## Extract from a letter from Leander Ransom, Esq., Acting Ohio Canal Commissioner, in relation to the Licking Summit and Reservoir.

"The extent of country drained by the reservoir, is between thirty and forty square miles.

"The extent of line supplied in part to the westward of the reservoir, is about thirty miles in the driest part of the season; however, the water received from other sources is very inconsiderable, much depending on the duration of the drought. In the driest part of the season, nearly thirty miles to the westward, and fourteen north-east, in all forty-four miles, are supplied from the reservoir.

"The reservoir is supposed to contain, when filled to six feet above top water line of the canal, about 870,000,000 cubic feet of water, about 570,000,000 of which is available, and to cover about 2,400 acres.

"Something of an idea of the expenditure of water from the reservoir for a part of this season, may be formed from the following observations, to wit:—On the 25th of June, the water in the reservoir was 4 feet 5 inches above top water line in the canal; July 13th, 4 feet 9; August 27th, 3 feet 9; September 24th, 3 feet. No rain having fallen from July 4th, to September 24th."

Mr. Ransom states that the reservoir could have been filled much more, but it was not considered necessary; and the superintendent informed me that it could have been filled in July, had it been deemed requisite.

E. H. G.

Experimental Illustrations of the Radiating and Absorbing Powers of Surfaces for Heat, of the Effects of Transparent Screens, of the Conducting Power of Solids, &c. By A. D. BACHE, Prof. of Nat. Philos. and Chemistry, University of Pennsylvania.

Among the very interesting phenomena of heat, there are many which are with difficulty brought under the eyes of a class, so as to render them satisfactory to each one, by the test of sight. The thermometer, even when constructed on a large scale, affords but an inadequate means of rendering evident the temperature of bodies, to those who are distant from the lecture table, and the illustrations made by its use are, at best, rather tame. When the temperatures to be indicated admit of it, lecturers have, in preference to using the thermometer, resorted to the freezing of water, to the melting of wax, to the inflaming of phosphorus, the boiling of water, &c., as more adequate means of rendering evident the temperatures in question.

The instruments about to be described, I have found very convenient for class illustration, and always to afford satisfactory evidence of the positions to be proved. The first instrument is intended to show the powers of different surfaces in radiating and absorbing heat, with other phenomena, which will be referred to in the sequel. Fig. 1. To produce a sensibly uni-



To produce a sensibly uniform temperature, a prismatic vessel, A B C D F G, fig. 1, of sheet iron, of a convenient size, is filled with melted tin, and covered at top by a plate of sheet iron, A F, or, in preference, by a plate of cast iron, of moderate thickness. The temperature of the tin is kept up by an alcohol lamp, H I K, with several wicks, fitting

below the box, and between the legs which support it; by this means, the top radiates heat of considerable infensity. I prefer the use of tin, in the box, to that of oil, on account of the greater cleanliness resulting from its use, and because the oil gives off an offensive smell at high temperatures. Boiling water does not give a sufficiently high temperature to produce rapid action in the apparatus, and the greater exactness with which it would yield a constant temperature, is not necessary in such an illustration.

A rectangular frame, L M N O, made of dry wood, to prevent its warping, of a small height, L A, and of a length and breadth such as to adapt it to its place upon the cover of the box, A G, is divided by cross pieces of wood into small squares, or rectangular compartments, as n n, the upper surface of the frame being perfectly plain, and parallel to the cover, A F, of the box containing the melted tin; this frame is intended to support, without the necessity of contact with each other, small plates of thin metal, or other appropriate material, the surfaces of which are variously coated.

