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Outlines

of

Natural Philosophy

Containing

Electricity. — Galvanism
Magnetism. Mechanics, Pneumatics,
Hydrostatics & Optics.

Pictou, N.S.
1836.

1 Electricity

1 In nature there is a substance which has been termed the Electric Fluid; and electrical science states its various phenomena and the laws by which these are regulated.

The term electricity is derived from the Greek Elektron - Amber which was discovered by Thales to possess the power of attracting light substances, when rubbed. Theophrastus afterwards discovered the same power in the precious stone Tourmaline; but it was not till the 17th Century that Electricity was studied as a science. At that period many discoveries in electricity were made by Dr Gilbert

2, Of this Electric fluid every other body is supposed to possess a certain quantity which is denominated its natural share. and when bodies are in this state the fluid is said to be in equilibrium and produces no apparent effects.

The substance which is the cause of Electrical phenomena has obtained the name of a fluid from this peculiarity of maintaining its equilibrium

3. The fluid may be transferred from one body to another and both are then said to be electrified.

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4. A body possessing more than its natural share is said to be electrified positively, and one possessing less negatively

5. The equilibrium of the fluid may be destroyed by friction

It is also disturbed by chemical action but in electrical experiments friction is generally employed. Temperature ex Sulphur, Evaporation Body evaporating positively, reduced negatively Friction - ex Sealing wax

6 When the equilibrium is disturbed by friction the fluid becomes apparent, and shows itself to be a very powerful agent

Electricity may be seen, & felt, it has a smell like that of phosphorus & in the galvanic process it may be tasted. It is also supposed to be the cause of chemical attraction & repulsion.

7. Some bodies transmit the fluid, and hence are termed Conductors or Non-Electrics; but others resist its passage and on this account are denominated Non-Conductors or Electrics.

Electric bodies are electrified by rubbing and on whatever part of their surface the fluid is deposited it remains without effecting the rest of the body, but Non-Electrics allow it a free passage to any distance.

8. The Conducting and Non-Conducting powers are influenced by the state of bodies.

Ex. Water in the solid state is a non-conductor in the fluid state an imperfect conductor & in vapour a good conductor
glass when hot is a conductor, oil when cool is a non-conductor, when hot a conductor

10. The equilibrium of the fluid is best disturbed by the friction of a conducting and non-conducting substance.

When two conducting substances are rubbed the equilibrium is restored as soon as disturbed & when two electrics are rubbed the one can only take from the other that electricity which is contained in its rubbed surface

11 When a conducting substance is separated from other objects by a Non-conductor it is said to be insulated.

12. When two bodies are electrified, the one positively and the other negatively, they are said to be in different states and attract each other.

13. When electrified bodies in different states are brought near each other, or are brought into contact by a conducting substance, the equilibrium of the fluid is restored.

14. The fluid passes from one body to another with a rapidity which is almost instantaneous.

Experiments have been made with conductors of great length and the fluid occupied no perceptible time in passing from one extremity to another.

15. An electric presented to an electrified body indicates on the presented side a contrary state and on the opposite side the same state as the electrified body.

16. The fluid communicated to an electric remains where it is deposited.

17. In order to electrify a non-conducting substance it must be covered with one which will conduct the fluid

When this principle is intended to be charged are coated with tin foil

18. When the two sides of a charged electric are connected by a conductor the equilibrium is restored.

This is the result of the principle in Note 15

19. A number of electrics connected by conductors may be charged or discharged at once.

Upon this principle the electric battery is constructed ~~the~~ both sides of the jars being mutually connected

20. The discharge of an electrified body is regulated by the size ^{and nature} of the conducting substance by which the charge is withdrawn.

The suddenness of the rupture of the fluid & consequently its force are greatest in large conductors, very small ones conduct it slowly & imperceptibly

21. The fluid enters ~~at~~ point in the form of a star and issues from it as a pencil of rays

Magnetism.

Magnetic attraction, in connection with the various properties of the magnet, may be next considered.

Magnets are either natural or artificial the former are ores of iron the latter are made of hard steel which retains magnetism longer than iron.

