic	Fixed Alkali
Boracic	Sulphur	9.	Aceto. Acids	Sulphur
Arsenic	<i>In Fire.</i>	LIME.	Fixed Alkali	Ox. of Lead
Sulphuric		<i>In Water.</i>	Sulphur	11. 12. 13*
Nitric	Phosphoric	Oxalic	Ox. of Lead	VEG. Fos.
Muriatic	Boracic	Sulphuric		AND VOL-
Fluoric	Arsenic	Tartaric		ALKALIES.
Sebacic	Sulphuric		10.	<i>In Water.</i>
Succinic	Succinic	Succinic	MAGNESIA	Sulphuric
Formic	Fluoric	Phosphoric	<i>In Water.</i>	Nitric
Lactic	Nitric	Lacteo-fach.	Oxalic	Sebacic
Benzoic	Muriatic	Nitric	Phosphoric	Muriatic
Aceto. Acids	Sebacic	Muriatic	Sulphuric	Suberic
Fixed Alkali	Formic	Suberic	Fluoric	Fluoric
Sulphur	Lactic	Sebacic	Sebacic	Phosphoric
Ox. of Lead	Benzoic		Arsenic	Oxalic
7.	Aceto. Acids	Fluoric	Lacteo-fac-	Tartaric
BARYTES.	Fixed Alkali	Arsenic	charine	Arsenic
<i>In Water.</i>	Sulphur	Formic	Succinic	Succinic
Sulphuric	Ox. of Lead	Lactic	Nitrous	Citric
Oxalic	8.	Citric	Suberic	Formic
Succinic	STRONTIA.	Benzoic	Tartaric	Lactic
Fluoric	<i>In Water.</i>	Acetous	Citric?	Benzoic
Phosphoric	Sulphuric	Boracic	Formic	Acetous and
Lacteo-Sac.	Oxalic	Sulphureous	Lactic	Lacteo-fac-
Molybdic	Tartarous	Nitrous	Benzoic	char. Acids
Mitric	Fluor	Carbonic	Acetous	Boracic
Muriatic	Nitric	Prussic Acid	Boracic	Sulphurous
Suberic	Muriatic	Barytes?	Sulphureous	Nitro. Acids
Sebacic	Succinic	Water	Carbonic	Carbonic A.
Citric	Phosphoric	Fat Oil	Prussic Acids	Prussic A.
Tartarous	Acetous	Sulphur	Sulphur	Water
Arsenic Aci.	Arsenic	Phosphorus	<i>In Fire.</i>	Fat Oil
Formic	Boracic	<i>In Fire.</i>	Phosphoric	Sulphur
Lactic	Carbonic	Phosphoric	Boracic	Met. Oxides
Benzoic	Other Acids?	Boracic	Arsenic	<i>In Fire.</i>
Acetous	Fix. Alkalies	Arsenic	Sulphuric	Phosphoric
Boracic	Water	Sulphuric	Succinic	Boracic
Sulphureous		Succinic	Fluoric	Arsenic
Nitrous		Fluoric	Nitric	Sulphuric
Carbonic		Nitric	Muriatic	
		Muriatic	Sebacic	

Alumine	Water	30. 31. 32.	Water	Strontia
Met. Oxides	Alcohol	ACETOUS,	Alcohol	Magnesia
	<i>In Fire.</i>	LACTIC,	<i>In Fire.</i>	Pot-Ash
	Barytes	and FORMIC	Lime	Soda
Water	Strontia	ACIDS.	Barytes	Ammonia
Alcohol	Lime	<i>In Water.</i>	Strontia	Alumine
27.	Magnesia	Barytes	Magnesia	Met. Oxides
BENZOIC	Pot-Ash	Pot-Ash	Pot-Ash	Water
ACID.	Soda	Soda	Soda	Alcohol
<i>In Water.</i>	Met. Oxides	Strontia	Met. Oxides	<i>In Fire.</i>
W. Oxide of	Ammonia	Ammonia	Ammonia	Lime
Arsenic	Alumine	Lime	Alumine	Barytes
Pot-ash	29.	Magnesia	35.	Strontia
Soda	LACTEO	Alumine	PRUSSIC	Magnesia
Ammonia	SACCHA-	Met. Oxides	ACID.	Pot-Ash
Barytes	RINE ACID.	Water	<i>In Water.</i>	Soda
Lime	<i>In Water.</i>	Alcohol	Alkalies	Met. Oxides
Magnesia	Lime	<i>In Fire.</i>	Barytes	Ammonia
Alumine	Barytes	Barytes	Strontia	Alumine
<i>Tromsdorf</i>	Magnesia	Strontia	Lime	
<i>In Fire.</i>	Pot-Ash	Pot-Ash	Henry	38.
Lime	Soda	Soda	36.	CHROMIC
Barytes	Ammonia	Lime	CARBONIC	ACID.
Strontia	Alumine	Magnesia	<i>In Water.</i>	<i>In Water.</i>
Magnesia	Met. Oxides	Met. Oxides	Barytes	Fixed Alkali
Pot-Ash	Met. Oxides	Ammonia	Strontia	Ox. of Lead
Soda	Water	Alumine	Lime	do. of Copper
Met. Oxides	Alcohol	33. 34.	Fix. Alkalies	39.
Ammonia	<i>In Fire.</i>	SEBACIC	Magnesia	MOLYBDE-
Alumine	Lime	AND	Ammonia	NIC ACID.
28.	Barytes	PHOSPHORIC	Alumine	Sulphur
SUCCINIC	Strontia	ACIDS.	Met. Oxides	Fix. Alkalies
ACID.	Magnesia	<i>In Water.</i>	Water	Abf. Earths
Barytes	Pot-Ash	Lime	Alcohol	Met. Oxides
Lime	Soda	Barytes	37.	40.
Magnesia	Met. Oxides	Strontia	ARSENIC	TUNGSTE-
Pot-Ash	Ammonia	Magnesia	ACID.	NIC ACID.
Soda	Alumine	Pot-Ash	<i>In Water.</i>	Lime
Ammonia		Soda	Lime	Barytes
Alumine		Ammonia	Barytes	Magnesia
Met. Oxides		Alumine		Alkalies
		Met. Oxides		Alumine
				<i>Elluyarts</i>