To show the radiating powers of different surfaces, any convenient number of thin plates of sheet lead, or sheet tin, or mica, are cut to suit the size of the squares, n n, of the frame, overlapping the inner edges, but not extending to the middle of the small dividing bars of wood; each one of the plates has one of its surfaces differently coated; supposing them to be of lead, one is coated with lamp-black, another brightened by sand paper, or coated with tin leaf, another left tarnished, a fourth coated with gold leaf. Being placed upon the frame, as at a, a, with the coated sides uppermost, small bits of phosphorus are placed upon the middle of the plates, and the frame put in its place upon the cover, A F. The surfaces which absorb the heat radiated by the cover, A F, being the same, the material and thickness of the plates being the same, the circumstances are alike in each plate, except so far as the upper surface is concerned; the plate which is coated with the worst radiator, will become warm first, and the phosphorus will melt first upon it, and, generally, the order of melting of the phosphorus will indicate the inverse order of the radiating powers of the surfaces. As the heat radiated from the cover is high, the melting of the phosphorus will be soon followed by

its inflaming, and the order thus given will hardly deviate from the first; the interference from the film of oxide, which is so annoying in the modification of the apparatus of Ingenhousz, for illustrating the relative conducting powers of bodies, is almost entirely obviated by the high temperature of the source of heat. To avoid injuring the coated surfaces, a thin film of mica may be placed below the phosphorus, the film being large enough to prevent the effect of the spreading of the phosphorus, as it burns.

The plates should be made thin, in order that the results may be mainly dependent upon differences in the radiating power of the surfaces. I have used plates of thin sheet tin, (iron coated with tin,) of sheet zinc, and of glass, with good effect. The effects may be accelerated by coating the under surfaces with lamp black, to promote the absorption of heat; but in that case, care should be taken that the thickness is at least equal to that which produces the greatest amount of absorption.

Instead of the pieces of phosphorus, wax, or other readily fusible material, may be used, as in the apparatus of Ingenhousz; or cones of wood, weighted at the base, and kept upon the plate, with the vertex downward, by a fusible material, may be substituted.

It may happen that the lecture table is so arranged as to render it advantageous to incline the cover, A F, of the box, A G; this will be readily accomplished by making the cover part of the box itself, in which case the melted metal may be introduced through a hole in the higher side; as, for example, in A D.

To illustrate the fact that absorption and radiation are proportional, the same square plates, a a, &c., may be used; the variously coated surfaces are placed downwards, phosphorus is put, as before, on the upper surfaces, and the frame deposited in its place upon the cover of the box. The phosphorus will now melt in the inverse of the order shown in the first experiment, the plate having the best absorbent surface, heating first. If plates of metal be used, their upper surfaces should be bright, for this illustration; but glass, or mica, which will allow the coating to be seen through, is best adapted to the purpose.

The fact that the radiation, or absorption, of heat does not take place merely at the surface, but at a definite thickness, which becomes very appreciable in good radiators, may be satisfactorily shown by coating the surface of one of the plates with a thin layer of lamp black, and another one with a considerable thickness of the same material. If the coatings be upwards, as in the first illustration, the phosphorus will melt soonest upon the thinly coated plate; if the coatings be downwards, as in the second illustration, the reverse will be the case.

The effect of transparent screens in preventing the passage through them of heat not accompanied by light, may be shown by using, in the same instrument, plates of glass, mica, &c., of equal thickness; theoretically, the differential results are not as free from objections as the former ones; but the fact is illustrated almost unexceptionably, since the phosphorus melts first at the surface of the plate, which it

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would not do if the plate were cool, and the fusion resulted from the absorption, by the phosphorus, of the heat which had passed through the screen of glass, or mica.

These illustrations I have tried repeatedly, and successfully; there are others of a more refined character, which I have not yet had an opportunity to attempt, but which, I doubt not, might be carried out very easily. The first of these is the curious property discovered in rock salt, by M. Melloni, of permitting the passage of heat of low intensity, as freely as that of high; a piece of phosphorus placed upon the salt, and another upon a thin film of mica, the under surface of which should be coated with lamp black, just above the plate of rock salt, would serve to show this property. That transparent plates of mica are only partially diathermous, would be shown in a similar way, and, in fact, by the relative periods of fusion of the phosphorus just above the plate, and of that upon it, a notion of the relative quantities of heat stopped and transmitted, might be furnished.