1 The magnet attracts ferrous bodies

Not so strong toward compounds of iron they act toward clean soft iron, attracts Nickel & some times hammered lead.

2 The magnet possesses Polarity

one end of it. constantly points north, the other
none magnets have more than two poles, other
the same at both ends these are defective.

It does not point directly north and south
but has an inclination to the east or west
this is called the variation of the compass
and differs in different parts of the earth.

there is also a diurnal variation of it.

3 Magnets mutually attract and repel.

Similar poles ~~attract~~ ^{repel}, contrary poles ~~repel~~
~~attract~~

4 The magnet inclines to the horizon

To account for this it has been supposed that the earth is a magnet. If its power were uniform, the dip of the needle would be a guide to the longitude of any part of the globe but the inclination is not uniform.

5 It imparts its properties

The magnet cannot impart more strength than it possesses. The usual way of magnetizing is by rubbing the poles of the bar to be magnetized with 2 to 6 magnets successively, but may be magnetized by percussion, standing for a long time in an upright position, or by electricity.

Mechanics

1. Innumerable phenomena in the material world are the result of motion; and therefore in order to proficiency in the study of Nature, the laws of motion must be well understood.

2. The motion of a body is always the effect of an active power. This may be applied either by impulse or by an accelerated force.

A force acting by impulse acts instantaneously & then ceases; an accelerated force continues to act throughout the whole progress of the moving body.

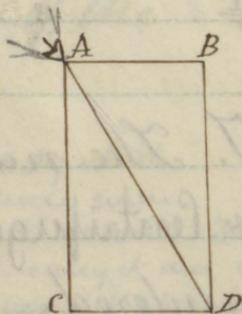
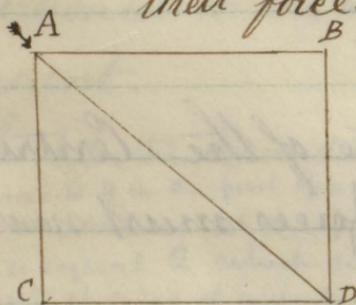
3. Motion may be the result of different forces, applied at the same time, and these may be either simple or accelerated ~~force~~ or partly both

4. The medium in which motion is performed as resisting or non-resisting deserves attention.

5. In a non-resisting medium the operation of the following laws is uniform.

1. Motion which is ~~performed~~ the effect of one force is always rectilinear.

2. Every deviation from rectilinear motion is proportional to the force by which it is produced; and always in the straight line of that force.



AB = one force AC another acting upon the body A, A will move in the line of neither side force but in AD the diagonal of a ^{parallelogram} figure of which AB & AC are two sides

3. Action & re-action are equal and opposed to each other

6. With respect to simple motion it is necessary to consider the Velocity, the Space, the Time, the Momentum and the Quantity of Matter. These may be expressed in the following manner.

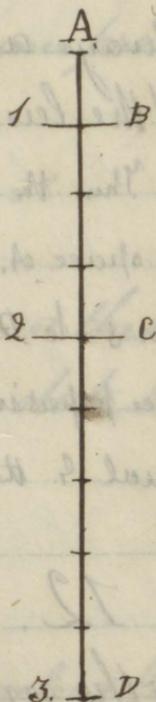
$$V = \frac{S}{T} \cdot S = V \times T \cdot T = \frac{S}{V} \cdot M = V \times Q$$

$$Q = \frac{M}{V}$$

7. The nature of the Centripetal & Centrifugal forces must next be considered.

8. Of these an illustration may be derived from the gravitating power of matter.

9. The motion of a body descending by the force of gravity is equally accelerated.



10. The velocity is proportional to the times of the descent.

Let A be the descending body which moves to B in the first space of time when it has arrived at this point its velocity is equal 2 which would carry it over the two next spaces of gravity, then ceased to act but it receives the same increase of power in the second period as the first it is therefore carried over the three spaces to C in the next period & its force is then equal 4.