41.	Muri. Acids	45.	Acetous	Arsenic
OXIDE OF	Prussic A.	OXIDE OF	Arsenic	Boracic
ARSENIC.	Oxy-Muria.	MANGA-	Lactic Acids	Prussic
<i>In Water.</i>		NESE		
Muria. Acid	Nitro-Muri.	<i>In Water.</i>	Arsenic	Carbonic
Oxalic		Oxalic	Boracic	Vol. Alkali
Sulphuric	TITANITE	Tartaric	Prussic	
Nitric	<i>In Fire.</i>	Citric	Carbonic	COBALT.
Sebacic		Fluoric	Vol. Alkali	<i>In Fire.</i>
Tartaric	43.	Phosphoric		Iron
Phosphoric	OXIDE OF	Acids	NICKEL.	Nickel
Fluoric	URANITE.	Nitrous	<i>In Fire.</i>	Arsenic
Lacteo-fac-	Sulphuric	Sulphuric	Iron	Copper
charine	Nitro-Muri.	Muriatic	Cobalt	Gold
Succinic	Muriatic	Sebacic	Arsenic	Platina
Citric	Nitric	Arsenic	Copper	Tin
Formic	Phosphoric	Acetous	Gold	Antimony
Arsenic	Acetous	Other Acids	Tin	Zinc
Lactic	Gallic	MANGA-	Antimony	Sulphuret of
Acetous	Prussic	NESE.	Platina	Alkali
Prussic Acids	Carbo. Acids	<i>In Fire.</i>	Bismuth	Sulphur
Ammonia	Sulphur	Copper	Lead	
Fat Oil	Water	Iron	Silver	48.
Water		Gold	Zinc	OXIDE OF
ARSENIC.	URANITE.	Silver	Sulphuret of	BISMUTH.
<i>In Fire.</i>	<i>In Fire.</i>	Tin	Alkali	Oxalic A.
Nickel		Sulphuret of	Sulphur	Arsenic
Cobalt	44.	Alkali		Tartaric
Copper	OXIDE OF		47.	Phosphoric
Iron	SYLVANITE		OXIDE OF	Sulphuric
Silver	<i>In Water.</i>	46.	COBALT.	Sebacic
Tin	Nitrous	OXIDE OF	<i>In Water.</i>	Muriatic
Lead	Nitro-Muri.	NICKEL.		Nitric
Gold	Sulphu. Acid	<i>In Water.</i>	Oxalic Acid	Fluoric
Platina	Sulphur	Oxalic Acid	Muriatic A.	Lacteo-fac-
Zinc	Alkalies	Muriatic	Sulphuric A.	charine
Antimony	Q. Silver	Sulphuric	Tartarous	Succinic
Sulphuret of	Water	Tartarous	Nitric	Citric
Alkali		Nitric	Sebacic	Formic
Sulphur	SYLVANITE	Sebacic	Phosphoric	Acetous
42.	<i>In Fire.</i>	Phosphoric	Fluoric	Prussic
OXIDE OF	Q. Silver	Fluoric	Lacteo-fac-	Carbonic
TITANITE	Sulphur	Lacteo-fac-	charine	Vol. Alkali
<i>In Water.</i>		charine		
Sulphuric		Succinic	BISMUTH.	
Nitrous and		Citric	<i>In Fire.</i>	Lead
		Formic		Silver
		Lactic		Gold
		Acetous		

54. OXIDE OF COPPER. <i>In Water.</i>	55. OXIDE OF Q. SILVER. <i>In Water.</i>	Sebacic	Arfenic	Vol. Alkalies
Pyromuc.	Sebacic	Oxalic	Fluor	GOLD.
Oxalic	Muriatic	Sulphuric	Tartaric	<i>In Fire.</i>
Tartaric	Oxalic	Lacteo-fac- charine	Phosphoric	Q. Silver
Muriatic	Succinic	Phosphoric	Formic	Copper
Sulphuric	Phosphoric	Nitric	Acetous	Silver
Sach. Lactic	Arfenic	Arfenic	Lactic	Lead
Nitric	Sulphuric	Fluoric	Succi. Acids	Bismuth
Sebacic	Lacteo fac- charine	Tartaric	PLATINA.	Tin
Arfenic	Tartar	Citric	<i>In Fire.</i>	Antimony
Phosphoric	Citric	Formic	Arfenic	Iron
Succinic	Nitric	Acetous	Gold	Platina
Fluoric	Fluor	Lactic	Copper	Zinc
Citric	Acetous	Succinic	Tin	Nickel
Formic	Boracic	Prussic	Bismuth	Arfenic
Acetous	Prussic	Carbo. Acids	Zinc	Cobalt
Lactic	Carbo. Acids	Vol. Alkali	Antimony	Manganese
Boracic		SILVER.	Nickel	Sulphuret of Alkali
Prussic		<i>In Fire.</i>	Cobalt	59. ALCOHOL.
Carbo. Acids	Q. SILVER.	Lead	Manganese	Water
Fixed Alkali	<i>In Fire.</i>	Copper	Iron	Æther
Vol. Alkali	Gold	Q. Silver	Lead	Volatile Oils
Double Salts	Silver	Bismuth	Silver	Vol. Alkali
Fat Oil	Platina	Tin	Q. Silver	Fixed Alkali
COPPER.	Lead	Gold	Sulphuret of Alkali	Sulphuret of Alkali
<i>In Fire.</i>	Tin	Antimony	58. OXIDE OF GOLD.	Sulphur
Gold	Zinc	Iron	<i>In Water.</i>	Muriates
Silver	Bismuth	Manganese	Æther	Phosphoric A
Arfenic	Copper	Zinc	Muriatic	60. ÆTHER.
Iron	Antimony	Arfenic	Nitro-Muri.	Alcohol
Manganese	Arfenic	Nickel	Nitric	Volatile Oils
Zinc	Iron	Platina	Sulphuric	Water
Antimony	Sulphuret of	Sulphuret of Alkali	Arfenic	Sulphur
Platina	Alkali	57. OXIDE OF PLATINA.	Fluoric	Phosphorus
Tin	Sulphur	<i>In Water.</i>	Tartaric	Caoutchouc
Lead	56. OXIDE OF SILVER.	Æther	Phosphoric	
Nickel	<i>In Water.</i>	Muriatic	Sebacic	
Bismuth	Muriatic	Nitric	Prussic Acids	
Cobalt	Sulphuric	Sulphuric	Fix. Alkalies	
Q. Silver				
Alkaline Sulphuret				
Sulphur				