Another illustration which I have tried with success, is that of the want of specific effect of colour on the absorption of non-luminous heat; a fact which some researches, undertaken by Professor Courtenay and me, and not yet published, indicate. On coating the plates on one side with lamp black, plumbago, white lead, chalk, prussian blue, vermillion, &c., it will be found that the phosphorus melts upon them without regard to the order of colour. Care should be taken that the thickness of the coatings is such as to give to them each the maximum radiating or absorbing power; a thickness which will differ for each material, but which may, for all, be very easily exceeded.

By a change in the character of the plates, this instrument may be used to advantage in showing the experiment devised by Franklin, and executed first by Ingenhousz, for indicating the relative conducting powers of solids for heat.

That the experiment just referred to does not truly give the relative conducting powers of bodies, can, I think, be clearly demonstrated, notwithstanding that it is found, in all the books, in juxtaposition with the very elegant and accurate method proposed by Fourier; with the explanation of its intrinsic defects, it may be, however, still admitted as a general illustration. To apply the instrument, plates of the same thickness of the substances to be tested, as, for example, of tin, iron, lead, copper, pottery, wood, glass, &c., which can be easily obtained in the requisite form, are to be coated on both sides with a thick coating of lamp black, or other good absorbent and radiator, leaving a small strip of the upper surface bare, to exhibit the nature of the material; the plates having phosphorus placed, on mica, upon them, are put upon the frame, and this is placed on the cover of the box: the order in which the phosphorus fires, gives the same indication as in the apparatus of Ingenhousz. This effect is more rapid than when cones, or rods, are used, especially from the lower temperature of the substance which is commonly used as a source of heat. These remarks do not apply, of course, to the forms of that apparatus in which hot sand is used.

The second instrument to be described, is intended to show the

common illustration of the fact that bodies have different specific heats.

Theoretically, this illustration is, I think, inaccurate, but is admissible, like the last; upon this subject, I hope to be able, at a future time, to be more explicit; at present, my remarks are confined to general illustrations. That different bodies require unequal quantities of heat to raise their temperatures through the same number of degrees, is illustrated upon equal weights, or bulks, by subjecting them, when at the same temperatures, to the same source of heat, and proving that they require different times to arrive at the same temperature. This idea is a fundamental one, and cannot too early be inculcated upon a learner. As an illustration, I have three vessels of sheet iron, to contain equal weights of mercury, alcohol, and water; these are fastened to a frame, by which they can be dipped into the same vessel containing hot water. An alcohol thermometer, with a column of fluid large enough to be visible at a moderate distance, dips into each vessel. As the heat enters, the thermometer in the mercury rises with great rapidity, that in the alcohol more slowly, and that in the water lags behind both the others. Instead of those thermometers, if a cylinder of any metal which is a good conductor, and has a low specific heat, such as copper, for example, should, after being coated with a varnish of thickened linseed oil to protect the surface, be introduced into each vessel,



phosphorus placed on the top, would melt and inflame first on the metal which dipped into the liquid having the least capacity for heat. In the annexed cut, fig. 2, a, b, and c, are the vessels; d, e, f, metallic cylinders resting in wooden, or metallic, or mica,

disks, and the whole dipping into a vessel, m n, of boiling water. The mercury is so small in bulk, that the influence of this strikes the student immediately; but the idea which he thus catches at, is refuted by the more tardy heating of the water, which is less in bulk than the alcohol.



Before the forms of illustration, of the radiation and absorption of heat, already described, had suggested themselves, I had contrived another apparatus, which gave very good results, and may be, by some, preferred to the one already described. A long box, a b c d x, of tin, was divided into compartments by partitions, ef, g h, i k, &c., and a top soldered upon each, having a conical opening, l, m, n, &c., to receive a cork, through which a tube, o p, n r, m s, l t, &c., passed; these

compartments were made as nearly equal as possible, and the tubes entering them were selected of as nearly equal bore as possible; equal measures of coloured water were poured through the conical openings into the several compartments, so as to cover the bottom to a depth regulated as will be presently stated. The tubes and corks were now inserted, and cemented; and each cell thus formed an air thermometer, the expansion of the air within driving the coloured liquid up the tube entering the cell. That there might be no error from a want of equality in these thermometers, after bringing the liquid to a convenient height in each of the stems, by forcing air into each, or by dropping liquid from a dropping tube into the tube, the whole was plunged into a vessel of water, of a temperature sufficiently above the original temperature of the air within, to give distances on the tubes, readily divisible into equal parts of sufficient These degrees were marked by a rude scale, formed by magnitude. coloured threads, tied around the tubes. One surface of the box was kept uniformly bright, or regularly tarnished, or coated; the other, a d, was coated with substances of different radiating powers.