11. The whole spaces percurred are always as the square of the times or of the least acquired velocity

Thus the body A. in the first space of time passes over one space A. B. in the second over 3 to C & in the 3^d over 5 to D. and the square of 2 is equal to the whole space passed in the two first periods & the square of 3 is equal to the space passed in 3 periods

12. The velocity and consequently the momentum are as the square root of the spaces.

The body A. percurrs 4 spaces in 2 and 9 in three periods and 2 is the square root of 4 & 3 of 9.

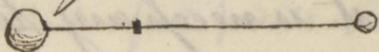
13. The velocity ~~and~~ of ascending bodies diminishes in the same proportion.

14. As all bodies move in the line of direction, it is necessary to state how these centres are found.

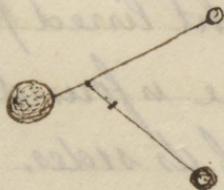
15. In Squares, Cubes Circles & Spheres the centre of the figure is the centre of gravity or position.

16. In right lined plane triangles, the centre is found by the bisection of two of its sides.

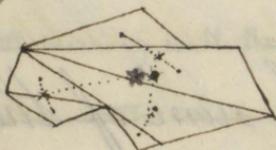
17. Two or more bodies may have a common centre of gravity. The common centre of gravity of two bodies is in the line of direction between them and is distant from each inversely as its quantity of matter.



18. When more than two bodies have one common centre, the common centre of two must be found as above and then viewing the matter of the two bodies as concentrated there, the common centre between that and the others must be found in the same manner.



19. In single bodies of irregular figure, bounded by straight lines the common centre is found by dividing the figure into triangles and then proceeding according to the above directions



20. In those bodies in which the centre of gravity cannot be ascertained in this way it may be ascertained by fluxions

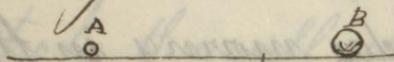
21. Respecting the centre of gravity it may be observed that whatever supports the centre supports the whole body.

22. The mutual action of two bodies upon each other does not alter the state of their common centre of gravity whether it be at rest or in motion.

23. The sum of the momentum of two bodies moving in the same direction with equal or unequal velocity is equal to the momentum of both bodies moving with the velocity of their common centre of gravity.

24. When two bodies move towards contrary parts the difference of their momentum toward these parts

is equal to the momentum of both bodies moved toward the same point with the velocity of their common centre of gravity.



Let A & $B = \frac{1}{2} B$ both moving with the same velocity, toward each other, the force with which the centre of both will move after impact is equal to the difference of their previous forces.

25. The same observations are applicable to any additional number of bodies.

26. The theory of percussive of bodies determines their Momentums, Velocities and Direction after their meet.

ing. Respecting the percussive of bodies moving with an equal velocity the following particulars may be observed.

I. When bodies moving in the same straight line strike each other the state of their common centre of gravity is not altered it either remains at rest or continues to move as formerly in the same straight line

II. If there be two non-elastic bodies and if one of them move in a straight line while the other is at rest in that line, or is moving in a slower rate in

the same direction, or is moving
in a contrary direction these bo-
dies must necessarily meet and
strike each other, and after the
stroke they will either remain at
rest or move on together conjunct-
ly with their common centre of
gravity. If they both move in
the same direction, their momen-
tum after the stroke will be e-
qual to the sum of their momen-
tums before it, but it will be e-
qual to the difference of their
momentums if they move in a
contrary direction. If both bodies
move in the same direction,
the quotient that arises from
dividing the sum of their mo-

momentums, by the sum of their quantities of matter will be equal to their velocity after the stroke. If they move in opposite directions their velocity is ascertained by dividing the difference of their momentums by the same divisor

III. If one body strike against another the magnitude of the stroke is proportional to the momentum which the more powerful body loses at the concurrence.

IV. When a given body strikes directly against another given body, if the latter be at rest the quantity of the stroke

is proportional to the velocity of the body; if the second be moving in the same direction with the first but at a slower rate, the magnitude of the stroke will be the same as if the second body stood still, and the first impinged upon it with a velocity equal to the difference of their velocities; If the bodies move directly against each other the magnitude of the stroke is the same as if one of the bodies stood at rest and the other struck it with the difference of their velocities.