61.	Fixed Oil	62.	Met. Oxides	Sulphur
VOLATILE	Fixed Alkali	FIXED OIL.	Alumine	Phosphorus.
OIL.			Volatile Oil	
Æther	Sulphur	Barytes	Fixed Alkali	
Alcohol	Phosphorus	Strontia	Vola. Alkali	
		Lime		

A judicious critique has lately appeared in a periodical publication on the foregoing table. The differences between Dr. Pearson and the Reviewer, proceed partly from discoveries made since the publication of the table, partly from the affinities being assumed from the experiments of different chemists, and partly from difference of judgment in matters of opinion. Those alterations which subsequent discoveries seem to have rendered necessary, the liberty has been taken of introducing in the table. The other remarks are here subjoined, as an interesting and useful adjunct to the table.

REMARKS ON

DR. PEARSON'S TABLE OF AFFINITIES.

Column 1. Caloric.—Why is ammonia put after alcohol? Its gaseous state is permanent, at a much lower temperature than alcohol vapour.—Why does glass precede mercury? surely it does not boil so soon. This column appears to us improper, and calculated to mislead. The only possible method of judging of the affinities of different bodies for caloric, is to ascertain the temperature at which they change their state, and to rank them inversely at that temperature. According to that rule, alcohol ought to follow the three gases, oxygen, hydrogen, and azot.

Column 2. Oxygen.—Iron decomposes water, even at the temperature of the atmosphere, and ought therefore to precede hydrogen; but lead, and most other metals do not, hydrogen is, therefore, by far too low in the scale. Why is sulphuric acid inserted? No distinction is made between metals and their first oxides; yet their affinities for oxygen are very different. Iron, for instance, decomposes water, but the green oxide of iron does not.

Column 15. Sulphuric acids.—The order in which they precipitate each other is not that of the affinities of metallic oxides for acids. This Proust has sufficiently demonstrated. The reason is evident, every such precipitation is an instance of the action of compound affinity.

In columns 17, 18, 19, we would wish to know, why barytes is placed below the alkalies.

Columns 20, 21.—Oxymuriatic and nitromuriatic acids. The affinities of these acids, according to Lavoisier, are very different from what they are here represented to be. *Column 22, 23.*—According to Lavoisier, alumina ought to be placed after the metallic oxides.

Column 26. Citric acid.—Lavoisier places alumina after the oxides.

Column 28. Succinic acid.—Guyton places magnesia after the alkalies.

Column 33. *Sebacic acid*.—Guyton places the affinities of this column as follows. Barytes, pot-ash, soda, lime, magnesia, ammonia, alumina, jargonia.

Column 36. *Carbonic acid*.—Dr. Hope places lime before strontian.

Column 53. *Oxide of lead*.—The order of phosphoric and muriatic acids assigned here, holds only above the temperature of 245° ; below that temperature muriatic acid has the strongest affinity.

Column 62. *Fixed oils*.—Berthollet has arranged the affinities of this column as follows. Lime, barytes, fixed alkalies, magnesia, ammonia, oxides of mercury, other oxides, alumina. The Author of the article Chemistry, in the Supplement to the Encyclopædia Britannica, has added the following table, which, however, is unconnected with the first. Nitric acid, muriatic, sulphureous, sulphuric, acetous, sulphur, phosphorus.

A column might have been added for *pyromucous acid*, the affinities of bodies for which are, according to Guyton, as follows—Potash, soda, barytes, lime, magnesia, ammonia, alumina, jargonia, oxides of metals. The affinities of *pyrolignous acid* are, according to the same philosopher, as follows. Lime, barytes, potash, soda, magnesia, ammonia, metallic oxides, alumina. A column, too, might have been added for *jargonia*. The affinities are vegetable acids, sulphuric acid, muriatic, nitric.

TABLE

Of the quantity of real ACID taken up by mere ALKALIES and EARTHS
MR. KIRWAN.

100 parts.	Sulphuric.	Nitrous.	Muriatic.	Carbonic 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, Fourcroy
Alumine	150,9			335, nearly Bergman