The box being placed with the uncoated side towards a vessel of warm water, the heat enters uniformly that side of the compartments, but is radiated differently from the opposite side, and the liquid from the air thermometers is urged more rapidly up those tubes which enter into the compartments radiating worst, and ultimately arrives at a greater height, showing a greater stationary temperature, or temperature of equilibrium, between the heat absorbed, and that which is radiated. If the vessel be now turned, so that the variously coated surfaces are towards the source of heat, the liquid in those coated with the best absorbents, will immediately begin to rise in the tubes, and that in those coated with the worst absorb-That the two lateral compartments are exposed to a ents, to fall. greater cooling action than the others, may be an objection to this apparatus; but it is easily obviated, and with it the communication of heat from one compartment to another, by terminating the box at each end by a small compartment, and separating each of the other compartments by a similar space; in fact, convenience alone was the reason for uniting these air thermometers in one vessel.



Another form of apparatus, which is more simple, I have found convenient; but it occupies more time than that last described, in obtaining the same results. A prism of any convenient number of sides, is made into an air thermometer, in the manner described in speaking of the last apparatus; the sides are variously coated; it fits loosely into a prism of the same form, but wanting one side; in the figure, a b c e, represents the enveloping surface, and  $m n \circ p$ , the air thermometer. To show the different absorbing powers of the different substances, the vessels described are placed as in the figure, before another, A, containing hot water, hot sand, or any other convenient source of

Suppose the side of the air thermometer which is the worst heat. absorbent of heat, to be exposed to the source of heat, the air within is expanded, and the position of the liquid in the tube is marked by an index; a better absorbent is exposed, and the liquid rises higher: a worse, and it falls below its original level: the experiment can thus be varied at pleasure. The outer sheath, or covering prism. serves to render the surface, not exposed to the source of heat, uniform in its radiating powers, and to protect those sides which are not intended to be exposed to the source of heat, from the radiation of the vessel, A, which, otherwise, would affect them sensibly. If the air thermometer were a rectangular prism, of course the objection just stated would not apply; but the sheath would still be necessary to equalize the radiation from the surfaces not exposed to the source of heat.

To show the radiating powers of the different surfaces, the sheath is turned so that the open side is exposed to the air; the absorption of heat now becomes sensibly constant, and the greater or less height of the liquid in the tube, is determined by the less or greater radiating power of the exposed surface.

The order in which the surfaces are exposed may, of course, be so arranged as not to require the temperature of the source of heat to be kept constant.

Such an apparatus, placed before a stove, would make an admirable illustration in a school, or a vessel of water, colder or warmer than the room, may be used as the radiating or absorbing body. For the tin vessel here described, a common square glass bottle may be substituted, without disadvantage. Even a common glass phial, made into an air thermometer by inserting a tube through a tight cork, into some liquid occupying the lower part of the phial, and provided with a movable coating of tin foil, gilt paper, writing paper, and paper covered with lamp black, when placed before a fire, or in a room of which the air is warm, when the external air is cold, brought near a window, will afford an interesting and instructive illustration.

Philadelphia, February, 1835.

## FRANKLIN INSTITUTE.

## Monthly Conversation Meeting.

The fifth conversation meeting of the Institute, for the season, was held at their Hall, Feb. 26th, 1835.

Mr. Thos. Fletcher presented an apparatus which was found in the building at the rear of his premises, immediately after it had been discovered to be on fire. This contrivance was of a most ingenious character, and seemed almost certain to produce the effect intended by its nefarious projectors.

Messrs. Carr & Lunt presented specimens of screw augers, manufactured by David Bassett, of Derby, Connecticut; handsome, well