V. The mutual action of bodies enclosed in a certain space

is ~~not~~ the same whether that space be at rest or in motion uniformly & directly.

VII. When two bodies which are perfectly elastic strike directly against each other, their relative velocity remains unaltered

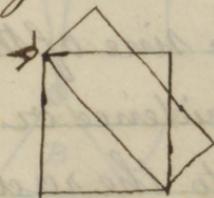
The nature of compound Motion or the Composition & resolution of Forces is next to be considered.

1. A body impelled at the same time by two forces in different directions, will move

in a direction between them.

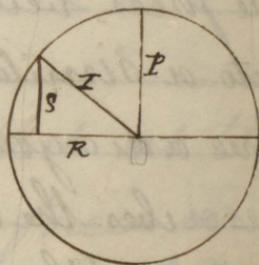
2. When a body is impelled by two forces the diagonal of a square or of a parallelogram whose sides are equal to the impelling powers will describe the direction and extent of the motion.

3. When a body is impelled by at the same time by three forces the diagonal of a parallelogram whose sides are proportional to any two of the forces being formed with the third into a similar parallelogram will give a diagonal which describes the direction & extent of the motion.



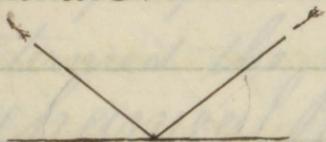
Obs. In these cases the combined impulses are equal to an impulse which would produce a motion equal to the diagonal of a parallelogram; consequently if two sides of a triangle represent the quantity and direction of the two forces acting from a given point the third side will represent the quantity and direction of the forces a third force which acting from the same point will be equal to the other two ~~forces~~. This is termed the composition and resolution of forces.

Obs. 2. The effect of an oblique force is to the same in a perpendicular direction, as the sine of the angle of incidence or is to the radius.

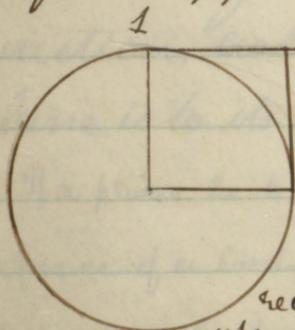


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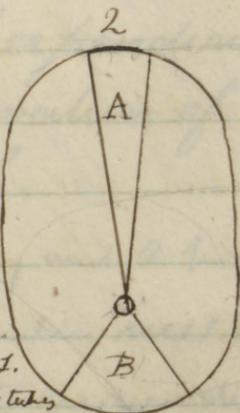
4. When the motion of a body perfectly elastic is firmly obstructed the angle of incidence is equal to the angle of reflection.



5. A simple and an Accelerated force except when they act in the same or in contrary directions produce a curvilinear motion. The nature of the curve corresponds with the nature of the forces applied.



When the forces applied are equal the body hath a circular direction as in E. I.



when unequal it takes the direction of an ellipse moving unequally in different parts of its course but is said to have equal spaces in equal times, thus the area of $\angle A$ is equal to that of B .

A variety of means have been adopted to render power subservient to the purposes of life, these are termed the
Mechanical Powers,
of which the first to be considered is the Inclined Plane.

1 The force of gravity by which a body is impelled downward upon an inclined plane, is to the same force acting in a perpendicular direction, as the elevation of the plane is to its length.

If a plane be 6 feet long and 2 high the force of a body descending will be as 2 is to 6 or $\frac{1}{3}$ of its perpendicular force

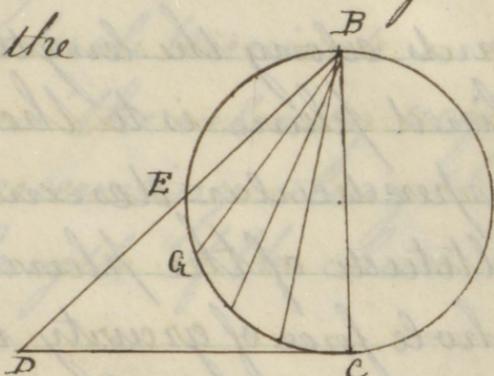
2. The space which is described by a body descending freely from rest toward the earth is to the space which it will describe upon the surface of an inclined plane, in the same time, as the length of the plane is to its elevation or as the radius is to the sine of the plane's inclination



3. If upon the elevation BC , of the inclined plane BD as a diameter the semicircle $BEGC$, be described the part BE of the inclined plane which is cut off by the semicircle is that part of

the plane over which a body will
descend in the
same time

that another
body will
descend free.



ly and perpendicularly along the
diameter of the circle, hence it
follows that a body will descend
over every chord of the semicircle
and to C in equal times.