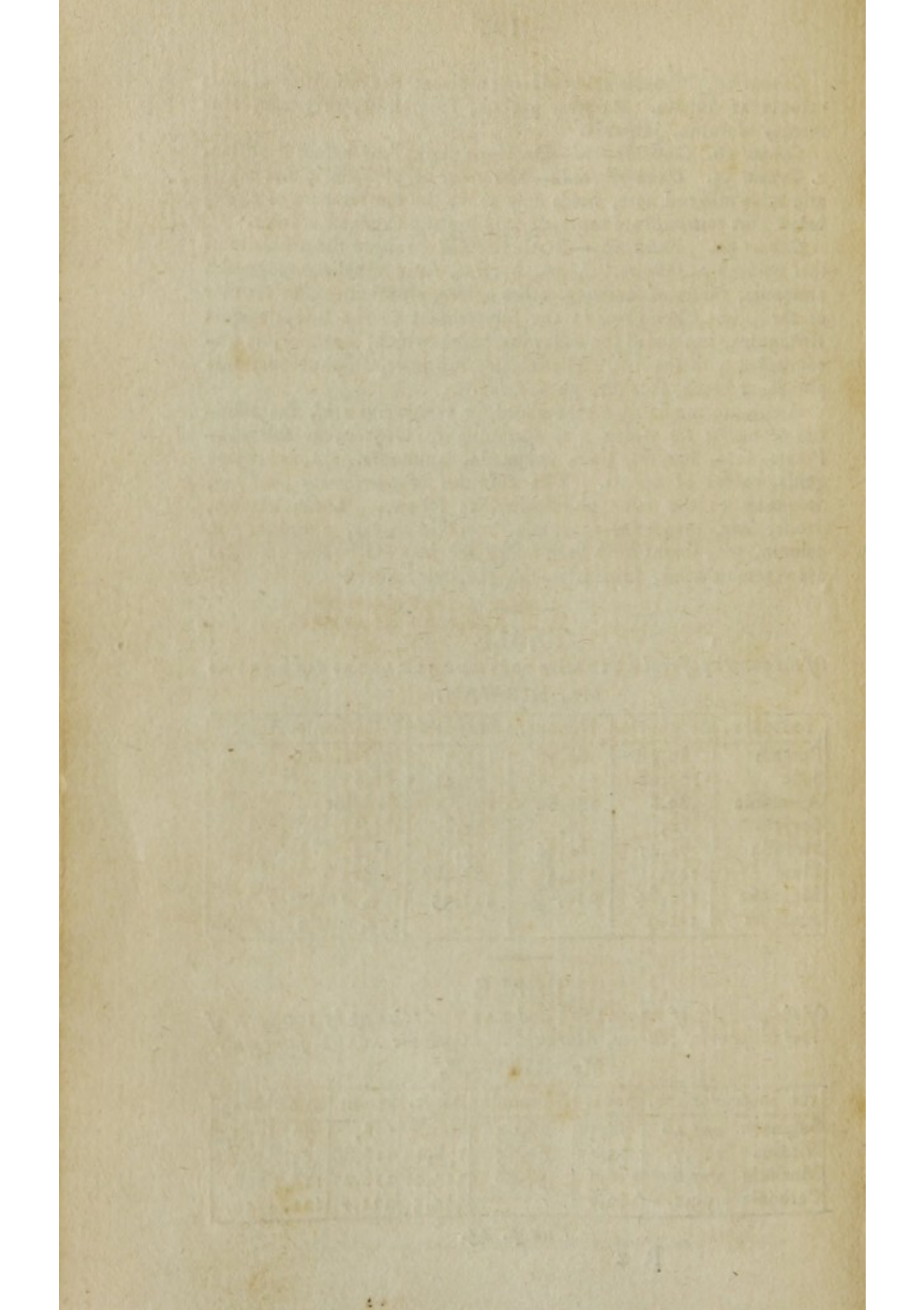
TABLE

Of the quantity of ALKALIES and EARTHS taken up by 100 parts of
real Sulphuric, Nitrous, Muriatic, and Carbonic ACIDS, saturated.

MR. KIRWAN.

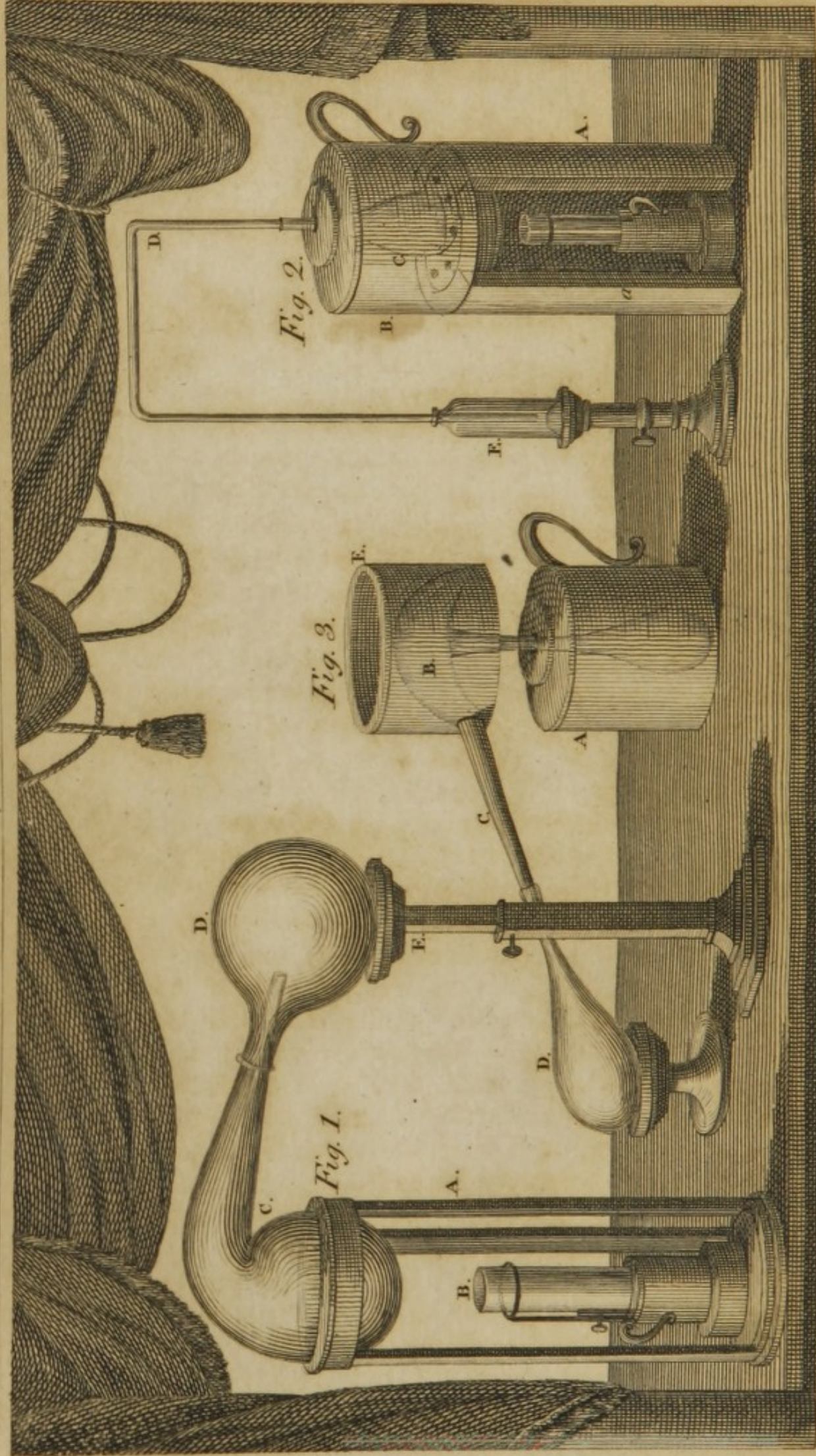
100 parts	Pot-ash.	Soda.	Ammonia.	Baryt.	Stront.	Lime.	Mag.
Sulphuric	121,48	78,32	26,05	200,	138,	70,	57,92
Nitrous	117,7	73,43	40,35	178,12	116,86	55,7	47,64
Muriatic	177,6	136,2	58,48	314,46	216,21	118,3	89,8
Carbonic	95,1	149,6		354,5	231,+	122,	50,

Vide p. 15.



APPENDIX.

Designed for S. Munnings.



Akin. del.

Economical Laboratory of James Woodhouse, M. D.

Tanner's

REFERENCES

TO Dr. WOODHOUSE'S ECONOMICAL APPARATUS.




FIG. 1.

A is a stand, made of tin, eleven inches high, consisting of a flat bottom, from which proceeds three upright pieces, of the same metal, one inch broad, which are soldered to the top, in which there is a round aperture, three inches in diameter, to receive the bottom of a retort, or oil flask. B is a hydrostatic lamp, with Argand's apparatus. C a retort, luted to a receiver D, which is supported by a frame of wood E.

FIG. 2.

A is a cylindrical vessel of tin, eleven inches high, and twenty-one in circumference, open at *a*, so as to admit the hydrostatic lamp, with a round aperture in the top, three inches in diameter, and several small holes *o o o* surrounding it. B is a circular case, six inches high, formed of two pieces of the same metal, which include a lining of charcoal, in fine powder, one inch thick, at the top and on the sides. The lower part has an opening five inches in diameter, and in the middle of the upper part, there is an aperture, to receive the neck of an oil flask. C is a flask, from which proceeds the tube D, which enters the bottle E.

In using this apparatus, the flask, containing the subject of the operation, must be placed on the cylindrical body A. The case B, is then to be put over the flask, and the tube D, which enters a perforated cork, joined to it with a strip of paper, covered with a paste, made of flour and water.

The charcoal, with which the case B is lined, is a bad conductor of heat, hence, it is accumulated round the flask, and thus prevented from flying off, into the air.

FIG. 3.

A is a separate section of the case lined with coal, and the oil flask, on the neck of which, the head of an alembic B, made of tin or copper, four and a half inches high, is placed. C the neck of this vessel, nine inches long, enters an oil flask D.

To use this apparatus, the flask must be put on the top of the cylindrical body A fig. 2. The vessel lined with coal, is then to be placed over the flask, and the head of the alembic fixed to its neck. E the part over the top of the head of the alembic, may be filled with cold water.

This economical apparatus may be used;

First. In obtaining the gases from certain substances, which require the application of heat; as oxygenous air, from manganese or red lead and the sulphuric acid; or ammoniacal gas, from lime and sal ammoniac; or oxygenated muriatic gas from manganese and the marine acid, &c.

Secondly. In making ammoniac, and the liquid and concrete carbonate of ammoniac; in uniting sulphur with pot ash, soda and lime; to compose sulphur of pot-ash, soda and lime; to form fulminating mercury, and the prussiates of lime, pot-ash, &c.

Thirdly. In procuring several of the acids, as the nitric, muriatic, ox-muriatic, oxalic, fluoric, acetic, &c.

Fourthly. In distilling water, spirits, and alcohol, &c. and uniting the sulphuric acid and alcohol, to form ether, &c.

Fifthly. In the drying of powders, and in evaporating water, and some of the acids, from saline solutions. A tin, copper, glass, or queens-ware saucer, may be placed on the top of the stands, Fig. 1 or 2, for this purpose.

Sixthly. In making experiments upon all kinds of dyeing drugs, and

Seventhly. In analysing earths and the ores of metals, in the humid way.

This apparatus is preferable to that of *Guyton*, in many respects.

First. It is less expensive. The lamp of *Guyton*, is one of the worst of the kind, for a Chemical Laboratory. There is no occasion for a number of screws, to elevate or depress the retort or lamp, for a great or low heat may be made, merely by raising or lowering the wick.

Secondly. It would be no very easy matter, to place an oil flask on the ring of *Guyton's* apparatus, so as to connect a long tube with it, to obtain oxygenated muriatic acid gas, ammoniacal gas, &c. And in the winter season, the cold air, acting on the belly of the vessel placed there, would deprive it of a portion of heat, and if the ore of a metal was boiled with an acid, in an oil flask, it would keep jumping from the ring.

When the case lined with coal is placed over a flask, the heat is accumulated round it, and the vessel is kept steady in one position. Retorts are also procured with difficulty, at this time, even in the great cities of the United States. It is of great consequence then to procure a substitute for them. The head of the copper or tin alembic, fig. 3, fixed on an oil flask, and its neck communicating with another, form a distilling apparatus, which may be used, in a great many chemical operations.

These observations are the result of experience.

For the method of procuring the gases, acids, &c. vide, the common elementary treatises on Chemistry.

*An Account of the principal Objections to
the Antiphlogistic System of Chemis-
try: By JAMES WOODHOUSE, M. D.
Professor of Chemistry in the Universi-
ty of Pennsylvania, &c.*

IN the year 1796, the celebrated Dr. JOSEPH PRIESTLEY published a pamphlet, entitled, *Considerations on the Doctrine of Phlogiston, and the Decomposition of Water*, in which he brought forward various objections to the Antiphlogistic System of Chemistry, which was at that time, almost universally adopted.

Monsieur ADET, then Minister Plenipotentiary from the Republic of France, to the United States, and Dr. JOHN MACLEAN, Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy, in Princeton College, New Jersey, wrote Answers to this work. These Gentlemen respectively proved themselves, to be accurately acquainted with the reigning opinions of the times; and the latter displayed great acuteness of remark in his performance.

Professor MITCHILL, of New York, made an ingenious attempt, to reconcile the contending parties.*

* Medical Repository, vol. i. p. 54. first edition.

I also had the honor of replying to Dr. PRIESTLEY, in an *Experimental Essay*, printed in the fourth volume, of the American Philosophical Transactions, and in *Three Letters*, published in that truly valuable work, the Medical Repository, of New York.

After these various publications, the Doctor, having seen no reason to abandon any of his opinions, wrote another Pamphlet, which he called, *The Doctrine of Phlogiston established, and that of the Composition of Water refuted*.