4 the time in which a body descends along the length of an inclined plane is to the time of its perpendicular descent along the altitude of the plane or as the whole force of gravity is to that part of it which acts upon the plane

5 A descending body whether it proceed along a plane or in a perpendicular direction acquires

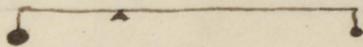
equal velocity: hence in all chords
of a circle which terminate in the
circle horizon the velocity acquired
by bodies descending along them
is as the length of the chords res-
pectively

6. The times of descent along two
planes of unequal lengths but equal-
ly inclined are as the square roots
of their respective lengths.

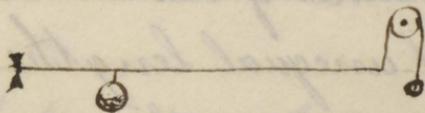
Lever

1 Of levers there are different kinds, and these, according to their nature, have different properties

2 In a lever of the First kind, the fulcrum lies between the weight and the power



3. In the Second kind, the weight is between the fulcrum and the power



4. In the Third the power is between the fulcrum and the

weight



5. In all levers if the quantities of the power and weight, whatever be their directions, be inversely as the perpendiculars let fall from the centre of motion on their respective directions they will be in equilibrium.

6

6. Along with the lever may be comprehended the Balance, respecting which there are various particulars that deserve attention.

7. The arms of the balance should describe equal arches, they should also be of homogeneous and inflexible materials, and as long as possible

8. The arcs should be at right angles to the beam, well polished and hard, and the bearing edges not too obtuse, the rings which support the axis should also be well polished parallel, and of an oval figure.

9. The points of suspension ought to be in the line of the centre of motion and the effect of the index, ^{considered} by an opposite weight.

10. The centre of motion should be a little above the centre of gravity

11. Helsham's property of the balance deserves to be considered

If a person be weighed in a scale and exactly balanced, and if he then steps up and outwards against the beam his weight will appear to be greater because by pushing outwards the scale in which he stands the length of the lever is increased.

Wheel and Axle.

1 In the Axis and Pulley or wheel and axle, the velocity of the weight is to the velocity of the power as the diameter or circumference of the axis is to the diameter or circumference of the wheel.

2. A fixed pulley is useful to change the direction of a power, but affords no mechanical advantage. This is acquired by means of the moveable pulley.

3. In every system of pulleys the power is to the weight as one is to the whole number of cords.

4. The principal defects of the pulley, and the means of avoiding them ought to be considered.

The ends of pulleys sometimes become twisted and in complex systems friction and the rigidity of cordage greatly diminish the power the friction of axles is sometimes diminished by the use of friction wheels but there is a tendency to render machinery complex.



Wedge

1. The use of the wedge is generally understood but the true theory of its operation is not well ascertained

The wedge acts not so much by the force applied as by percussion which by causing the particles of bodies to vibrate makes them separate more easily

2. It produces its effect not so much by the application of power as by means of percussion

3. According to its figure it consists of one or more inclined planes, and then the power is to the resistance at the elevation of the plane as to its length.

Screw.

1. A screw is merely a revolving inclined plane. It is usually combined with the lever.

2. When the lever and screw are combined, the resistance and power are in equilibrium when the first is to the last as one circumference of the power is to the distance between two contiguous threads of the screw.

All the mechanical powers are reducible to the lever.

It is a principle generally admitted into mechanical treatises, that by means of any of the preceding powers or of any of their combinations in complex machinery no increase of power is acquired. This must be admitted with limitations.

In complicated machinery, much of the power is lost by friction and other unavoidable imperfections.