Having been for several years, considering this subject, I have been obliged to give up certain parts of the new theory, and it is my intention to relate some striking objections to it, to which no satisfactory answer, has as yet, been made.

SECTION I.

Of the AIRS produced, by transmitting the steam of water over charcoal, exposed to a red heat.

If pure charcoal, broken into moderately small parts, is exposed to a red heat, in a copper, glass, or earthen tube, and the steam of water is passed over it, carbonated hydrogenous, and carbonic acid gas will be obtained.

LAVOISIER particularly mentions this experiment, and considers it as one of the principal proofs of the decomposition of water, which is supposed to be formed, of eighty-five parts, by weight, of

oxygen, and fifteen of hydrogen.† It is said, that the oxygen of the water unites to part of the coal, and makes the carbonic acid, while its hydrogen escapes, dissolves another part of the coal, and gives rise to the carbonated hydrogen gas.

Dr. PRIESTLEY has objected to this explanation, and has clearly proved, that if the coal receive but a small portion of water at a time, inflammable air, without any mixture of fixed air, will be produced. The Doctor calls to his assistance, the aid of Mr. WATT, who says, “it has been observed by Dr. PRIESTLEY, and confirmed by my experience, that when much water passes in the form of steam, over hot coal, there is much fixed air formed; but little or none, when the water is admitted so sparingly, that no steam reaches the refrigeratory.”

The Doctor supposes, that the reason why more fixed air is produced when the supply of water is copious, is because more water is necessary to the constitution of fixed air, than to that of inflammable air.

In order to acquire accurate information, concerning the proportion of the inflammable and fixed air in this process, the steam of water was transmitted by means of an Eolipile over one ounce of red hot coal, in a copper tube. Portions of the gases having been examined, for the space of two hours, by throwing a measure of the airs up over lime-water, in an eudiometer, it was found, that the fixed air was generally thirty in every hundred parts, of the airs obtained.

† *Lavoisier's Elements of Chemistry*, p. 1354

Four ounces of charcoal, taken promiscuously from a heap, were then exposed to a red heat, in an earthen retort, when six hundred and twenty-two ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air were generated.

The 1st 10 oz. measures, was the atmospheric air of the vessel.

2d	4	contained	30	} fixed air	70	} inflammable.
3d	4	.	20		80	
4th	4	.	15		85	
5th	360	.	10		90	
6th	70	.	2		98	
7th	170	.	0		100	
	<hr/>				622	

The same coal, taken from the retort, wetted with water, and committed to it again, gave eighty one ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st 10 oz. measures, was the air of the vessel.

2d	12	contained	30	} fixed air.	70	} inflamma.
3d	40	.	25		75	
4th	6	.	20		80	
5th	13	.	0		100	
	<hr/>				81	

The same coal, wetted a third time with water, yielded one hundred and eighty-one ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st 10 oz. measures, the air of the vessel.

2d	4	contained	30	} fixed air.	70	} inflammable.
3d	44	.	26		74	
4th	37	.	25		75	
5th	62	.	20		80	
6th	12	.	8		92	
7th	4	.	1		99	
8th	4	.	0		100	
	<hr/>					

According to these experiments, LAVOISIER must have possessed very inaccurate information, concerning the gases produced by exposing moistened charcoal to heat, and the inference of Dr. PRIESTLEY is just.

As water is composed of eighty-five parts of oxygen and fifteen of hydrogen, the eighty-five parts of the former, ought constantly to unite with the coal, and form fixed air, and the proportions of the inflammable and fixed air should invariably be the same; or where two parts in bulk of the inflammable air are found, there should be one part of oxygen, united to the coal, in the form of fixed air; but this is not the case, for when the airs are made from coal, the first portions are generally seventy inflammable, and thirty fixed; and the last are all inflammable, without any mixture of fixed air, provided the heat is kept up, a sufficient length of time.

SECTION II.

Of the GASES obtained by exposing metallic calces and coal to a red heat.

According to the new Theory of Chemistry, a metal is a simple body, and it is converted into a calx, by an union with oxygen, the base of vital air.

Coal is also considered as a simple substance, and it is said, when it is added to a metallic calx, and

exposed to a sufficient degree of heat, that the metal will be revived, by the coal uniting with the oxygen of the calx, and thus producing fixed air.

This theory is generally adopted, although it is not warranted by experiment, for upon exposing metallic calces and coal to heat, carbonic acid gas is not produced, but carbonated inflammable air, mixed with fixed air, the proportion of which diminishes to the end of the process.

Dr. PRIESTLEY exposed the scales of iron, which he calls finery cinder, previously made red hot, to a high degree of heat, with coal which contained no water. Carbonated inflammable and fixed air were generated, and the iron was revived.

According to the Antiphlogistic theory, the agents in this process, were iron, oxygen and coal, and nothing but carbonic acid gas, should have been produced.

Supposing that water had been concerned in this experiment, I made an attempt to exclude it from each of the substances, previous to their mixture, in the following manner.

One ounce of the scales of iron, and the same quantity of charcoal were reduced to a very fine powder, and exposed separately, in covered crucibles, in an air furnace, well supplied with fuel, for five hours. They were then taken out of the fire, and mixed while red hot, in a red hot iron mortar, were triturated with a red hot iron pestle, formed of an iron ramrod, were poured upon a red hot sheet of iron, and instantly put into a red hot gun barrel, which was fixed in one of Lewis's black lead furnaces, and which communicated with the

worm of a refrigeratory, a part of an hydropneumatic apparatus. Immediately after luting one end of the gun barrel to the worm, one hundred and forty-two ounce measures of carbonated inflammable air, came over in torrents, every portion of which was mixed with carbonic acid gas. The iron was revived.

Here the effects of water were seen, as much as if it had been added to the coal, or had been transmitted over it, in the form of steam.

As the coal had ceased to yield air, before it was mixed with the finery cinder, and as no air can be obtained from this substance without water, a conclusion was drawn, that this fluid existed in the scales of iron, and could not be driven off from them, by means of heat.

An hypothesis was formed, that the finery cinder supplied the coal with water, which was decomposed; its oxygen was supposed to unite with the coal and generate the fixed air, while its hydrogen escaped, dissolved part of the coal, and made the carbonated inflammable air.

This explanation appeared to be very plausible, but it has been overturned, by subsequent experiments, which are related in the first section.

Inflammable and fixed air are also procured, by mixing coal, with the calces of zinc, iron, copper, lead, manganese, tin, and bismuth, as will be shewn by the following experiments.

Half an ounce of the oxide of zinc, precipitated from a solution of white vitriol by caustic pot-ash, was washed in water, until it would not give a milky colour to muriated barytes, and was exposed

to a red heat half an hour, and then mixed with two drachms of coal, which had ceased to yield air, in an earthen retort, when it gave eighty-six ounce measures of carbonated inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st 10 oz. measures, was the atmospheric air of the vessel.

2d	4	contained	75	} fixed air.	25	} inflammable.
3d	4		40		60	
4th	4		15		85	
5th	4		10		90	
6th	4		2		98	
7th	<u>56</u>		0		100	
	86					

The same result happened, from using the flowers of zinc and coal. The metal in both experiments, was completely revived, and was found adhering to the neck of the retort, which was broken to obtain it. Very frequently, upon exposing the flowers of zinc and coal to heat, inflammable air, without any mixture of fixed air, will be obtained.

Two drachms of the oxide of iron, made from a solution of green vitriol, by caustic pot-ash, and which had been half an hour exposed to a red heat, and one drachm of coal, gave two hundred and sixty-nine ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air. The metal was revived.

The 1st 4 oz. measures, was the atmospheric air of the vessel.

2d	4	contained	65	} fixed air.	35	} inflammable.
3d	4		60		40	
4th	4		42		58	
5th	4		30		70	
6th	5		25		75	
7th	200		20		80	
8th	<u>44</u>		15		85	
	269					

Half an ounce of the oxide of copper, from blue vitriol by caustic pot-ash, which was exposed half an hour to a red heat, and one drachm of coal, yielded one hundred and six ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st	4 oz. measures,	was the air of the vessel.			
2d	36	contained 100	} fixed air.	} inflammable.	
3d	10	74			0
4th	10	20			26
5th	8	12			80
6th	20	10			88
7th	18	5			90
	<u>106</u>				95

Half an ounce of minium, and one drachm of coal, gave twenty-six ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st	4 oz. measures	was the air of the vessel.			
2d	10	contained 100	} fixed air.	} inflamm.	
3d	8	45			0
4th	4	15			55
	<u>26</u>				85

Half an ounce of white lead, and one drachm of coal, afforded fifty-three ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st	4 oz. measures,	was the air of the vessel.			
2d	4	contained 80	} fixed air.	} inflammable.	
3d	18	95			20
4th	4	85			5
5th	9	70			15
6th	8	20			30
7th	6	10			80
	<u>53</u>				90

Half an ounce of the black oxide of manganese, and one drachm of coal, gave fifty-five ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st	4 oz. measures was the atmospheric air of the vessel.		
2d	4 contained	80	} fixed air. } inflammable
3d	26	95	
4th	8	85	
5th	10	30	
6th	3	25	
	—		
	55		

Half an ounce of the white oxide of tin, and one drachm of coal gave seventy-four ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st	4 oz. measures was the air of the vessel.		
2d	12 contained	50	} fixed air. } inflammable
3d	10	45	
4th	26	20	
5th	22	15	
	—		
	74		

Half an ounce of the white oxide of bismuth, precipitated from a solution of bismuth, in the nitric acid by water, and one drachm of coal, gave thirty-eight ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st	4 oz. measures, was the air of the vessel.		
2d	10 contained	30	} fixed air. } inflammable
3d	9	15	
4th	10	8	
5th	5	5	
	—		
	38		

All these calces, except bismuth and zinc, afford more fixed air than can be procured from coal and water, which is a proof, that they contain oxygen. Water appears to be a principal agent in producing part of the inflammable and fixed air, for these gases are procured, in proportion to the quantity of this fluid, in the calces. If oxygen was the sole agent, no inflammable air could be obtained.

The flowers or white oxide of zinc, frequently affording inflammable and no fixed air, when subjected to heat with coal, cannot be accounted for by the new doctrine.

Mr. W. CRUIKSHANK of Woolwich, Great Britain, having attentively perused the pamphlet of Dr. PRIESTLEY, was struck with the nature and quantity of the gases, procured from the scales of iron and charcoal. He repeated many of the experiments here detailed, and met with similar results. He supposes that the oxygen of the metallic calces exists in the carbonated inflammable air, which he calls the gaseous oxide of carbon, and thinks it bears the same relation to carbonic acid gas, as nitrous air does to nitric acid.