In complicated machinery, the powers and effects are computed by the principles already stated in illustrating the nature of the mechanical powers.

Pneumatics

Pneumatics treat of the mechanical properties of permanently elastic bodies.

The two principal qualities of aeriform bodies are their Gravity and Elasticity

1 Gravity.

A quart of air weighs nearly 16 grains and its pressure upon bodies

on the surface of the earth is 16 lbs
upon the square inch, This causes
the operation of the common pump,
Barometer and Siphon.

Ex. A Florence flask exhausted is
lighter than when full of air.

An open topped receiver with blast-
der tied over it when exhausted
will be pressed with such force that
the bladder will burst with explo-
sion — Magdeburg hemispheres —
Water & mercury may be forced through
wood by pressure of air. 29 &c

2 Elasticity

The particles of vapour and gases exercise a repelling power and consequently have a tendency to expand on this account they can be condensed & rarefied.

Ex. glass bladder in an exhausted receiver becomes tense by elasticity of the contained air - a ~~received~~ shrivelled apple will be expanded by the elasticity of the contained air - An egg with a hole made in the small end will have its whole contents expelled by the expansion of the air - bubble in the large end - forcing pump and fire engine.

Hydrostatics

Hydrostatics is that branch of Natural Philosophy which treats of the mechanical properties of Non-elastic fluids.

Fluids are regulated by the general principles of Gravitation but in small quantities they are affected by different kinds of attraction
Aggregation - as drops of rain
Affinity - as water adhering to glass

The tendency of the parts of a fluid to separate when in large quantities occasions several peculiarities.

1. The parts of a fluid gravitate separately.

2. When unconfined they spread in every direction.

3. They preserve a level surface

4. They press equally in every direction.

5. They press with a force proportional to their perpendicular height.

Optics.

Optics treat of the nature of Light, Colours & vision. Des Cartes supposed Light to be a subtle fluid dispersed through the universe; and that it acquires a vibratory motion from those bodies termed luminous.

~~The~~

According to the Newtonian theory,
light is an emanation from luminous
bodies

Light has been supposed by some
to contain three primitive colours; but
by others to contain seven.

Rays of light proceed from luminous bodies in straight lines

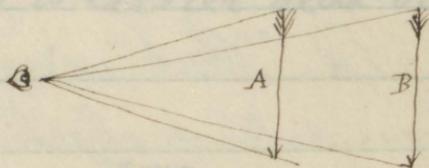
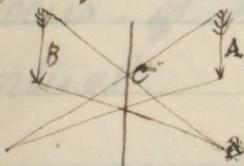
The straight course of the rays of light is affected by obvious causes.

When rays of light fall upon a body they are partly absorbed, and partly sent back or reflected.

Diagrams	Optics
Converging	&
Parallel	Diagrams

Impression of light remains on the retina
 $\frac{2}{10}$ ths of a second

When rays of light are reflected,
the angle of reflection is equal to the
angle of incidence



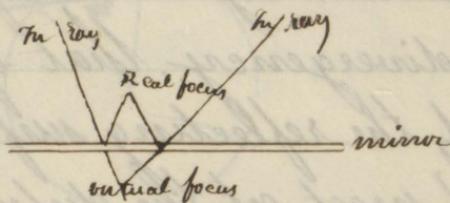
from this principle comes the visual angle or
that angle in which the rays of light pass
from the extreme points of an object to the
eye in perspective as this is great or small so
will we see the object large or small. Thus
the objects at A & B being of the same size
but at different distances will appear to
be of different sizes. One of the effects of
the visual angle is that an object A seen
in the mirror e will appear as if at B.

Reflected rays are affected by the con-
cavity or the convexity of the surface
from which they are sent.