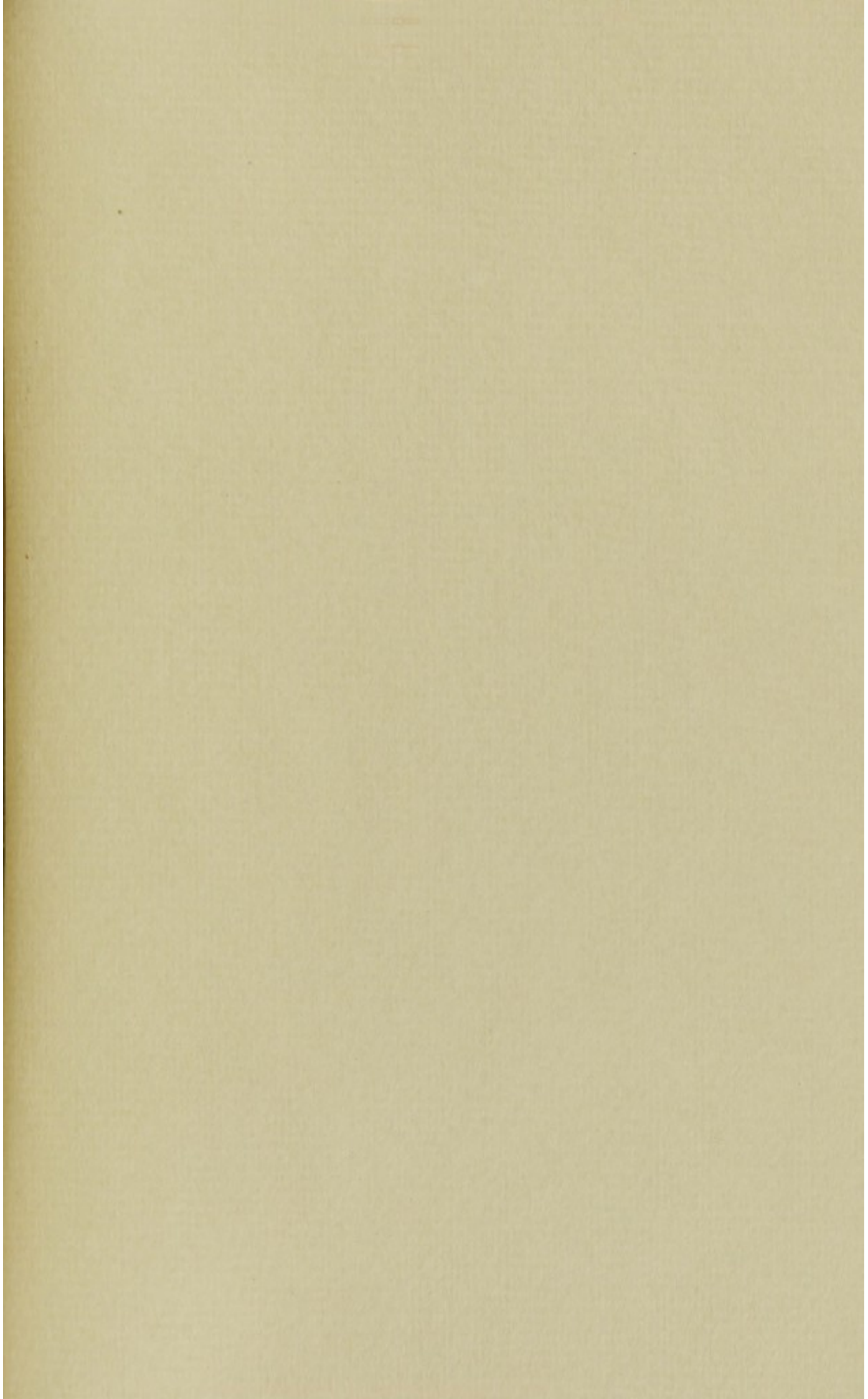
He thinks that none of the hydro-carbonates at present known, are similar in their properties to the gaseous oxides of carbon, being much lighter, and yielding a far less proportion of carbonic acid, when combined with oxygen. §

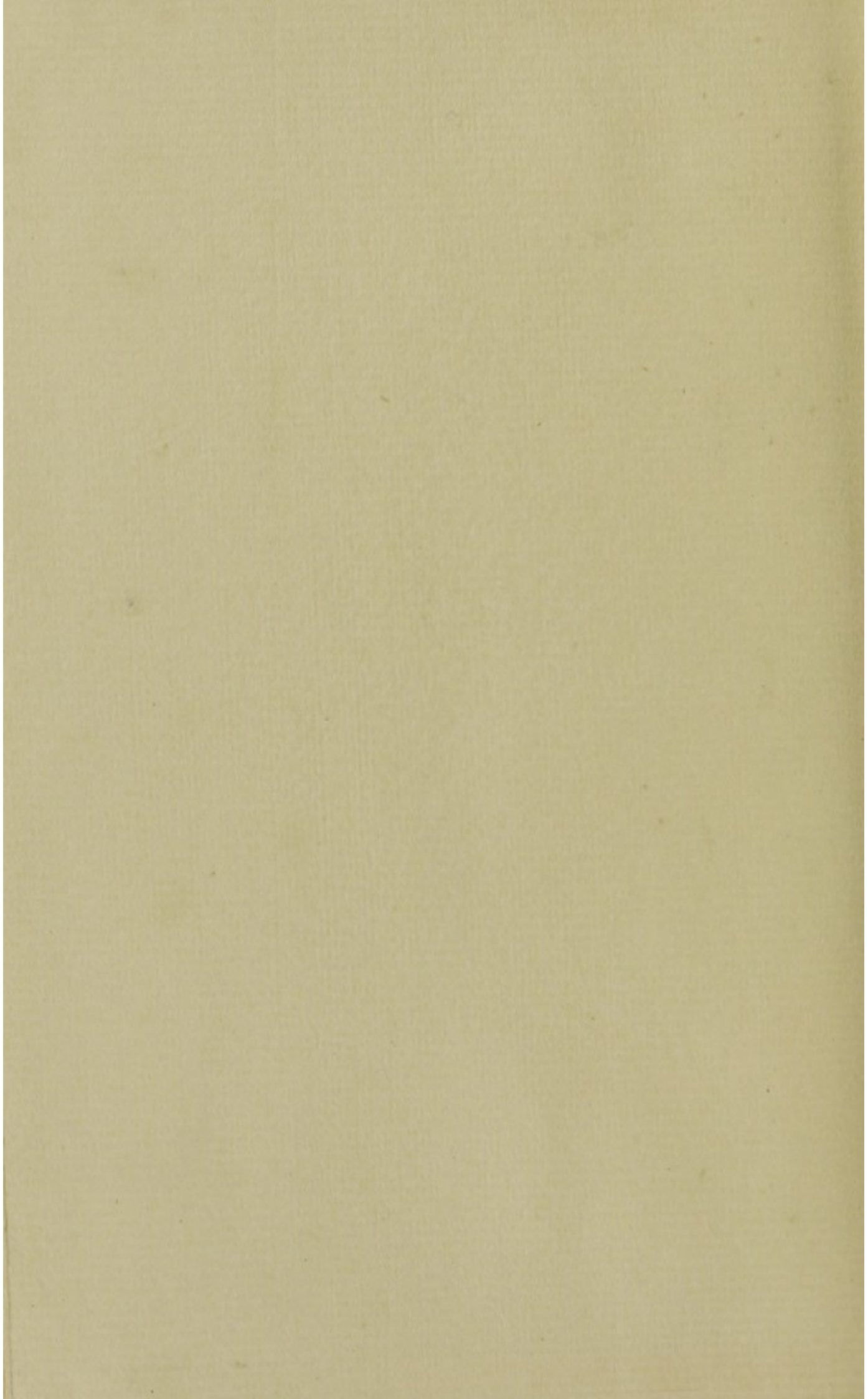
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