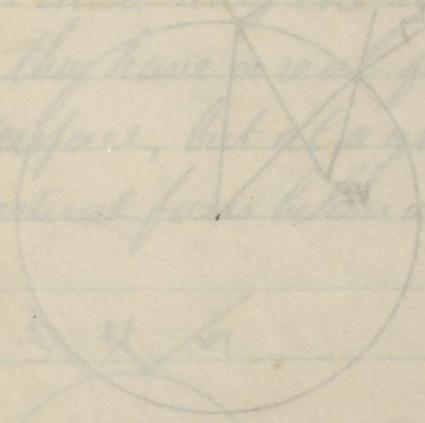
Rays of light whether parallel,
diverging or converging, which fall
upon a convex surface diverge when
reflected.

the con-
surface

The point upon which rays of light are concentrated, or may be supposed to be concentrated is termed a Focus. A Focus is either real or virtual.

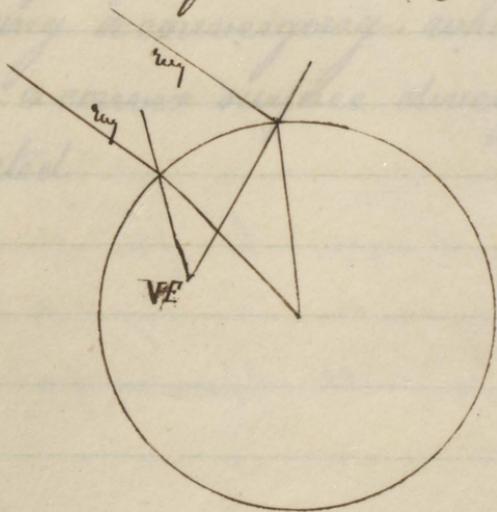


parallel
fall
when

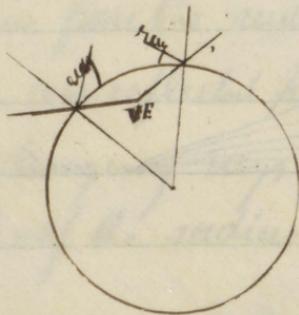


Respecting the virtual focus of rays, reflected from a convex surface it may be remarked

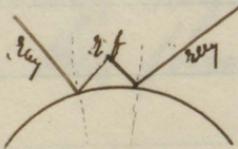
1st. That incident parallel rays from distant objects are reflected with such divergency, that if protracted beyond the reflecting surface, they would meet at the distance of half the radius of convexity.



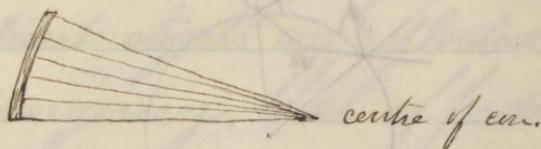
2^{dly}. That diverging incident rays from near and minute objects form their virtual focus nearer the reflecting surface than half the radius of convexity



3^{dly}. That when converging incident rays proceed from an object at a distance less than half the radius of convexity, they have a real focus without the surface, but at a greater distance a virtual focus behind it.



In a reflecting concave surface, rays proceeding from the centre of concavity, are reflected in the same direction

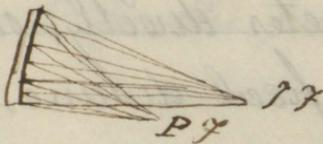


For optical purposes small sections of large spherical surfaces are generally used.

Sections of large spheres produce least distortion

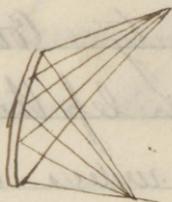
Parallel rays falling upon a concave surface, from a focus at ^{half} the distance of the centre of concavity. Convergent rays proceeding from less than the length of the radius from the radius or from beyond it diverge, are reflected parallel or from a focus, diverging rays form a focus at less than half the radius.

Foci of reflection are Incident or Principal



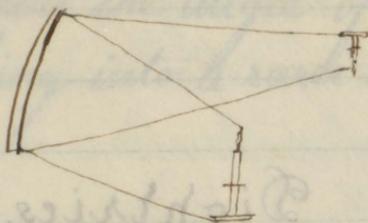
When rays of light are reflected from a concave surface and intersect each other they form caustic curves

As the one focus approaches
the other recedes.

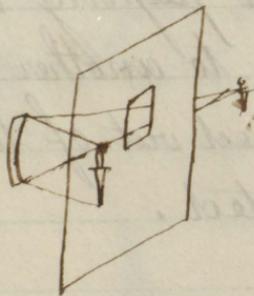


The intensity of light or heat
collected in the focus of a con-
cave mirror is nearly as the square
of its diameter directly, or as the
principal focal distance, inversely.

Images in a concave mirror are
seen inverted



Concave reflectors as they form an
image of an object before their surface
are employed for the purposes of a-
musement & deception



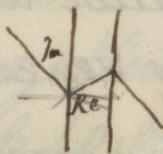
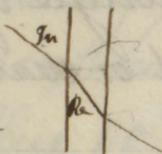
It is generally supposed that light
is reflected before it touches the reflect-
ing surface

Dioptries.

Rays of light falling upon parti-
cular objects partly pass through them.

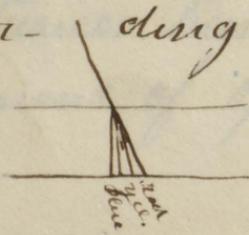
Rays of light passing obliquely
from one medium to another of a different
density are turned out of their straight
course or refracted.

Light passing into a denser medium has the angle of incidence larger than larger than the angle of refraction but passing into a rarer medium it is less



Ref. power of *Att.* - is to Water as 3 to 4
 " " Glas " 2 " 3
 " " Diamond " 2 " 5

When light is refracted it is also indulged in a sectoral manner and according to its refrangibility displays different colours.



In different mediums the re-
fracting and dispersing powers do
not always bear the same pro-
portion, but in the same medium
the angle of dispersion becomes lar-
ger or smaller as the angle of re-
fraction is increased or dimin-
ished.

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Respecting the number of primitive colours philosophers are not agreed, but it is proved by synthesis that the 7 mentioned by Sir I. Newton produce colours when blended in different the following proportions.

Red, 45; Orange 27; yellow 48; Green, 60; Blue 60; Purple 40; Violet 80.

A knowledge of the different refractive and dispersive powers of different substances has tended to the improvement of optical instruments.

A transparent medium having
at least one side convex or concave
is termed a lens. Of these there
are various kinds and each has an
appropriate name. Every lens has
a centre, axis & vertices.

D Plano-Convex

O Double Convex

I Plano-Concave

X Double Concave

C Concavo-Convex

C Miniscous.

Rays of light falling upon a lens, except on its centre proceed from it according to the laws of refraction.

The different refrangibility of the coloured rays occasions an imperfection of lenses, which was long supposed to be insurmountable. But it has been remedied by a chromatic improvement.

The principal focus of a lens may be determined either by calculation or experiment.

In some lenses the principal focus is real but in others virtual.

The principal focus^{distance} of a plano-convex is nearly equal to the diameter of its sphere, and in a double convex it is nearly equal to the radius. The virtual foci of plano-concave and double concave are in the same proportions.

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name Every lens
has a centre axis
and vertices



convex concave

meniscus

rays of light falling on
a lens except on its
centre proceed from
it accordy to the law
of refraction.

The different refractive
qualities of the several
rays occurring in the
refraction of Beves
which was long not
noticed to be irremed-
iable. But it has been
remedied by a circular
instrument,

The principal focus of
a lens may be ascer-
tained either by experi-
ment or calculation.

In some lenses the principal
focus is real but in others, in
fact, the principal focus is
virtual. The principal focus of
a lens of a Plano convex lens
is real, equal to the dis-

List of Conductors & Non-Conductors of Electricity.

Conductors.— Metals, Charcoal, Murrage, strong Mineral and weak vegetable Acids, Metallic ores, Ice above 13°F , Snow, Living Animals & vegetables, Fleeme, Steam, Powdered glass & sulphur, Resins melted, Glass Red hot.

Non-Conductors.— Amber, Resins, Sulphur Glass, vitrified Bodies, Gems, Silk, Wool, Hair, feathers, Paper, Leather, Dry Gases, Dry vegetable Bodies, Marble &c, Ice below 13° Oils, Dry Metallic Oxides.

of its spines and in a club
course less it is nearly equal
to the radius. The vertical
foci of plano convex & club
concave are in the same
proportions.

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